

Jessica L. Wildman · Richard L. Griffith
Editors

Leading Global Teams

Translating Multidisciplinary Science to
Practice

 Springer

Leading Global Teams

Jessica L. Wildman • Richard L. Griffith
Editors

Leading Global Teams

Translating Multidisciplinary
Science to Practice

 Springer

Editors

Jessica L. Wildman
School of Psychology and Institute
for Cross Cultural Management
Florida Institute of Technology
Melbourne, FL, USA

Richard L. Griffith
School of Psychology and Institute
for Cross Cultural Management
Florida Institute of Technology
Melbourne, FL, USA

ISBN 978-1-4939-2049-5

ISBN 978-1-4939-2050-1 (eBook)

DOI 10.1007/978-1-4939-2050-1

Springer New York Heidelberg Dordrecht London

Library of Congress Control Number: 2014953602

© Springer Science+Business Media New York 2015

This work is subject to copyright. All rights are reserved by the Publisher, whether the whole or part of the material is concerned, specifically the rights of translation, reprinting, reuse of illustrations, recitation, broadcasting, reproduction on microfilms or in any other physical way, and transmission or information storage and retrieval, electronic adaptation, computer software, or by similar or dissimilar methodology now known or hereafter developed. Exempted from this legal reservation are brief excerpts in connection with reviews or scholarly analysis or material supplied specifically for the purpose of being entered and executed on a computer system, for exclusive use by the purchaser of the work. Duplication of this publication or parts thereof is permitted only under the provisions of the Copyright Law of the Publisher's location, in its current version, and permission for use must always be obtained from Springer. Permissions for use may be obtained through RightsLink at the Copyright Clearance Center. Violations are liable to prosecution under the respective Copyright Law.

The use of general descriptive names, registered names, trademarks, service marks, etc. in this publication does not imply, even in the absence of a specific statement, that such names are exempt from the relevant protective laws and regulations and therefore free for general use.

While the advice and information in this book are believed to be true and accurate at the date of publication, neither the authors nor the editors nor the publisher can accept any legal responsibility for any errors or omissions that may be made. The publisher makes no warranty, express or implied, with respect to the material contained herein.

Printed on acid-free paper

Springer is part of Springer Science+Business Media (www.springer.com)

Contents

1	Leading Global Teams Means Dealing with <i>Different</i>	1
	Jessica L. Wildman and Richard L. Griffith	
Part I Foundations of Global Teams		
2	Culture, Communication, and Conflict: A Review of the Global Virtual Team Literature.....	13
	Charles P.R. Scott and Jessica L. Wildman	
3	Project GLOBE for Scientists and Practitioners: Drawing Clarity from Controversy.....	33
	William K. Gabrenya Jr. and Peter B. Smith	
4	Structuring Successful Global Virtual Teams	67
	Stephanie A. Miloslavic, Jessica L. Wildman, and Amanda L. Thayer	
Part II Adapting Global Teams		
5	Team Training for Global Virtual Teams: Strategies for Success.....	91
	Christina N. Lacerenza, Stephanie Zajac, Nastassia Savage, and Eduardo Salas	
6	Developing Cross-Cultural Competencies Through Global Teams	123
	Paula Caligiuri and Kyle Lundby	
7	Coaching Global Teams and Global Team Leaders.....	141
	Curtis D. Curry	

8 Navigating Multicultural Teams: A Road Map to Feedback Across Cultures.....	169
Rana Moukarzel and Lisa A. Steelman	
Part III Leading Global Teams	
9 Alternate Views of Global Leadership: Applying Global Leadership Perspectives to Leading Global Teams.....	195
Benjamin Biermeier-Hanson, Mengqiao Liu, and Marcus W. Dickson	
10 Leadership for Global Virtual Teams: Facilitating Teamwork Processes.....	225
Dorothy R. Carter, Peter W. Seely, Joe Dagosta, Leslie A. DeChurch, and Stephen J. Zaccaro	
11 Can We Count on You at a Distance? The Impact of Culture on Formation of Swift Trust Within Global Virtual Teams.....	253
Norhayati Zakaria and Shafiz Affendi Mohd Yusof	
12 Faultline Deactivation: Dealing with Activated Faultlines and Conflicts in Global Teams	269
Martijn van der Kamp, Brian V. Tjemkes, and Karen A. Jehn	
13 Global Teams in the Military	295
Arwen H. DeCostanza, Jessica A. Gallus, and LisaRe Brooks Babin	
Part IV A Look Ahead	
14 Looking Forward: Meeting the Global Need for Leaders Through Guided Mindfulness.....	325
Richard L. Griffith, Mary Margaret Sudduth, Agnes Flett, and Thomas Scott Skiba	
Index.....	343

Contributors

LisaRe Brooks Babin, Ph.D. U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences, Fort Leavenworth, KS, USA

Benjamin Biermeier-Hanson College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI, USA

Paula Caligiuri, Ph.D. D'Amore-McKim School of Business, Northeastern University, Boston, MA, USA

Dorothy R. Carter School of Psychology, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA, USA

Curtis D. Curry Quality Learning International, Malabar, FL, USA

Joe Dagosta Center for Education Integrating Science, Mathematics, and Computing, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA, USA

Leslie A. DeChurch, Ph.D. School of Psychology, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA, USA

Arwen H. DeCostanza, Ph.D. U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences, Arlington, VA, USA

Marcus W. Dickson, Ph.D. College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI, USA

Agnes Flett School of Psychology and Institute for Cross Cultural Management, Florida Institute of Technology, Melbourne, FL, USA

William K. Gabrenya Jr., Ph.D. School of Psychology and Institute for Cross Cultural Management, Florida Institute of Technology, Melbourne, FL, USA

Jessica A. Gallus, Ph.D. U.S. Army Research Institute, Fort Belvoir, VA, USA

Richard L. Griffith, Ph.D. School of Psychology and Institute for Cross Cultural Management, Florida Institute of Technology, Melbourne, FL, USA

Karen A. Jehn, Ph.D. Melbourne Business School, Carlton, VIC, Australia

Martijn van der Kamp Melbourne Business School, Carlton, VIC, Australia

Christina N. Lacerenza Department of Psychology and Institute for Simulation and Training, University of Central Florida, Orlando, FL, USA

Mengqiao Liu College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI, USA

Kyle Lundby, Ph.D. Global Aspect Human Capital Advisors, Durham, NC, USA

Stephanie A. Miloslavic, Ph.D. National Aeronautics and Space Administration, Kennedy Space Center, Cape Canaveral, FL, USA

Rana Moukarzel, Ph.D. Publix Super Markets, Lakeland, FL, USA

Eduardo Salas, Ph.D. Department of Psychology and Institute for Simulation and Training, University of Central Florida, Orlando, FL, USA

Nastassia Savage Department of Psychology and Institute for Simulation and Training, University of Central Florida, Orlando, FL, USA

Charles P.R. Scott School of Psychology and Institute for Cross Cultural Management, Florida Institute of Technology, Melbourne, FL, USA

Peter W. Seely School of Psychology, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA, USA

Thomas Scott Skiba School of Psychology and Institute for Cross Cultural Management, Florida Institute of Technology, Melbourne, FL, USA

Peter B. Smith, Ph.D. School of Psychology, University of Sussex, Brighton, UK

Lisa A. Steelman, Ph.D. School of Psychology, Florida Institute of Technology, Melbourne, FL, USA

Mary Margaret Sudduth, Ph.D. School of Psychology, Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute, Melbourne, FL, USA

Amanda L. Thayer Department of Psychology and Institute for Simulation and Training, University of Central Florida, Orlando, FL, USA

Brian V. Tjemkes, Ph.D. Department of Management and Organization, VU University, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Jessica L. Wildman, Ph.D. School of Psychology and Institute for Cross Cultural Management, Florida Institute of Technology, Melbourne, FL, USA

Shafiz Affendi Mohd Yusof, Ph.D. College of Arts and Sciences, School of Computing (SOC), Universiti Utara Malaysia, Kedah, Malaysia

Stephen J. Zaccaro, Ph.D. Department of Psychology, George Mason University, Fairfax, VA, USA

Stephanie Zajac Department of Psychology, Rice University, Houston, TX, USA

Norhayati Zakaria, Ph.D. College of Law, Government and International Studies, School of International Studies (SOIS), Universiti Utara Malaysia, Kedah, Malaysia

About the Editors

Richard L. Griffith is a Professor in the Industrial Organizational Psychology program and the Executive Director of The Institute for Cross Cultural Management at the Florida Institute of Technology. He is the author of over 75 publications and presentations in the area of personnel selection and is the editor and author of several books, chapters, and journals on the topic. He has conducted funded research for the Department of Defense examining the measurement and training of cross-cultural competence and the development of region-specific cultural databases. Dr. Griffith provides coaching in global leadership and executive presentations, specializing in presentations conducted abroad. He is the Associate Editor of the *European Journal of Psychological Assessment* and the coeditor of “The Age of Internationalization” and “Leading Global Teams: Translating the Multidisciplinary Science to Practice”. His work has been featured in *Time* magazine and *The Wall Street Journal*.

Jessica L. Wildman is an Assistant Professor in the Industrial Organizational Psychology program and the Research Director of the Institute for Cross Cultural Management at the Florida Institute of Technology. She earned her Ph.D. in industrial/organizational psychology from the University of Central Florida in 2011 under the direction of Dr. Eduardo Salas. Since 2007, she has coauthored 11 book chapters and 10 refereed journal articles and has personally presented over 20 times at professional conferences on topics including cultural competence, trust development and repair, global virtual teams, team cognition, and team effectiveness. Dr. Wildman has experience in designing and managing international research as a part of a federally funded multidisciplinary university research initiative (MURI) and developing training for the calibration of trust in military swift starting action teams for a small business innovative research (SBIR) project. She was awarded the Interservice/Industry Training, Simulation, and Education Conference (IITSEC) doctoral scholarship in 2010 and the Interdisciplinary Network for Group Research (INGRoup) best conference poster award in 2009 for her work on measuring trust and distrust as separate attitudes. Her current research interests include interpersonal trust dynamics across cultures, multicultural work performance, and global virtual team processes and performance.

About the Authors

LisaRe Brooks Babin earned her Ph.D. in Experimental Psychology and was an Associate Professor with the University of Maryland European Division deploying to Afghanistan, Iraq, Kuwait, and Bahrain to teach the service men and women psychology to complete their degrees while downrange from 2006 to 2009. She most recently worked as a social scientist for the Human Terrain System working with the 101st Airborne Division to advise the Command on cultural factors related to their military missions and to train Female Engagement Teams (FETs). Dr. Brooks Babin currently is a Research Scientist at the US Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences (ARI) at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, and researches issues related to FET development, training, and employment, as well as the use of sociocultural systems in military decision-making.

Benjamin Biermeier-Hanson recently received his doctorate from Wayne State University and will be a Visiting Assistant Professor at Albion College as of fall 2014. He received his B.A. in Psychology from the University of Minnesota—Twin Cities, and his M.A. from Wayne State University. Ben’s primary research interests focus around leadership, organizational culture, and the intersection of the two. His most recent interests focus on leader-culture fit, as well as the leader-culture-performance linkage. Ben has also worked for Denison Consulting in Ann Arbor, MI, and as a statistical consultant for various organizations.

Paula Caligiuri is a work psychologist dedicated to helping companies, business teams, and executives become effective in today’s complex global environment. Paula is a D’Amore-McKim Distinguished Professor of International Business at Northeastern University and a research fellow with the E&Y Institute for Emerging Market Studies. Paula is the author of several journal articles and books including *Cultural Agility: Building a Pipeline of Successful Global Professionals* and has been named as one of the most prolific authors in international business. She is the International HRM Area Editor for the *Journal of International Business Studies*. Paula holds a Ph.D. from Penn State University in industrial and organizational psychology.

Dorothy R. Carter is a Ph.D. student in the Organizational Psychology Program at The Georgia Institute of Technology and a research assistant in the Developing Effective Leaders, Teams, and Alliances (DELTA) laboratory. Her research focuses on understanding leadership and effective collaboration in complex, multidisciplinary, and virtually mediated collectives. She has served as a graduate student lead on several large-scale research projects funded through the National Science Foundation and has multiple publications, conference proceedings, and book chapters on topics including leadership, social network analysis, teams, and multi-team systems. Dorothy holds a B.S. in Psychology with a minor in Business Management from Wright State University and a M.S. in Organizational Psychology from Georgia Tech.

Curtis D. Curry president of the leadership development consultancy QLI, has provided training or coaching services to over 30,000 leaders and individual contributors from global organizations. Past clients include Harris, Honeywell Aerospace, DRS, Roche, and NASA's largest contractor, United Space Alliance, among many others. He speaks fluent Spanish, and has facilitated leadership programs in and coached leaders from North America, Europe, Asia, and Latin America. Curtis has an MBA, an MA in International Studies, and is currently completing a Ph.D. in leadership and HRD. Curtis is a fellow at the Institute for Cross Cultural Management, and teaches global leadership, international management, organizational behavior, and organizational consulting at the Florida Institute of Technology. He served as director of training, Center for Business and Industry, Miami-Dade College, director, World Trade Institute of the Americas, and director, Entrena Honduras/Nicaragua. He is an affiliate member of the Worldwide Association of Business Coaches, serves as the Chair for Inclusion and Intercultural Affairs at the South Brevard Society for Human Resource Management, and is a member of the Association for Talent Development.

Joe Dagosta is a Research Technician III at CEISMC, an educational research nonprofit that operates through Georgia Institute of Technology. Joe holds a B.S. in Psychology from Georgia Tech, and his research interests include workplace victimization and bullying, social network analysis, counterproductive work behaviors, and stress in the workplace.

Leslie A. DeChurch is an associate professor of Organizational Psychology at the Georgia Institute of Technology. Her research interests include leadership and teamwork in organizations. Her research has appeared in top journals including the Journal of Applied Psychology, Journal of Management, Leadership Quarterly, Journal of Applied Social Psychology, Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, Small Group Research, Educational and Psychological Measurement, and the International Journal of Conflict Management, and she serves on the editorial boards of the Journal of Applied Psychology, Small Group Research, Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, and the Journal of Business and Psychology. Her research has been funded by the National Science Foundation and

the Army Research on the Social and Behavioral Sciences. In 2011 DeChurch was awarded an NSF CAREER award to study leadership in virtual organizations, and in 2012 she was awarded an NSF Research Coordination Network project (co-PI with Noshir Contractor) to leverage big data for the advancement of computational social science. She is currently working in the areas of leadership networks and multi-team systems, and teaching Social Psychology and Social Networks. Professor DeChurch earned a B.S. in Environmental Science from the University of Miami, Coral Gables and an M.S. and Ph.D. in Industrial and Organizational Psychology from Florida International University in Miami.

Arwen H. DeCostanza is a Senior Research Psychologist at the US Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences (ARI). Dr. DeCostanza is an expert in the areas of team and organizational performance, unit cohesion, interpersonal trust, culture, and personnel selection. She leads a program of research focused on enhancing performance in complex military teams, with a concentration on organizational effectiveness in distributed command and control environments and unobtrusive measurement of team processes and performance over time. Dr. DeCostanza received her Ph.D. in Industrial and Organizational Psychology from The George Washington University and her B.A. in Psychology from Wake Forest University. She is an active member of Society of Industrial Organizational Psychology (SIOP) and the American Psychological Association (APA) and serves as webmaster for APA's Division 19 (Military Psychology).

Marcus W. Dickson is professor of organizational psychology and associate department chair at Wayne State University (Detroit, Michigan). His research has focused on issues of leadership, particularly in a cross-cultural context, and he was co-principal investigator of Project GLOBE, the largest study of leadership and culture conducted to date. Dickson is currently focusing on the organizational effects of leader betrayal of trust, and on a variety of projects related to assessing and promoting classroom excellence.

Agnes Flett is Business Director for the Institute for Cross Cultural Management. She is also Managing Director of Interims for HR Ltd., in the UK, providing HR consulting and Interim services for medium and large-sized businesses with international operations. With over 20 years' experience in I/O psychology/HR working in multiple industry sectors in senior national, regional, and global leadership roles and working at board level, she has traveled extensively and lived and worked in the Middle East as well as the UK. Prior to founding her own Company, she worked for a Big Four global professional services firm. Over 10 years, she held three senior leadership roles with them, all focusing on change transformation. As Global Head of Talent/Performance Management with a reach of over 110,000 employees in over 150 countries, she led global strategic change. She has a M.Sc. in Occupational Psychology from the University of London, is currently a Ph.D. student in I/O Psychology at Florida Institute of Technology in the USA, a graduate member of the British Psychological Society, Fellow of the Chartered Institute of Personnel and

Development, a member of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychologists, and member of the Society for Human Resources Management.

William K. Gabrenya Jr. received his Ph.D. in Social Psychology from the joint Psychology-Sociology program at the University of Missouri-Columbia then entered the then-new field of cross-cultural psychology during his postdoctoral fellowship at Ohio State University. He was editor of the International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology's (IACCP) *Cross-Cultural Psychology Bulletin* from 1995 to 2013. He served as chair of the IACCP Communication and Publications Committee for 8 years and has been Secretary-General of IACCP since 2008. He lived overseas as a visiting professor at National Taiwan University and Jacobs University Bremen, Germany and has taught workshops and short courses in China and Taiwan. Professor Gabrenya's research has focused primarily on social and personality topics within cross-cultural psychology and psychological sociology, including culture competence, expatriate/repatriate adjustment and readjustment; modernity/modernization processes, social stratification, indigenous psychology movements, and cultural differences in sexual behavior. He has an area of interest in Chinese society.

Jessica A. Gallus is an Industrial/Organizational Psychologist and Fellow in the Strategic Studies Group of the Chief of Staff of the US Army. Prior to her assignment to the Strategic Studies Group, Dr. Gallus served as a Senior Research Psychologist and Team Leader at the US Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences (ARI). At ARI, Dr. Gallus was responsible for managing and directing two portfolios of research on (a) Readiness and Resilience (R2C)—identifying factors influencing the development, maintenance and enhancement of unit resilience and its impact on team performance and organizational effectiveness; and (b) Cross Cultural Competence (3C)—defining and assessing the cross-cultural capabilities Soldiers need for optimal performance in Joint, Interagency, and Multinational contexts. Dr. Gallus also has substantive expertise on general mistreatment within organizational settings and has published research on workplace incivility, sexual harassment, and toxic leadership. Before joining ARI, Dr. Gallus was a Senior Consultant on Booz Allen Hamilton's Human Capital Team where she assisted Department of Defense agencies in human capital strategic planning, competency assessment and development, and the creation of a succession management strategy for the DoD's Senior Executive Service workforce. Dr. Gallus has a B.A. in English and Psychology from Manhattan College. She earned her M.A. and Ph.D. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology from the University of Connecticut.

Karen A. Jehn is Professor of Organization Behavior at Melbourne Business School, Australia. She earned her Ph.D. from Northwestern University, Illinois. Her research focuses on intragroup conflict, group composition and performance, and lying in organizations. Her two most recent research interests are asymmetry of perceptions and member entitlement in workgroups. Karen has acted as editor of *Conflict and Dispute Resolution Journal*, *International Journal of Conflict*

Management, and Negotiation and Conflict Management Research. She has published widely, in *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *Academy of Management*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Organization Science*, and *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*.

Martijn van der Kamp is a candidate at the Melbourne Business School in Australia. Before studying at MBS he completed a master degree in strategic management at the Rotterdam School of Management at Erasmus University in the Netherlands, and worked as a strategy consultant specializing in strategic alliances. Martijn's research is mainly focused on how team composition leads to subgroup formation and team conflict, and how deteriorating team outcomes as a result of subgroup formation can be prevented. He questions how this occurs in teams that are part of a multi-team system, a network of interdependent teams. Martijn uses a variety of research methods, including surveys, case studies, and experiments. He was awarded the Runner up Best Theoretical Conference Paper at the conference of the International Association for Conflict Management. He teaches corporate strategy and organizational behavior at the University of Melbourne.

Christina N. Lacerenza has been a researcher with the Institute of Simulation and Training since 2010, and is currently pursuing a doctoral degree in Industrial/Organizational Psychology at the University of Central Florida. Current projects include identifying an optimal team composition for team performance, identifying factors influencing training effectiveness, scale development and validation, team training program development, and identifying effective executive coaching behaviors. As an I/O Psychologist, Christina's mission is to utilize innovative techniques to improve the overall effectiveness, performance, and well-being of individuals and teams within firms.

Mengqiao Liu is a doctoral student in the Industrial Organizational Psychology Ph.D. program at the Wayne State University. Prior to joining Wayne State University, she studied psychology, business, and economics at Wesleyan College and graduated Summa Cum Laude in 2011. Mengqiao's primary research interests focus on personality in the workplace, cross-cultural issues, and psychological measurement. Mengqiao is a recipient of the University Graduate Research Fellowship and the Thomas C. Rumble University Graduate Fellowship at Wayne State University. Currently, she is working as a research associate at the Human Resources Research Organization (HumRRO) in Alexandria, Virginia.

Kyle Lundby is principal, Global Aspect Human Capital Advisors, a firm that he started to promote cultural agility and cross-cultural collaboration in global organizations. Prior to Global Aspect, he held senior positions with CEB, Valtera, Kenexa, and Gantz Wiley Research. His clients have included many of the most respected and successful global brands, including HSBC, Bank of America, Unilever, Mondelez International, Target and Cargill. Dr. Lundby has extensive experience implementing global employee opinion survey programs in support of

enterprise-wide change efforts and he works with many clients to assess and develop their future global leaders. He has lived in Asia and is passionate about the need for organizational leaders to be globally savvy so in addition to his client work, Dr. Lundby is a frequent presenter at professional conferences, writes book chapters and authors journal articles on the topic of leadership effectiveness in a global environment. Dr. Lundby holds a Ph.D. in Industrial and Organizational Psychology from The University of Tennessee and a M.S. from San Diego State University.

Stephanie A. Miloslavic received her Ph.D. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology in 2014 from Florida Institute of Technology (FIT). Stephanie previously worked at the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI) as a graduate research fellow. In that role, she supported DEOMI's mission through research, data analysis, report generation, and curriculum development in the areas of organizational climate, organizational effectiveness, and equal opportunity. Stephanie currently works as an Organizational Development Specialist at NASA's Kennedy Space Center (KSC) and adjunct instructor at FIT. At KSC, she serves as an internal consultant offering services in assessment, change management, conflict resolution, feedback, facilitation, interviewing, knowledge management, leadership development, organizational redesign, strategic planning, succession management, talent management, team alignment, and team building. As an adjunct instructor at FIT, she currently teaches Research Methods in Applied Psychology.

Dr. Rana Moukarzel received her Ph.D. in Industrial Organizational Psychology from the Florida Institute of Technology with an international concentration. Her expertise and research interests include the management of performance and talent, with a particular emphasis on employees' feedback seeking behaviors, the impact of organizational politics, and the importance of cross-cultural/intercultural competence. Rana is currently an internal consultant for Publix Super Markets where she provides expertise on the development and implementation of HR processes in areas such as selection, performance evaluation, succession planning, and leadership development. Additionally, Rana is involved in research with the Institute for Cross Cultural Management (ICCM). Her expertise in the Arab region and culture makes her an invaluable asset to ICCM in managing different grants and projects related to cross-cultural competence and global leadership. She is a member of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, the Academy of Management, and the International Association of Cross-Cultural Psychology.

Eduardo Salas is Trustee Chair and Pegasus Professor of Psychology at the University of Central Florida. Dr. Salas earned a Ph.D. in industrial/organizational psychology at Old Dominion University, and has since coauthored over 300 journal articles and book chapters on topics such as teamwork, team training, and performance assessment.

Nastassia Savage is a master's student in the Industrial/Organizational Psychology program at the University of Central Florida. Ms. Savage earned a B.A. in

Psychology with a minor in Sociology from the University of Central Florida in 2011. She is currently a graduate research assistant at the Institute for Simulation and Training where her research interests include team training, diversity, and organizational health. She is currently involved in projects investigating aspects of team dynamics, including projects funded by the National Science Foundation and Army Research Laboratory.

Charles P. R. Scott is a doctoral student in the Industrial Organizational Psychology program and research associate of the Institute of Cross Cultural Management with a specialization in culture and teams. He also runs the ARTEMIS research initiative at the Florida Institute of Technology. He earned his B.S. in psychology from the University of Central Florida in 2010. After graduation he worked for 3 years at the Naval Air Warfare Center assisting with the development of state of the art Intelligent Tutoring Systems training and simulations based on Item-Response Theory. He obtained his M.S. in Industrial Organizational Psychology in 2014. Since 2011 he has authored two book chapters and coauthored four journal articles and scholarly publications. His research targets the complex interactions between culture and group dynamics. His current research focuses on vocal and objective measures of leadership, leader emergence and shared leadership, as well as team and global virtual team processes and performance.

Peter W. Seely is a fifth year doctoral candidate in the Organizational Psychology Program at The Georgia Institute of Technology and a research assistant in the Developing Effective Leaders, Teams, and Alliances (DELTA) laboratory. His research focuses on communication technology in teams, team identity, network analysis, and leadership. He has worked on multiple research grants funded by the Army Research Institute and the National Science Foundation, serving as graduate student lead on three of these, and has multiple publications on the topics of teams and leadership. Peter holds a B.A. in Psychology from Emory University, and an M.S. in Organizational Psychology from Georgia Tech.

Thomas Scott Skiba is a Ph.D. candidate in the department of Industrial Organizational Psychology at Florida Institute of Technology specializing in the international application of I/O principles. He is the Research Manager for the Institute for Cross Cultural Management and has assisted in the research and development of tools for assisting global leaders. Thomas has presented articles at both the Society for Industrial Organizational Psychology and the Interdisciplinary Network for Group Research on the topics of organizational trust development and diversity in teams. His research examines the effect of global leadership development practices on meeting human capital demands and performance for large multinational organizations.

Peter B. Smith obtained his Ph.D. from the University of Cambridge in 1962. He is currently Professor Emeritus of Social Psychology at the University of Sussex, UK. He is first author or editor of ten books, including *Leadership, Organisations*

and Culture (1988), *Understanding Social Psychology across Cultures* (2006, 2013), *Handbook of Cross Cultural Management Research* (2008), *Cross-cultural Psychology* (2009), and more than 180 other publications in management and psychology journals. For 6 years he was editor of the *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* and is a former president of the International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology. He is a Fellow of the British Psychological Society, of the International Association for Applied Psychology and of the International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology. His research has mostly focused upon cultural differences in processes of social influence, including both formal leadership in organizations and more informal processes including conformity and culturally distinctive aspects such as Chinese *guanxi*. He has conducted surveys sampling more than 50 nations and has examined culturally effective ways of cross-national working.

Lisa A. Steelman is an Associate Professor and Director of the I/O psychology program at Florida Institute of Technology. Her research interests include the contextual and interpersonal processes associated with the provision and receipt of feedback at work, coaching, 360 degree feedback, and employee engagement. Lisa has expertise in the implementation of 360 and feedback processes across cultures. She received her Ph.D. from the University of Akron and currently serves on the Editorial Board of the *Journal of Business and Psychology*.

Mary Margaret Sudduth is a research psychologist for HR Tech, currently working at the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI). Dr. Sudduth is primarily responsible for providing data analysis of organizational climate surveys and consultation for the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office (SAPRO). During her tenure at DEOMI, Dr. Sudduth additionally conducted research in cross-cultural competence, collaborating in model development and programs related to cross-cultural proficiency and regional expertise. Her primary research interests focus on feedback processes and self-regulation in organizational environments. She has published in the *Psychological Record*, *Human Performance*, and *Journal of Organizational Behavior* and remains active in her academic field through membership and participation in the Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology (SIOP). Dr. Sudduth received her M.S. and Ph.D. in Industrial-Organizational Psychology from Florida Institute of Technology in Melbourne, Florida.

Amanda L. Thayer earned a B.A. in Psychology from the University of North Carolina at Wilmington in 2005 and spent several years working in industry. She is currently an industrial and organizational psychology doctoral candidate and graduate research associate at the Institute for Simulation and Training at the University of Central Florida. Her research focuses on the impact of interpersonal dynamics and team composition on teamwork and team performance in complex settings, with a particular emphasis on trust, cohesion, interpersonal deviance, and complex organizational systems. Ms. Thayer's work to date includes 11 publications, 24

presentations/posters at professional conferences, and student leadership on four funded projects. She is a member of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP), Academy of Management (AOM), and the Interdisciplinary Network for Group Research (INGROUP).

Brian V. Tjemkes holds a Ph.D. from Radboud University Nijmegen and is currently employed as associate professor at the VU University Amsterdam. His research interests center on alliance management, alliance portfolios, public-private partnerships, open (service) innovation, and cross-cultural research. His work has been disseminated through various academic conferences and publications in journals such as *Journal of Management Studies*, *Management Decision*, *Journal of International Management*, and *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*. He is coauthor of the book *Strategic Alliance Management*. He is also co-founder and program director of the Business Administration Master in Strategy and Organization and associate of the Amsterdam Centre for Service Innovation. In his work he continuously seeks ways to make academic knowledge relevant to practitioners, as reflected by industry research partnerships, management tool building as educational assignment, and professional presentations, workshops, and publications.

Shafiz Affendi Mohd Yusof is a Senior Lecturer at School of Computing, Universiti Utara Malaysia. Dr. Shafiz received his graduate degrees from School of Information Studies at Syracuse University. His Ph.D. degree is awarded in Information Science and Technology, while his Master's degree is in Telecommunications and Network Management. Dr. Shafiz's research program aims at looking at key questions of "how and why do people engage in relationship/friendship building" in a virtual environment, i.e., virtual community. The empirical study is conducted by using the institutional and socio-technical perspectives in which the main interest lies in the social and human impacts of using Internet and CMC technologies. In particular, he is interested to understand the emergence of relationships in online communities by way of online gaming or Internet technologies such as utilizing social sites networks, i.e., Facebook, LinkedIN, tweeter, Friendster, or synchronous collaborative tools, for e.g., instant messaging (Skype, IM), discussion boards or forums, blogs, and many more. He is actively participating in international conferences, and has published several book chapters, encyclopedias, and journals published by IGI Global in his area of expertise.

Stephen J. Zaccaro is a professor of psychology at George Mason University, Fairfax, Virginia. He is also an experienced leadership development consultant. He has written over 125 journal articles, book chapters, and technical reports on leadership, group dynamics, team performance, and work attitudes. He has authored a book titled, *The Nature of Executive Leadership: A Conceptual and Empirical Analysis of Success*, and has co-edited four other books on the topics of organizational leadership, leader development, multi-team systems, and occupational stress. He has worked with executives and managers from private industry as well as from the public and military sectors. He has served as a principal investigator, co-principal

investigator or consultant on multiple projects in the areas of leadership and executive assessment, leadership and team training, leader adaptability, executive coaching, multi-team systems, and team performance. He serves on the editorial board of *The Leadership Quarterly*, and he is an associate editor for the *Journal of Business and Psychology* and for *Military Psychology*. He is a Fellow of the Association for Psychological Science, and of the American Psychological Association, Divisions 14 (Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology) and 19 (Military Psychology).

Stephanie Zajac is a doctoral student in the Industrial/Organizational Psychology program at Rice University. She earned a B.S. in Psychology and a M.S. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology from the University of Central Florida. Her research interests include teams, complex skill acquisition, and training. She is particularly interested in individual differences and how they affect motivation in training, as well as training designs that enhance motivation and ability to learn.

Norhayati Zakaria is a Senior Lecturer in the College of Law, Government and International Studies (Department of International Business), Universiti Utara Malaysia. For the past 7 years till at present, she is also a Research and Teaching Associate at the Center of Collaboratory on Technology Enhanced Learning Communities Lab (COTELCO) at American University and Syracuse University, USA in which she has been leading a global virtual teams for a globally distributed collaboration research project. Dr. Zakaria graduated with a Ph.D. in Information Science and Technology and M. Phil. in Information Transfer from Syracuse University, USA and a M.Sc. Management from Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, USA. Since both schools focus on interdisciplinary programs, her area of expertise bridges two distinct fields—cross-cultural management and information communication technology. Her research program builds on a key question “what are the effective strategies to manage human resources in a virtual environment given the cultural and distance barriers?” Her key areas of expertise include designing training programs for developing cultural intelligence and competencies of expatriates, managers, and multicultural teams when working in culturally diverse environment, managing organizational decision-making processes in globally distributed collaboration context, and building model of effectiveness and best practices of using global virtual teams in a group learning environment in international organizations.

Chapter 1

Leading Global Teams Means Dealing with *Different*

Jessica L. Wildman and Richard L. Griffith

Recent scholars have noted that in today's world, global organizations are no longer the exception, but the norm (Burke, Shuffer, Salas, & Gelfand, 2010). The increase in international business along with the rapid improvement of communication technology has led to a dramatic increase in the prevalence of global teams within organizations (Hinds, Liu, & Lyon, 2011). Not only are these types of teams more common, the problems and projects they address are more complex. As many of the world's nations develop, global business is becoming more competitive, and government and military collaborations have become necessary to tackle crises on a global scale. It is undoubtedly the age of global team-based work, and these teams are now multinational, multicultural (Zhou & Shi, 2011), multiorganizational, self-managed, and geographically distributed. These multilayered complexities make achieving global team effectiveness a challenge. The impact of global team effectiveness (or lack thereof) can be observed in scientific achievement, such as the case of the crash of the Mars Climate Orbiter due to a failure to convert English and metric measurement units (Oberg, 1999). In addition, global work teams have become a cornerstone for competitiveness in global business (Cascio, 2014; Salazar & Salas, 2013), and in the case of some military stakeholders, effective global team leadership can have consequences in terms of human life and suffering (Latham, 2000).

These challenges are not insurmountable, however. With the right knowledge and tools, global team leaders can leverage the diversity in their teams to achieve impressive results beyond those achieved by traditional homogenous teams. By selecting the right team members, developing the right skills, designing the work carefully, and managing the performance of the team over time, the challenges of diversity and distribution can be mitigated and advantages realized. Global teams must be actively

J.L. Wildman, Ph.D. (✉) • R.L. Griffith, Ph.D.
School of Psychology and Institute for Cross Cultural Management,
Florida Institute of Technology, 150 W. University Blvd.,
Melbourne, FL 32901, USA
e-mail: jjwildman@fit.edu; griffith@fit.edu

managed if individual expertise and experience is to be of benefit to the team's success (Connaughton & Shuffler, 2007). The issues to consider and manage are many and include cultural diversity of team members, nature of the work being done, virtuality or distribution of the team, and critical team processes and emergent states. A well-trained, focused leader can initially set the direction and tone of the global team, and then maintain and adjust processes as the team performs.

Recent work suggests that effective global leadership may require additional competencies beyond those required by leaders of domestic teams (Bird, 2008; Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, & Maznevski, 2008). These leaders need to be more culturally competent (Pusch, 2009) and have knowledge of the predominant leadership styles expected by followers in different regions in the world (e.g., Chen & An, 2009; Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, & House, 2006). Leaders of global teams must develop heightened awareness of followers' interpersonal cues, be able to adopt the frame of reference of followers from different cultures, and practice style switching to accommodate their followers' expectations of leadership (Gundling, Hogan, & Cvitkovich, 2011; Moran, Harris, & Moran, 2010). All of these cultural nuances must be managed on top of the technically demanding, mission driven, and information overloaded role of the modern global team leader.

The chapters included in this book present cutting-edge science discovered through research on global teams, with an emphasis on global team leadership, in a way that is accessible to scholars, consultants, and organizational leaders. So what will this book be about? A lot of things: communication, culture, conflict, virtuality, leaders vs. followers, and contexts. In the end, however, effectiveness in global teams seems to come down to one core issue: *dealing well with things that are different*.

So what do we mean when we say dealing with things that are different? One of the basic concepts accepted in social psychology is that human beings have a propensity to categorize the things and people around them for the sake of simplicity (Haslam, van Knippenberg, Platow, & Ellemers, 2014), and one of the most salient way to categorize things is into two categories: *same* and *different*. When we meet others that look, walk, talk, and act like us, we unconsciously breathe a sigh of relief—our brains say, “Oh, this is familiar; this is normal; I know how to react to this!” But when we meet people that look, walk, talk, and act differently from us, the brain starts setting off our internal alarms instead—“Danger! Danger! This person isn't familiar; they aren't what we are used to; they could be a threat! They could be... unpredictable!” It is this innate tendency to interpret unfamiliarity as a threat, likely an evolutionary relic past down from our cave-dwelling ancestors, that can start a chain reaction of attitudes and behaviors that may hinder effective global collaboration.

A quick review of the cognitive processes activated when we encounter others that are different helps to illustrate this point. When we meet another person, within 170 ms we recognize them as a person or an object (Ito, Thompson, & Cacioppo, 2004). In the next quarter second they are categorized as *same* or *different*. If they are categorized as *same*, deep processing occurs and we attend to the person in the moment. However, if the category of *different* is activated instead, shallower processing dominates and we begin to operate on stereotypes. In just over half a sec-

ond, we form a basic affective reaction to the person and unconsciously “like” or “dislike” them (Ito et al., 2004). This differential processing of same stimuli versus different stimuli can explain why faces of similar races are more easily recognized than those of other races (Caldara et al., 2003; Meissner & Brigham, 2001). However, this mechanism may work for less salient categories of *different* as well. These evolutionary safety mechanisms have served us well in the past, but now serve as baggage that can weigh down global team effectiveness.

In essence, we have outpaced our evolution. While we are hardwired to view *different* as dangerous, in our current environment, working with others who are different is a necessity for survival and a distinct competitive advantage.

Many previous volumes on global leadership and global team effectiveness have delineated these differences, but treat them as long lists of distinct challenges. Differences in professions, culture, time zones, and technology are discussed as independent but compounding challenges. We believe that the challenge is simply *same* vs. *different*. Our brain doesn’t know what culture is; it simply recognizes differences. When a Brazilian encounters a Chinese counterpart whose values, goals, and work styles are poles apart, no automatic interpretation of China is available (outside of learned schema). The brain just detects different. We believe the same thing occurs when a marketing executive meets a human resource executive or when a soldier meets a sailor. The distance between differences may play a role in how easily the interpretation of behaviors and the translation of ideas progresses, but we believe the process is the same. Regardless of culture, profession, or status differentials, leaders must manage their initial categorization of different, and get in the moment if they are to become effective global team leaders.

In most global organizational situations, the unfamiliar person in question is not likely to be a threat (military settings as an obvious exception)—they are probably a fellow team member, a supervisor, a subordinate, a client, or some other key stakeholder that is meant to act as an ally—yet the hardwiring in our brains can trick us into reacting as if they are indeed a hazard. Once a person is perceived as different, the tendency is to form negative biases meant to protect one’s own self-esteem, to compete rather than to collaborate, to become behaviorally withdrawn instead of proactive, and to distrust rather than trust. None of these reactions are the best first step toward effective global collaboration.

All hope is not lost, though. Our evolutionary tendencies are not guarantees, and it is very possible to consciously rein in automatic reactions. Some people, the ones that we intuitively recognize as the superstars of global business, are acutely aware of their own potential biases and have the ability to accurately perceive them, control them, and consciously think before they act. In the language of organizational psychology, we refer to this skill as *self-regulation*, and we posit it is critical to improving global organizational success. Every time an organizational leader or employee encounters an unfamiliar situation (i.e., an unfamiliar culture, industry, technology), it triggers the same “wait, that’s different” reaction in our brain. Global teams are often the very definition of unfamiliar: unfamiliar people from unfamiliar countries, unclear problems, and complex communication technologies. Effectively managing these compound unfamiliar situations requires global leaders to become

self-aware of, and to effectively manage, that “wait, that’s different” reaction. It is the cognitive and behavioral process of self-regulation that allows individuals, and consequently teams, to manage that reaction more appropriately.

Self-regulation is a broad term that encompasses a variety of cognitive, affective, and behavioral routines that provide consistency and guidance as individuals strive to achieve goals. Although they often involve different definitions and foci, self-regulatory constructs and models have been introduced in many areas of psychology including personality, social, clinical, developmental, health, educational, experimental, and industrial/organizational psychology (Karoly, 1993). We propose that self-regulation of the knee-jerk reaction to *different* is critical to leading global teams. Research has suggested that regulatory resources are necessary to direct attention (Mack & Rock, 1998), to suppress inappropriate stereotypes and biases (Monteith, Sherman, & Devine, 1998), to activate or maintain appropriate situation awareness (Dattel et al., 2012), and to suppress automatic behaviors (Barrett, Tugade, & Engle, 2004).

Furthermore, self-regulatory skills come into play during every stage of an unfamiliar social encounter, and consequently can be used at multiple points to improve the quality of global leadership and ultimately team outcomes. Self-regulation is required to appropriately focus attention when first encountering and perceiving unfamiliar situations (Jokinen, 2005). Self-regulation is also necessary for controlling the resulting perception and interpretation of those unfamiliar situations (i.e., what emotional and cognitive reactions are activated in response). Finally, self-regulation is critical in determining if an individual will succumb to automatic behavioral responses that may or may not be appropriate in a global arena or if they will instead engage in conscious, controlled behavioral responses (Miyake et al., 2000). In other words, an individual with strong self-regulation skills should be able to attend to, perceive, interpret, and respond to a culturally, socially, and technologically unfamiliar situation more effectively than an individual with weak self-regulation skills. All of these benefits accrue because strong self-regulators are better able to deal with the ubiquitous “different”—no matter if that difference is different cultures, different technologies, different organizations, or something else. Strong self-regulators bring a critical skillset to address complex demands and, all things being equal, are likely to be the best global team members and leaders because they can better manage the multiple differences inherent in global team work. Although the chapters in this volume do not all explicitly deal with the concept of self-regulation, many of the issues and recommendations made do echo the basic sentiment that good global leaders and team members are self-aware, situationally aware, and have the ability to control their behavior, as we summarize below. Being a global leader is about managing *different*. This management starts with the self and extends to managing the perceptions, attributions, and behaviors of global work team members. Our expert panel of contributors extends this theme by bringing different perspectives and experiences. Taken as a whole, their contributions add to the body of research on global team effectiveness and provide practitioners with useful insights to leverage the differences present in global team contexts to meet the challenges of their missions and the demands of the twenty-first century.

Chapter Previews

The chapters in this book focus on a variety of topics relevant to global teams, but they all grapple with the same core issue: how can we as organizational professionals help global team leaders and members manage multiple unfamiliar boundaries by recognizing and controlling their reactions to things that are different? We have organized this book into three sections that attack global team challenges in a logical sequential order starting with pre-performance issues (i.e., team formation, team structuring) and ending with during-performance issues (i.e., leading and managing teams). We begin with foundational literature and pre-team-formation issues in Section 1, move onto training and development interventions that can be used to kick start team effectiveness in Section 2, and finish with a focus on how leaders can effectively manage team performance throughout the team's lifespan in Section 3. Finally, the concluding chapter closes the circle and reiterates the importance of mindfulness, a topic closely related to that core construct introduced in this chapter: self-regulation.

Section 1: Preparing for Global Teams

The chapter by Scott and Wildman (Chap. 2) is an introduction into the scientific literature surrounding global virtual teams. This chapter reviews and highlights three critical constructs related to global virtual team effectiveness: culture, communication, and conflict. One of the emerging themes is that global virtual teams are often very different from traditional teams in respect to these three issues: global teams are composed of members from multiple diverse cultures that are unfamiliar with one another; communication occurs via multiple (and likely unfamiliar) technological mediums such as email, chat, and Skype; and conflict occurs more frequently and is harder to manage and interpret given the ambiguity caused by most computer-mediated communication tools. This summary of the literature presents some of the techniques and solutions that global team leaders can use to mitigate the possible negative effects of cultural diversity on communication, conflict, and overall team effectiveness.

Gabrenya and Smith (Chap. 3) provide a critical review of one of the most well-known and influential pieces of published work in cross-cultural psychology: The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Project (Project GLOBE). This chapter explores project GLOBE in detail with a focus on critically assessing the validity and utility of the findings for practical purposes. The chapter concludes with a summary of similarities and differences across countries in terms of leadership, and some suggestions on practical lessons that global leaders can take away from this extensive work.

In the final chapter of Section I, Miloslavic, Wildman, and Thayer (Chap. 4) use a recent framework of team-level structural characteristics to develop several practical suggestions for composing, designing, and structuring effective global teams.

These suggestions are built around the issues of task interdependence, role structure, leadership structure, communication structure, physical distribution, and team lifespan. Several of the suggestions, focused either on structuring the team or how to manage the team given certain structural patterns, have an underlying purpose of reducing the ambiguity and unfamiliarity that occurs within global virtual teams. The authors suggest that this increased structure helps mitigate the potential for team members to engage in the ineffective cognitive biases and behavioral reactions mentioned earlier in this chapter.

Section 2: Adapting Global Teams

Section 2 of the book focuses on training and development interventions that can be used to shape and adapt global team members and leaders. This section begins with a chapter by Lacerenza, Zajac, Savage, and Salas (Chap. 5) focused on the art and science of team training and presents proven team training techniques that can be used to address the complexities unique to global virtual teams. The team training techniques reviewed include team coordination and adaptation training, event-based training, cross-training, team leadership training, and guided team self-correction training. The chapter provides several concrete recommendations regarding how these well-established training methodologies can be adapted to meet the needs of global virtual teams.

Caligiuri and Lundby (Chap. 6) take a slightly different approach to the development issue by discussing how the act of participating as a member in a global team, if carefully structured and guided, can be used as an opportunity to develop cross-cultural competencies for the future. They highlight the importance of framing the experience as a challenge and providing regular feedback and support in order to encourage team members to learn about, and manage, cultural differences within the team. The chapter ends with several direct recommendations on the key features organizations must provide in order to transform global team experiences into learning experiences.

The chapter by Curry (Chap. 7) examines the intervention of coaching for improving global teams and global team leaders. This chapter provides an exhaustive review of the literature covering coaching in general, leader coaching, and global team effectiveness, and then synthesizes this literature to make concrete suggestions regarding how to best coach global team leaders. Many of these suggestions, such as increasing personal self-awareness and cultivating mindfulness, relate directly back to the importance of self-regulation in global team effectiveness.

Moukarzel and Steelman (Chap. 8) wrap up the section on development with a chapter examining one of the most important developmental tools in an organizational leader's arsenal: feedback. This chapter combines the concepts of culture and feedback to suggest that certain approaches to feedback may be more or less effective when dealing with a diverse team of individuals. In general, their recommendations

suggest that effective global leaders have the ability to recognize differences in cultural preferences for feedback and to appropriately adapt feedback processes to maximize the utility of that feedback for global teams.

Section 3: Leading Global Teams

Section 3 moves onto the practices underlying the effective leadership of global teams, and Biermeier-Hanson, Liu, and Dickson (Chap. 9) begin this journey by examining some alternative global perspectives surrounding leadership such as global mind-set, cross-cultural intelligence, and contingencies approaches. This chapter reviews work on leadership competencies and styles and concludes with eight best practices that combine the best of these literatures together to inform global team leadership. Some of these best practices highlight the importance of self-awareness, cultural awareness, and avoidance of assumptions, which are concepts closely linked to self-regulation.

Carter, Seely, Dagosta, DeChurch, and Zaccaro (Chap. 10) continue the discussion of leadership in global teams, but with a focus on the role that leaders play in shaping the critical teamwork processes (i.e., behaviors teams do) and emergent states (i.e., things teams think or feel) necessary for global team success. Their perspective rests on the theory of functional leadership, which suggests that one of the core functions of a successful team leader is to manage and sustain the basic systemic needs of the team. In other words, effective global team leaders are both active participants and enablers for all of the team processes and emergent states that propel the team toward goal achievement such as sense making, monitoring activities, and providing resources. It could be argued that self-regulation is a critical prerequisite for functional global team leaders.

The next chapter by Zakaria and Yusof (Chap. 11) focuses on trust, which is one particular emergent state that is difficult to develop, yet critical, for global teams. This chapter explores the impact of cultural values on the formation of swift trust within global virtual teams. The authors suggest that the distinction between in-groups and out-groups plays a critical role in determining how easily swift trust is developed, in that individuals are much more likely to form trusting bonds with others they consider part of their in-group, but often the members of global teams are considered members of the out-group. As discussed previously in this chapter, the classification of team members as out-group members can lead to detrimental cognitive biases and behavioral outcomes that can make developing trust more difficult. The authors provide useful guidance to global leaders focused on reducing biases and developing swift trust in high context, collectivistic, affective cultures as well as low context, individualistic, instrumental cultures.

Van der Kamp, Tjemkes, and Jehn (Chap. 12) return to the topic of conflict, which is also highlighted in Chap. 2. This chapter provides a very practical perspective regarding how faultlines, or the hypothetical dividing lines that can create subgroups in teams, can create conflict, and how global team leaders can actively prevent the

damaging conflict that might occur from these faultlines. They provide an organizing typology of faultline deactivators that include interventions such as diversity training, development of superordinate team identity, and providing direct channels for knowledge sharing. Like many of the other chapters included in this volume, this chapter approaches the concept of cultural diversity not by trying to minimize the diversity, but instead by trying to minimize the negative outcomes of that diversity.

The last chapter within the leadership section, written by DeCostanza, Gallus, and Babin (Chap. 13), explores the many complexities of global teams within the specialized context of the military. The military context represents a situation in which global teams are likely to experience even more layers of unfamiliarity as team members adjust to the very strong organizational culture of military service branches; the foreign culture of the operating environment; the culture of collaborating partners such as United Nations forces; and the diverse cultural backgrounds of their own team, battalion, and platoon mates. Several ongoing research projects aimed at improving global team performance in these complex military settings are summarized and some lessons learned are provided.

Final Chapter

Finally, our concluding chapter brings the discussion full circle to present a concept that might be considered the ultimate in how to deal with things that are different—mindfulness. Griffith, Sudduth, Flett, & Skiba discuss the imperative of developing more global leaders to meet the demands of global growth. The authors review and critique existing approaches to global leadership development including workshops, coaching, action learning, and stretch assignments. Griffith et al. then discuss the dominant model of blended learning—the 70-20-10 model of leadership development—presenting both strengths and weaknesses. The authors then present the concept of Guided Mindfulness, a self-regulatory method to maximize the “70” portion of experiential learning. By prompting reflection at key points in the learning process, the Guided Mindfulness approach presents a developmental tool that is scalable, flexible, and relevant to the executive experience.

Conclusion

By definition, the competencies underlying the leadership of global teams are much larger in scope than the skillset used in domestic leadership. But the job is not only bigger, it is qualitatively different, because global leaders must constantly react and adapt to *different* circumstances and *different* stakeholders. It is precisely the challenges caused by these differences that led us to consider this book and to compile a talented and experienced panel of experts to author the chapters. It is our hope that the book will spur new research to further delineate what is *different*, and to

sharpen the focus on self-regulatory mechanisms to improve the development of global leaders. In addition, we hope the chapters shed light on the difficult challenges faced by practitioners and offer a few solutions to pressing business dilemmas. As our planet shrinks and our problems grow, we will need a new generation of culturally capable leaders to rise to the challenge. But before that can happen, learning professionals must put our shoulder behind the grindstone and solve a few human capital problems. We hope this book can be a useful tool in their toolkit.

References

- Barrett, L. F., Tugade, M. M., & Engle, R. W. (2004). Individual differences in working memory capacity and dual-process theories of the mind. *Psychological Bulletin*, *130*(4), 553–573. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.130.4.553.
- Bird, A. (2008). Assessing global leadership competencies. In M. Mendenhall, J. S. Osland, A. Bird, G. R. Oddou, & M. L. Maznevski (Eds.), *Global leadership: Research, practice and development* (pp. 64–80). New York: Routledge.
- Burke, C. S., Shuffler, M. L., Salas, E., & Gelfand, M. (2010). Multicultural teams: Critical team processes and guidelines. In K. Lundby (Ed.), *Going global: Practical applications and recommendations for HR and OD professionals in the global workplace* (pp. 46–82). New York: Routledge.
- Caldara, R., Thut, G., Servoir, P., Michel, C. M., Bovet, P., & Renault, B. (2003). Face versus non-face object perception and the ‘other-race’ effect: A spatio-temporal event-related potential study. *Clinical Neurophysiology*, *114*(3), 515–528.
- Cascio, W. F. (2014). Looking back, looking forward: Technology in the workplace. In M. D. Coovert & L. F. Thompson (Eds.), *The psychology of workplace technology* (pp. 307–313). New York: Routledge.
- Chen, G., & An, R. (2009). A Chinese model of intercultural leader competence. In D. K. Deardorff (Ed.), *The Sage handbook of intercultural competence* (pp. 196–208). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Connaughton, S. L., & Shuffler, M. (2007). Multinational and multicultural distributed teams: A review and future agenda. *Small Group Research*, *38*(3), 387–412.
- Dattel, A. R., Vogt, J. E., Sheehan, C. C., Madjic, K., Stefonetti, M. C., & Miller, M. C., et al. (2012, September). The effects of pointing out failures of inattention blindness on performance and situation awareness. In *Proceedings of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society Annual Meeting* (Vol. 56, No. 1, pp. 1094–1098). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Gundling, E., Hogan, T., & Cvitkovich, K. (2011). *What is global leadership?: 10 behaviors that define great global leaders*. Boston: Nicholas Brealey.
- Haslam, S. A., van Knippenberg, D., Platow, M. J., & Ellemers, N. (Eds.). (2014). *Social identity at work: Developing theory for organizational practice*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Hinds, P., Liu, L., & Lyon, J. (2011). Putting the global in global work: An intercultural lens on the practice of cross-national collaboration. *The Academy of Management Annals*, *5*(1), 135–188. doi:10.1080/19416520.2011.586108.
- Ito, T. A., Thompson, E., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2004). Tracking the timecourse of social perception: The effects of racial cues on event-related brain potentials. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *30*(10), 1267–1280.
- Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., Sully de Luque, M., & House, R. J. (2006). In the eye of the beholder: Cross-cultural lessons in leadership from project GLOBE. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *20*, 67–90.

- Jokinen, T. (2005). Global leadership competencies: A review and discussion. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 29(3), 199–216.
- Karoly, P. (1993). Mechanisms of self-regulation: A systems view. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 44, 23–52.
- Latham, G. A. (2000). *Cultural awareness and cross cultural communication: Combat multipliers for leaders in the next millennium*. Leavenworth, KS: Army Command and General Staff College Fort Leavenworth Ks School of Advanced Military Studies.
- Mack, A., & Rock, I. (1998). *Inattention blindness*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Meissner, C. A., & Brigham, J. C. (2001). Thirty years of investigating the own-race bias in memory for faces: A meta-analytic review. *Psychology and Public Policy Law*, 7, 3–35.
- Mendenhall, M. E., Osland, J. S., Bird, A., Oddou, G. R., & Maznevski, M. L. (2008). *Global leadership: Research, practice and development*. New York: Routledge.
- Miyake, A., Friedman, N. P., Emerson, M. J., Witzki, A. H., Howerter, A., & Wager, T. D. (2000). The unity and diversity of executive functions and their contributions to complex “frontal lobe” tasks: A latent variable analysis. *Cognitive Psychology*, 41(1), 49–100. doi:10.1006/cogp.1999.0734.
- Monteith, M. J., Sherman, J. W., & Devine, P. G. (1998). Suppression as a stereotype control strategy. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 2, 63–82.
- Moran, R. T., Harris, P. R., & Moran, S. V. (2010). *Managing cultural differences: Global leadership strategies for cross-cultural business success* (8th ed.). Oxford, England: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Oberg, J. (1999). Why the Mars probe went off course. *IEEE Spectrum*, 36(12), 34–39.
- Pusch, M. D. (2009). The interculturally competent global leader. In D. K. Deardorff (Ed.), *The Sage handbook of intercultural competence* (pp. 66–84). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Salazar, M., & Salas, E. (2013). Reflections of cross-cultural collaboration science. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34(6), 910–917.
- Zhou, W., & Shi, X. (2011). Culture in groups and teams: A review of three decades of research. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 11(1), 5–34. doi:10.1177/1470595811398799.

Part I
Foundations of Global Teams

Chapter 2

Culture, Communication, and Conflict: A Review of the Global Virtual Team Literature

Charles P.R. Scott and Jessica L. Wildman

Global virtual teams (GVTs) are a recent organizational adaptation created to meet the needs of the globalized marketplace. GVTs are essentially teams that are distributed across national boundaries and connected through advanced information technology such as email, instant messaging, and video conferencing. The GVT literature has grown extensively in only the last several years. Some of the most common areas of research within the GVT literature are culture, communication, and conflict as antecedents, mediators, and moderators of GVT effectiveness (Connaughton & Shuffler, 2007).

This introductory chapter will discuss the growing prevalence of GVTs, their benefits, and their drawbacks, before reviewing the literature on culture, communication, and conflict to explore three questions: (1) How do these variables influence GVT effectiveness and how do they interact, (2) what are the limitations within the literature, and (3) how should future research in this domain proceed? Connaughton and Shuffler (2007) provide an earlier review of the GVT literature that briefly covers these three topics. However, this review will expand and supplement their review by covering articles missing from their review, providing a more in-depth examination of the existent literature, and extending the review of the literature through 2013.

C.P.R. Scott • J.L. Wildman, Ph.D. (✉)
School of Psychology and Institute for Cross Cultural Management,
Florida Institute of Technology, 150 W. University Blvd., Melbourne, FL 32901, USA
e-mail: scottc2012@my.fit.edu; jwildman@fit.edu

The Increasing Importance of GVTs

There is evidence that GVTs have been swiftly adopted by multinational organizations and it is likely that this trend will continue to accelerate. It was only in 1992 when Nohria and Eccles's asserted, "... you cannot build network organizations on electronic networks alone... we will probably need an entirely new sociology of organizations" (pp. 304–305). Now, however, virtual teams (and, by extension, GVTs) are prevalent in many industries (The Economist Intelligence Unit, 2009).

Teams in organizations have only been present in the United States since the mid-1980s (Kozlowski & Bell, 2001). Since that point, the increasing technological base and the growing strategic and economic pressures have driven organizational work to switch focus from individual work to team-based work structures (Lawler, Mohrman, & Ledford, 1995). Team-based work structures have been created in order to provide the foundation for agile organizational structures capable of adapting to any opportunity available (Cohen & Bailey, 1997).

This reformulation of organizational structures and the refocus on the team as the smallest unit of production has occurred with startling speed. In the late 1990s, Cohen and Bailey (1997) reported that other researchers found that 83 % of organizations with 100 or more employees reported using teams to complete tasks and that 68 % of Fortune 1,000 companies reported the use of self-managing work teams. While more recent estimates could not be found at the time of this review, it stands to reason that team-based organizational structures have become the rule rather than the exception in an increasingly complex globalized economy.

GVTs Defined

What exactly are GVTs? There are competing definitions that have emerged, due in large part to the recent nature of their emergence and the rapidity with which research in the area has been conducted. Additionally, there are a number of competing labels for the same phenomena. These labels include: multinational and multicultural distributed teams (Connaughton & Shuffler, 2007), multinational group (Hambrick, Davison, Snell, & Snow, 1998), transnational team (Haas, 2006), and many more. The most common label, GVTs, will be used in this chapter.

In order to provide an adequate definition of a global virtual team and provide evidence of its distinct place within the typology of teams, it is useful to define both virtual teams (VTs) and traditional collocated teams. To begin with, at the foundational level, the term *team* must be defined. For this purpose, Cohen and Bailey's (1997) definition will be used: "a collection of individuals who are interdependent in their tasks, who share responsibility for outcomes, who see themselves and who are seen by others as an intact social entity embedded in one or more larger social systems, and who manage their relationship across organizational boundaries" (p. 241).

The term virtual team has been tied to multiple definitions within the literature. According to Poole and Zhang (2005) in their chapter on virtual teams, the key defining features in these various definitions are: "the members are dispersed and do

not conduct much work face-to-face” and “most interaction between members is mediated by information and communication technologies” (Poole & Zhang, 2005, p. 367). For this review we have chosen Powell, Piccoli, and Ives (2004) definition of virtual teams (VTs) as “groups of geographically, organizationally and/or time dispersed workers brought together by information and telecommunication technologies to accomplish one or more organizational tasks” (Powell et al., 2004, p. 7). This definition has been chosen because it captures the basic definitional requirement for VTs to be separated by geographic, organizational, and/or time boundaries and to be connected via information technologies.

Finally, the definition of GVTs that will be used for the remainder of this review: An interdependent virtual team whose members are geographically and time-dispersed across cultural and national boundaries. Variations of this definition are used extensively across the literature by nearly every author writing within the GVT research domain. Under this definition, GVTs are not just those groups separated by geographic and/or temporal distance. Rather, GVTs are composed of individuals and groups from around the world, many of who might speak different native languages, have different cultural values, and different daily experiences. These individuals are united in a team-based structure facilitated by telecommunication technologies to complete organizational tasks interdependently and achieve desirable task and organizational outcomes.

The various boundaries that GVTs cross (technological, geographical, temporal, and cultural) can create challenges for coordinating and developing GVTs into functional entities. Jarvenpaa and Leidner (1999) identified many of these challenges in virtual teams: role overload, ambiguity, counterproductive work behaviors, and the negative aspects of teamwork (e.g., social loafing) that can be problematic for virtual teams. Cultural differences create additional challenges to successful functioning. Cultural values (e.g., collectivism and individualism; Hofstede, 1980) influence the perceptual filter through which people interpret information they then use to make decisions (Adler, 1997; Hofstede, 1980). Multicultural teams often fail to realize their potential (Adler, 1997) because communication and behaviors vary across cultures (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999) and social norms and goals can differ between cultures as well. All of these can increase the potential for misunderstandings which can create additional barriers to communication and trigger negative conflicts.

However, despite the challenges inherent in the format, GVTs provide a potential strategic advantage by allowing an organization the ability to develop and maintain the lean structure crucial for adapting to the needs of customers by lowering operational overhead and reducing bureaucratic delays (Gibson & Cohen, 2003). Another primary benefit of GVTs is the ability to create project teams that can form, organize, and incorporate talented individuals from around the globe (Alexander, 2000). These individuals can then be integrated utilizing technological interfaces to create functioning teams that are connected across permeable boundaries via technological mediums (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). Beyond merely the geographical and temporal benefits, the very antecedents that can lead a GVT to difficulty (i.e., cultural diversity and distribution) can also provide benefits for the organization that successfully builds a functional GVT composed of a heterogeneous group of individuals from across multiple cultures. The differing perspectives created by multiple

cultural values offer the potential for multicultural teams to perform well, particularly on complex tasks.

The Gartner Group survey (Biggs, 2000) estimated that for the Global 2000 companies, virtual teams, including GVTs, would do 60 % of professional and management tasks within those organizations by 2004. However, as Zakaria, Amelinckx, and Wilemon (2004) warn, “it was also reported that 50 % of virtual teams would fail to meet either strategic or operational objectives due to the inability to manage the distributed workforce implementation risks” (Zakaria et al., 2004, p. 17). Continued research is critical in informing the practice of GVTs in order to avoid failure or breakdown due to complications brought on by both the distributed nature of GVTs and by the issues that often arise when individuals from different cultures are brought together to create a team.

GVT research has been growing in lockstep with the emergence of GVTs within organizations. Just as team research only really began in the 1980s, the dependence of VTs on information technologies meant that research within this domain really only began in the mid-1990s. GVT research began shortly after the growth of the VT research domain, but it has really been in the past decade that research within the GVT domain has accelerated and become increasingly popular. As more organizations build teams that cross national and cultural boundaries and are exposed to the pressures following the inexorable, forward march of globalization, the issues salient to these teams, such as culture, have grown in interest. Researchers have only just begun to realize that learning more about the processes and antecedents that define healthy, functional GVTs is increasingly urgent as their prevalence in the global workplace grows.

Literature Review Parameters

In order to gather articles related to culture, communication, and conflict within GVTs the following search terms were used: distributed, virtual, dispersed, geographical, international, global, transnational, cross-cultural, geographical, multinational, and multicultural. The databases searched included PsycInfo, PsycBooks, PsycArticles, and Google Scholar. Any article unrelated to culture, communication, or conflict within GVTs was discarded. This review will outline what has been found in the published scientific literature on these three topics within GVTs.

A Review of the Literature

Culture, communication, and conflict were chosen as focal topics based on their importance in fostering, or hampering, GVT performance and for their omnipresence within teams. Culture is especially omnipresent in GVTs and a keystone of what makes them challenging and complex to work within and study. Communication

and conflict were chosen as they were viewed to be the variables most powerfully impacted by the cultural and geographical differences within GVTs. Good communication is a critical component of any team. However, when team members cannot see each other regularly and may speak different primary languages, communication might be the most important factor for team success or failure. Critical information may be “lost in translation” or never mentioned due to misunderstandings of cross-cultural communication styles or due to geographical and temporal distance. As with communication, conflict is omnipresent in every team, regardless of their success or cohesion. Conflict can be a positive force, an agent of creative change, or a pathway to team self-destruction. Managing conflict, especially in a team as complex as a GVT, is a key component of effective communication determining a team’s viability and performance. Conflict styles and reactions to conflict may vary due to cultural differences and/or due to geographical and temporal ones. Previous research has found conflict in VTs and GVTs to be especially prevalent and very difficult to manage (Hinds & Mortensen, 2005).

Culture in GVTs

Cultural differences have been defined in many different ways by many different authors. One of the most popular is Hofstede’s (1980) definition: “the collective programming of the human mind that distinguishes the members of one human group from another” (p. 25). Connaughton and Shuffler (2007) reviewed the definitions of culture at length. They argue that culture is a complex and multifaceted construct. They cite, as an example, Chao and Moon’s (2005) conceptualization of culture as a mosaic of interrelated dimensions that make up an individual’s cultural identity. This cultural mosaic model is comprehensive and includes national culture, demographic characteristics, and even the social groups of an individual.

However, much of the ongoing research within the GVT domain at the time of the Connaughton and Shuffler (2007) publication was based around the conception of culture as broad national differences framed by geography. They argue that this neglects “culture’s multiplicities and dynamism” (p. 396). This is primarily due to the utility of Hofstede’s (1980) dimensions of cultural values for framing research, in particular, the individualism–collectivism continuum which researchers have argued is an important aspect of measuring cultural differences that influence GVT effectiveness. Paul, Samarah, Seetharaman, and Mykytyn (2005) suggest that the individualism–collectivism dimension is useful as a tool for measuring an individual’s cultural inclination toward teamwork and cooperation. However, Connaughton and Shuffler cite other researchers who argue that individualism and collectivism “does not account for the fluid and dynamic aspects of culture” (p. 397). Connaughton and Shuffler’s review ends with a plea for future research to explore the multidimensional and fluid nature of culture and the role of subcultures and multiple cultures within a team and to investigate the “multiplicities of culture” (p. 406) beyond national culture. Unfortunately, while it is true that individualism–collectivism limits the amount

of cultural fluidity and dynamism found within GVT research, the fact remains that few studies found in the literature have operationalized a more multifaceted, dynamic approach to examining culture within GVTs.

Culture and effectiveness. Cultural diversity is a primary antecedent, along with geographical distribution, of GVT dysfunction. However, it can also be a potential antecedent for effectiveness. Shachaf (2008) found that cultural diversity was linked to positive team outcomes and team effectiveness. Shachaf suggests this is due to the ability of GVTs to leverage diverse skills and perceptions. Indeed, Gurung and Prater (2006) suggest that cultural factors are important determinants for the success of any GVT project. Culture is so important to consider because it acts as a perceptual filter and cognitive frame through which individuals perceive and interact with the world. Essentially, cultural identity causes differences in beliefs, expectations, basic assumptions, and behavior and these differences influence GVT processes that, in turn, influence GVT effectiveness.

Indeed, most research to date has not argued for a direct causal link between culture and the effectiveness of GVTs. Rather, some argue that culture is the first link in a causal chain and that culture's influence on effectiveness is mediated by other variables. Saunders, Van Slyke, and Vogel (2004) suggest that perceptual cultural filters will have an effect of team tasks and processes and that these processes influence GVT success, especially time perceptions. Other researchers have identified culture's effects on processes influencing GVT effectiveness. In a review of the literature by Powell et al. (2004), they framed the research that had taken place within the virtual team literature into an Input–Process–Output model. In their review they suggested that culture acted as an input which influenced socioemotional and task processes that then informed virtual team outcomes. Additionally, their review concluded that differences in national culture, language, and regional culture all may be enough to negatively impact a virtual team but that the effects can be mitigated through understanding and acceptance of those differences.

Research has also begun to investigate behavioral differences caused by culture that may impact GVT effectiveness. In a study investigating the effects of culture on two types of communication behaviors, criticism and flaming (offensive, wholly negative interpersonal attacks via technologically mediated communication), Reinig and Mejias (2004) found that national culture affected communication behaviors within GVTs. Specifically, individualistic team members were more likely to be critical in their comments than were collectivistic team members. Culture also impacts team decision-making and consensus. In a study on majority/minority influence, Dekker, Rutte, and Van den Berg (2008) found that individualistic majorities showed increased influence on collectivistic minorities during decision-making with the collectivists reaching consensus with the majority earlier than in groups with individualistic minorities.

In research done on the impact of culture on trust, conflicting findings have emerged. Trust is an important emergent state that helps promote positive team outcomes (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). Mockaitis, Rose, and Zettinig (2009) found that teams' mean level of collectivism was positively correlated to trust. They did not

find cultural diversity to be related to perceptions of trust. Others have found conflicting evidence regarding cultural diversity. In two recent studies, team cultural heterogeneity was negatively related to team members' perceptions of interpersonal trustworthiness within the GVT (Lowry, Zhang, Zhou, & Fu, 2010; Zolin, Hinds, Fruchter, & Levitt, 2004).

Lowry et al. (2010) also found that cultures differed in terms of the effect of cultural heterogeneity on interpersonal trust. Specifically, in a study comparing Chinese and US participants, it was found that Chinese (assumed collectivistic) participants were more trusting in homogenous groups than were US (assumed individualistic) participants. However, Chinese participants were also less trusting in culturally heterogeneous groups. The researchers suggest that this may be due to the United States' cultural values toward appreciating diversity. They advocate that considering group composition in regards to culture could help to manage trust and GVT effectiveness.

Despite many researchers asserting cultural diversity's negative impact on GVT effectiveness, there is dissent within the literature that this is always the case. Some researchers argue against the idea that heterogeneity within GVTs negatively impacts GVT effectiveness and some argue that it does not impact it at all. Chudoba, Wynn, Lu, and Watson-Manheim (2005) published a study investigating the effect of "discontinuities" on GVT performance. They defined discontinuities as factors that decrease group cohesion and one of their discontinuity variables was GVT member culture that was hypothesized to lower cohesion within the group. However, the results showed that diversity of spoken languages or cultural background did not affect team performance. Other studies, including Paul, Seetharaman, Samarah, and Mykytyn (2004), have found similar results and Qureshi and Zigurs (2001) argue that culture is less salient within virtual teams because of the increased ease of focusing on tasks and goals. It seems that the relationship between cultural diversity and GVT effectiveness can be positive, negative, or neutral, and this often depends heavily on the situational and contextual variables at play.

Culture has also been found to impact team efficacy and self-efficacy in GVTs. Hardin, Fuller, and Davison (2007) found that there are differences between individualistic and collectivist individuals in both group self-efficacy and VT efficacy. Specifically, individualists reported higher levels of both types of efficacy than did collectivists. However, when the referent was changed to the group rather than the self, collectivists were found to have higher computer and VT efficacy than individualists.

Limited research has been done on the influence of organizational culture on GVT effectiveness. Daim et al. (2012) found that a strong organizational culture helps foster effective communication in GVTs. Pauleen and Yoong (2001) suggest that organizational culture provides a stable set of norms that diverse individuals with different cultural values at a national level can relate to. Further, they assert that a strong organizational culture promotes relationship building and trust which can promote team effectiveness. It could be suggested that a strong, positive organizational culture may be one situational intervention that can be used to foster more positive outcomes in diverse GVTs.

In general, the literature seems to suggest that cross-cultural training (Dubé & Paré, 2001) and cultural sensitivity are critical to leveraging cultural diversity as a

force for team effectiveness rather than team dysfunction. In studies that found no effects for culture on effectiveness, it is possible that these studies had culturally adaptable samples. Chang, Chuang, and Chao (2011) suggest that cultural adaptation helps GVT members to overcome cultural communication barriers and avoid misinterpretations that can lead to conflict and offense. In the next sections, we will discuss in more detail culture's influence on these two primary behavioral antecedents of GVT effectiveness: communication and conflict.

Communication in GVTs

Communication is a pattern of dialog between people in which affective, cognitive, or perceptual meanings are shared and discussed. This pattern can be remarkably stable. In GVTs, these communication patterns are based on a multitude of factors including (but not limited to) choice of communication media, organizational requirements, temporal distance, and cultural preferences. Of note, Huysman and colleagues (2003) found that these patterns emerge early during team development and remain stable throughout the rest of the team's life cycle.

Communication frequency. Within the literature, there is consensus that both the frequency and continuity of communication between members is necessary for GVT effectiveness (Connaughton & Shuffler, 2007). The literature further suggests that frequent, spontaneous communication is pivotal in moderating the relationship between geographical distribution and conflict. Specifically, spontaneous communication mitigates the effect of geographical dispersion of team members in regards to both interpersonal and task conflict (Hinds & Mortensen, 2005). Research has also found communication influences trust within GVTs. Jarvenpaa, Knoll, and Leidner (1998) found frequent, high volume communication was linked to higher trust in GVTs. Additionally, Maznevski and Chudoba (2000) found that frequent interaction was related to the mode of communication as well as the complexity of the message. Specifically, they found that in effective GVTs communication interaction incidents took place within "repeating temporal patterns" (Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000, p. 483) in which the team meets for regular face-to-face (FtF) meetings with high intensity interactions followed by a latency period of weeks during which interactions are fewer and less intense. The more complex the message, the more likely a richer communication medium was chosen (e.g., telephone or videoconferencing rather than email) and the more intense and extended the interaction sequences were likely to be. Finally, communication frequency also seems to have implications on leader-member effectiveness. Gajendran and Joshi (2012) found that frequent communication between leaders and members enhances leader-member exchange (LMX), which in turn enhanced GVT innovation.

However, in contrast to much of the available research, DeSanctis, Wright, and Jiang (2001) argue that frequency of communication matters less than the depth and focus of communication. In their study, higher performing teams preferred fewer,

deeper conversations to more frequent, shallow conversations. This study collected data from GVTs utilizing message boards and operationalized “depth of communication” as being fewer individual discussion topics with more comments compared to a greater number of individual discussion topics with fewer comments. DeSanctis et al. (2001) also found that sharing nontask related information in GVTs (e.g., personal information) helped to build a positive team identity which helps to establish group identities, foster trust, and improve collaboration.

Face-to-face communication. FtF communication is frequently investigated within the GVT literature and is tied to GVT effectiveness (Oertig & Buegri, 2006; Uber Grosse, 2002). This seems especially true during the critical early phases of GVT development (Oertig & Buegri, 2006). This is due to FtF’s ability to provide information-rich nonverbal cues which enhance communication (Kayworth & Leidner, 2001; Pauleen, 2003) and build relationships. These relationships in turn build trust, enhance task performance, team effectiveness, and information and knowledge exchange (Pauleen, 2003). Other studies found that established teams who are familiar with each other are able to utilize technology-mediated communication to enhance team processes and communicate as effectively as in FtF contexts (Alge, Wiethoff, & Klein, 2003; Zack, 1994). This suggests that familiarity of team members with each other may potentially moderate the relationship between FtF communication and team effectiveness. Several studies have found that videoconferencing may help alleviate the lack of physical interaction in GVTs who never or seldom meet face to face (Dubé & Paré, 2001; Pauleen & Yoong, 2001).

Lastly, while the majority of studies have found benefits for using FtF communication periodically in GVTs (especially in the initial, start-up phase) there is also some evidence that FtF communication has some potential disadvantages, and FtF communication has an unclear role within the GVT. For instance, Walther (1996) found that partners who are geographically dispersed and culturally diverse but relied entirely on computer-mediated communication reported higher levels of intimacy and communicated more affection than collocated teams. Others have hypothesized that FtF interactions may hurt team functioning by making differences between team members more noticeable (Bjørn & Ngwenyama, 2009; Stahl, Maznevski, Voght, & Jonsen, 2010). However, a recent study (Klitmøller & Luring, 2013) argues that for sharing complex knowledge or dealing with cultural differences, FtF communication can promote greater understanding. Their results suggest that the content of communication may determine the communication media necessary in GVTs.

Barriers to effective communication. Two major and unique barriers to effective communication in GVTs are the two features that distinguish them from traditional teams: physical distribution and cultural diversity. The reliance on a technological medium for communication can hamper information exchange (Powell et al., 2004) and relationship building (Kirkman, Rosen, Tesluk, & Gibson, 2006; Pauleen & Yoong, 2001), both of which are linked to team effectiveness.

Greater geographic dispersion is related to less effective communication and team coordination (Cramton & Webber, 2005) and cooperation (Metiu, 2006). Additionally, faultlines and subgroups can form based on cultural and geographic similarities that

can lead to reduced collaboration (Levina & Vaast, 2008; Martins, Gilson, & Maynard, 2004; Panteli & Davison, 2005; Polzer, Crisp, Jarvenpaa, & Kim, 2006).

Cultural differences also impact GVT effectiveness by reducing the smoothness of communication and understanding of members within the team (Barczak & McDonough, 2003; McDonough, Kahn, & Barczak, 2001; Tirmizi, 2008). Klitmøller and Lauring (2013) found that cultural and linguistic differences affected the effectiveness of knowledge sharing. Specifically, they found that richer communication media that allowed greater expression (i.e., FtF, videoconferencing, etc.) was important for effectively sharing equivocal knowledge (which includes questions in which there is no definite or clear answer) and in discussions where there were different positions. However, the richness of communication media was not important for canonical knowledge (simple or explicit information).

Effective communication. In addition to communication frequency, face-to-face communication, and barriers to effective communication, it is important to recognize the research done on the techniques and antecedents to effective communication in GVTs. The critical period for developing effective communication appears to be at the initial team start up. Authors argue that ground rules about when and how to communicate should be rapidly established (DeSanctis et al., 2001; Kayworth & Leidner, 2001). High quality leadership (Kayworth & Leidner, 2001) and training in cross-cultural communication skills (Dubé & Paré, 2001; James & Ward, 2001; Kayworth & Leidner, 2001) are overwhelmingly recognized as key ingredients in successful communication. Kayworth and Leidner identified effective leadership communication as communicating clear goals, providing continuous feedback, and providing empathy and understanding while maintaining cultural sensitivity. Dubé and Paré advise that cultural training should be given to GVT members at the beginning of a project, regardless of previous experience, in order to enhance communication.

Gibson and Gibbs (2006) found that providing a psychologically safe communication climate could overcome the negative effects of geographical distribution and national diversity on team innovation. Citing earlier authors, they defined a psychologically safe communication climate as an internal team (or organizational) atmosphere characterized by open, supportive communication, speaking up, and members feel comfortable taking interpersonal risks (Baer & Frese, 2003; Edmondson, 1999, 2003; Edmondson, 2003; Gibb, 1961; Gibson & Gibbs, 2006). A safe communication environment was characterized qualitatively as having “empathy,” “openness,” and “understanding.”

Studies have found that teams introduce compensatory behaviors into their communications to enhance comprehension across multinational teams (Anawati & Craig, 2006). Anawati and Craig found that team members adapted their verbal communications to enhance clarity by speaking slower, reducing the complexity of words and sentences, minimizing accents, etc. This adaptation occurred as team member tenure on the team increased, suggesting that team members are adapting their communication styles for each other.

Researchers have also provided guidelines for establishing effective communication in GVTs. Uber Grosse (2002) suggests that GVTs should balance virtual communi-

cation with FtF communication; encourage open communication channels and participation; communicate frequently; build relationships and trust; show respect for cultures and languages; check for mutual understanding of tasks, deadlines, and roles; as well as build team cohesion and group identity. By using FtF communication early on in the lifecycle of a team, this understanding can improve the effectiveness of future virtual communication. Similarly, Huysman and colleagues (2003) touch on a point that appears often in the literature: that the timing of an intervention design to enhance or remediate team communication is critical. Specifically, encouraging good communication and remediating poor communication is most likely to be successful early in a team's development. Long-term teams often develop behaviors that can become difficult to dislodge.

Conflict in GVTs

Conflict has been studied in teams since the advent of team research and a great deal has been learned about its antecedents, processes, and its influence on team outcomes. However, given the great differences between traditional teams and GVTs, the utility of research done on conflict within traditional structures for GVTs is uncertain. To that end, this review looks solely at literature that addresses conflict at GVTs in order to provide clear examples or guidelines specifically for GVTs.

Antecedents to conflict. Similarly to the barriers to effective communication, the two most frequently found (and unique from traditional teams) antecedents to conflict in GVTs are geographical distribution (Hinds & Mortensen, 2005; Paul et al., 2004) and team member diversity (Kankanhalli, Tan, & Wei, 2007; Staples & Zhao, 2006) including national and local cultures (Krishna, Sahay, & Walsham, 2004). Both distance and cultural diversity can create informational (e.g., miscommunication or missing information; Olson & Olson, 2000) and interpersonal distance and influence the incidence of conflict within GVTs (Paul et al., 2004). However, such findings are not entirely uniform across the literature. In one study, Mortensen and Hinds (2001) found that distribution was not significantly related to the level of either task or interpersonal conflict incidence.

Researchers also argue that cultural diversity is not guaranteed to create conflict but that it simply increases the likelihood of it occurring (Armstrong & Cole, 1995). Distribution and cultural diversity often influence conflict through functions such as the phenomena of fault lines (i.e., subgroups comprised of members that share similar features such as culture, national origin, or geographic location). The formation of such subgroups within GVTs can impede communication, prompt power struggles (e.g., between headquarters and subsidiary offices, between subsidiaries in different countries; Polzer et al., 2006; Stroh & Caligiuri, 1998), and reduce identification with the team (O'Leary & Mortensen, 2010). All of these factors contribute to increasing incidence of conflict in GVTs.

Other antecedents have been named in the literature. In a theoretical article, Hinds and Bailey (2003) argue that there are two primary antecedents to conflict

with VTs and GVTs: distance and technological mediation. Distance is a composite construct containing both physical distance and cultural heterogeneity. They suggest that distance is an antecedent of conflict because it reduces shared context, familiarity among members, friendship and relational links, and team homogeneity. Technological mediation, they argue, influences the incidence of conflict by reducing team members' feelings of social presence, reducing social cues, and altering the nature of group communication and processes.

Hinds and Mortensen (2005) conclude that as GVTs mature, conflict becomes less prevalent because team members become more familiar with each other and build shared identity and processes. Research also suggests that cultural values can influence the incidence of conflict. Paul et al. (2005) found that cultural values influence the conflict management style of GVTs with collectivistic teams utilizing collaborative conflict management more than individualistic teams. Given the role that collaborative conflict management seems to have on reducing conflict within teams, this is suggestive evidence that not only do conflicts generally emerge in response to heterogeneity and low understanding but that conflict emerges due to specific patterns or compositions of cultural values within a GVT.

Conflict resolution. In their review of the literature, Connaughton and Shuffler (2007) determined that conflict must be well-managed in GVTs. Studies have found that the way team members manage conflict is crucial to GVT success (defined as team performance; Montoya-Weiss, Massey, & Song, 2001; Paul et al., 2004). In their review, they cite Montoya-Weiss et al. (2001) who found that coordinating the "pattern, timing and content of communication in a group" (p. 1252) moderated the relationship between conflict management behavior and performance in virtual teams.

A collaborative conflict management style is positively related in GVTs to satisfaction and perceived outcomes (Paul et al., 2004). The collaborative style is a style of conflict management that involves a high concern for others and a high concern for self with an emphasis on integrating the views of all team members. Similarly, Montoya-Weiss et al. (2001) found evidence that collaborative style was more effective than avoidance, accommodation, or compromising conflict management styles. In their study, they found that more successful GVTs more often used collaborative or competitive styles of conflict management. That competitive style was also found in successful GVTs is unexpected because in traditional teams it is often negatively associated with team effectiveness. The researchers suggest that due to the relative lack of richness in communication modes compared to traditional teams, it is possible that team members just did not perceive expressed competitive behaviors because they were not communicated as blatantly as they would be FtF. The authors also suggest that traditional models of conflict management style and effectiveness may not fit perfectly in GVTs because of the lower richness of virtual modes of communication.

Hinds and Mortensen (2005) found that more spontaneous communication within a team increased shared group identity, shared context, and directly moderated the positive relationship between geographical distribution and conflict. Hinds and Mortensen found that shared identity moderated the effect of geographical distribution on interpersonal conflict and shared context moderated its effect on task conflict.

Spontaneous communication directly moderated the relationship between distribution and both task and interpersonal conflict. The authors suggest that this is due to such spontaneous communication facilitating the identification and resolution of conflicts before the conflicts escalate. However, it seems reasonable to assume that spontaneous communication may also mitigate conflict by providing GVT members with relationship- and trust-building opportunities.

Researchers have provided guidelines for minimizing conflict in GVTs. Dubé and Paré (2001) suggest that promoting a common understanding within the team is important. They argue that to reduce conflict, GVT members must be trained on and forewarned about the rules within the GVT: What functions will be taken on by whom, how they will communicate, how work will be processed, when people will work, and expected behaviors and performance levels. They also suggest that cross-cultural training will heighten cultural understanding which will lower the incidence of negative conflict.

Benefits of conflict. While it is easy to categorize conflict as a wholly negative influence on GVT effectiveness, conflict can be functional as well as dysfunctional when properly managed. It is generally believed that conflict enhances GVT team effectiveness through the introduction of diverse perspectives during decision-making and idea generation (Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1992). Perhaps the best way to ensure beneficial conflict is to establish a highly collaborative conflict management style (Paul et al., 2004). In their study, Paul and colleagues found that culturally heterogeneous teams enhanced perceived decision quality if team members collaborated. Most tellingly, heterogeneous teams with a highly collaborative style achieved higher levels of agreement than other groups. This may be due to an enhancement of communication efficiency that minimizes dysfunctional conflict and maximizes functional conflict.

Discussion and Future Research

It is clear that GVT research has come far in a very short amount of time. However, there are still limitations that future researchers should focus on overcoming in order to increase the depth of knowledge and predictive ability we have in regards to communication, conflict, culture, and GVT effectiveness. In this section we will explore the limitations and future research opportunities of each topic separately. However, there are also limitations and future research directions that seem applicable to all three of the topics.

For instance, much of the research on GVTs has used student populations and temporary teams in their research. In order to truly understand the effects of culture, communication, and conflict on GVT effectiveness, it is imperative to focus on collecting additional data from professional, long-term GVTs. Little research has been done within to suggest that problems related to culture, conflict, and communication are long-term issues that will not become less salient as the team becomes more comfortable communicating via technological mediation, with their tasks, and with cultural differences within the GVT.

It also appears that the majority of field data related to GVTs is coming from a narrow band of industries: technology, engineering, and software development organizations. While it seems understandable that these organizations would be the vanguard of GVT adoption, as more organizations from a wider variety of industries adopt GVTs, it is also important to collect data from GVTs from across these various industries to learn more about how the communication, conflict, and culture influence effectiveness within GVTs with a variety of organizational backgrounds, tasks, goals, etc. Without extending research to diverse industries, it is impossible to be reasonably certain that findings will be comparable.

Finally, more research needs to be done to determine the contexts in which these determinants of GVT effectiveness actually matter. Very little attention has been paid to the context in which studied GVTs operate. Knowing what GVT compositions and what specific contexts and tasks most regularly lead to problems will be useful for practitioners trying to identify these problems in GVTs before the team is derailed.

Culture

There are two major limitations within the current cultural research within the GVT literature. The first limitation is that even the most recent cultural research within GVTs is beset by the same problem identified by Connaughton and Shuffler: the dominance of Hofstede's dimensions of national culture in measuring cultural influence on GVTs. Fortunately, it appears that they are not alone in recognizing the need for a new cultural framework to complement Hofstede's dimensions as tools for measuring culture. David, Chand, Newell, and Resende-Santos (2008) cite evidence that other researchers are concerned with the dominance of Hofstede's approach. The concerns note that Hofstede's dimensions deny fluidity in the formation of culture and "lead to treating culture as a causal agent" (Westrup, Al Jaghoub, El Sayed, & Liu, 2003, pp. 19–20).

Additional concerns are Hofstede's use of strict national boundaries as cultural boundaries and the presumed homogeneity of national culture that ignores subculture (Ford, Connelly, & Meister, 2003). Most importantly, and identified even back in the 1990s (Avison & Myers, 1995), is that Hofstede's research was performed in the 1970s, making it now 40 years out of date. Given the dynamism with which globalization has roared forth and the increasing cultural exchange and awareness, it is questionable whether Hofstede's dimensions still apply in the same way they did when the research was conducted.

Despite these concerns, national culture is still the dominant cultural measure within the GVT literature. This seems to be a critical issue afflicting the quality and generalizability of GVT culture research, and we strongly advocate for the operationalization and measurement of subcultures within the GVT literature. As stated by David et al. (2008), there is a need to place the emphasis of our cultural research on how culture manifests within its contextual environment. In fact, the overuse of Hofstede's dimensions and the lack of research focusing on the complex contextual

environment beyond gross estimates of national culture and geographical distribution are two of the biggest limitations afflicting the GVT literature.

Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, much of the research on GVTs has used student populations and temporary teams in their research. Little research has been done to suggest that problems related to culture, conflict, and communication are long-term issues that will not become less salient as the team becomes more comfortable communicating via technological mediation, with their tasks, and with cultural differences within the GVT. The factors that impact conflict, communication, and team outcomes in a student sample might be different in a professional context. In fact, as we have discussed, there is evidence that these issues are most salient to new GVTs whose membership has little prior experience working in GVTs or with each other. More work should be done investigating whether this pattern of importance holds within long-term teams. Perhaps more importantly, research must place a stronger emphasis on collecting data from professional populations, whose membership lives within a different context than that of student populations.

Future research within GVTs should acknowledge the complexities that emerge from distribution and culture and, as Connaughton and Shuffler (2007) and other researchers have argued, recognize the multiplicity of cultures and begin to focus on the context in which culture matters to GVT functioning. Determining when and where culture matters will help bridge the gap between research and practice.

Communication

While the literature on communication has grown in depth and breadth within the last several years, the general criticisms of the literature still apply. Questions specific to the communication literature of GVTs that would benefit from further research in regards to communication are: (1) the exact effect size training has on improving communication skills and (2) the pattern of communication within long term GVTs and how that pattern changes based on tenure and team effectiveness.

No empirical research seems to have been performed testing the effect size of training has in improving communication and collaboration skills within the GVT literature. Further, no long-term, longitudinal studies were found regarding communication behavior in GVTs. As most of the research that has been done has been performed on student populations who participate in short-term GVTs, the behavioral patterns seen within short-term GVTs still need to be confirmed within longer running GVTs.

Conflict

This review posits that conflict is both an emergent state and a process within GVTs. Based on the literature it seems that when dysfunctional or negative conflict occurs, it is most likely an unintended emergent state based upon misunderstandings and clashing values. However, conflict also brings with it benefits (e.g., a more thorough

decision-making process that avoids groupthink) and this review argues that in this case, when operationalized correctly, conflict is a process that promotes GVT effectiveness. As mentioned earlier, more research must examine the antecedents of positive (functional) conflict that enhances GVT effectiveness and outcomes. Similarly, the incidence of conflict within long-term, non-student (i.e., professional) GVTs should be measured as well as the contexts in which conflict is most detrimental and most positive for GVT effectiveness.

Conclusion

It is clear from the literature that communication and conflict are powerful influences on GVT processes and outcomes (e.g. viability, performance, etc.) and that communication, conflict, and culture are inextricably linked. The additional boundaries (i.e., cultural, temporal, and geographical) that GVTs must cross and manage add to the complexity of communication, conflict management, and task-related activities. GVTs have many complications and pitfalls to manage and overcome to be successful, yet they are becoming the norm, rather than an exception. Research has come far in a short time and we know much about these factors in isolation. Naturalistic field studies, sophisticated experimental designs, and multiple methods are needed to continue building on our knowledge.

References

- Adler, N. J. (1997). *International dimensions of organizational behavior*. Cincinnati, OH: South-Western College.
- Alexander, S. (2000). Virtual teams going global. *Infoworld*, (November), pp. 55–56.
- Alge, B. J., Wiethoff, C., & Klein, H. J. (2003). When does the medium matter? Knowledge-building experiences and opportunities in decision-making teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 91, 26–37.
- Anawati, D., & Craig, A. (2006). Behavioral adaptation within cross-cultural virtual teams. *Information & Communications Technology Law*, 15(2), 157.
- Armstrong, D., & Cole, P. (1995). Managing distances and differences in geographically distributed work groups. In S. E. Jackson & M. E. Ruderman (Eds.), *Diversity in work teams: Research paradigms for a changing workplace* (pp. 187–215). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Avison, D. E., & Myers, M. D. (1995). Information systems and anthropology: An anthropological perspective on IT and organizational culture. *Information Technology and People*, 8(3), 43–56.
- Baer, M., & Frese, M. (2003). Innovation is not enough: Climates for initiative and psychological safety, process innovations, and firm performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24, 45–68.
- Barczak, G., & McDonough, E. F., III. (2003). Leading global product development teams. *Research Technology Management*, 46(6), 14–18.
- Biggs, M. (2000). Assessing risks today will leave corporate leaders well-prepared for the future of work. *InfoWorld*, 22(39), 100.

- Bjørn, P., & Ngwenyama, O. (2009). Virtual team collaboration: Building shared meaning, resolving breakdowns and creating translucence. *Information Systems Journal*, 19(3), 227–253.
- Chang, H. H., Chuang, S.-S., & Chao, S. H. (2011). Determinants of cultural adaptation, communication quality, and trust in virtual teams' performance. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 22(3), 305–329. doi:10.1080/14783363.2010.532319.
- Chao, G. T., & Moon, H. (2005). The cultural mosaic: a metatheory for understanding the complexity of culture. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(6), 1128.
- Chudoba, K. M., Wynn, E., Lu, M., & Watson-Manheim, M. B. (2005). How virtual are we? Measuring virtuality and understanding its impact in a global organization. *Information Systems Journal*, 15(4), 279–306.
- Cohen, S. G., & Bailey, D. E. (1997). What makes teams work: Group effectiveness research from the shop floor to the executive suite. *Journal of Management*, 23(3), 239–290.
- Connaughton, S. L., & Shuffler, M. (2007). Multinational and Multicultural Distributed Teams: A Review and Future Agenda. *Small Group Research*, 38(3), 387–412. doi:10.1177/1046496407301970.
- Cramton, C. D., & Webber, S. S. (2005). Relationships among geographic dispersion, team processes, and effectiveness in software development work teams. *Journal of Business Research*, 58(6), 758–765.
- Daim, T. U., Ha, A., Reutiman, S., Hughes, B., Pathak, U., Bynum, W., et al. (2012). Exploring the communication breakdown in global virtual teams. *International Journal of Project Management*, 30(2), 199–212. doi:10.1016/j.ijproman.2011.06.004.
- David, G. C., Chand, D., Newell, S., & Resende-Santos, J. (2008). Integrated collaboration across distributed sites: the perils of process and the promise of practice. *Journal of Information Technology*, 23(1), 44–54. doi:10.1057/palgrave.jit.2000126.
- Dekker, D. M., Rutte, C. G., & Van den Berg, P. T. (2008). Cultural differences in the perception of critical interaction behaviors in global virtual teams. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 32(5), 441–452.
- DeSanctis, G., Wright, M., & Jiang, L. (2001). Building a global learning community. *Communications of the ACM*, 44(12), 80–82.
- Dubé, L., & Paré, G. (2001). Global virtual teams. Association for computing machinery. *Communications of the ACM*, 44(12), 71–74.
- Economist Intelligence Unit. (2009). *Managing virtual teams: Taking a more strategic approach*. London, England: The Economist.
- Edmondson, A. C. (1999). Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44, 350–383.
- Edmondson, A. C. (2003). Speaking up in the operating room: How team leaders promote learning in interdisciplinary action teams. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40, 1419–1452.
- Ford, D. P., Connelly, C. E., & Meister, D. B. (2003). Information systems research and Hostede's culture's consequences: An uneasy and incomplete partnership. *IEEE Transaction on Engineering Management*, 50(1), 8–25.
- Gajendran, R. S., & Joshi, A. (2012). Innovation in globally distributed teams: The role of LMX, communication frequency, and member influence on team decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(6), 1252–1261.
- Gibb, J. (1961). Defensive communication. *Journal of Communication*, 11, 141–148.
- Gibson, C. B., & Cohen, S. G. (2003). *Virtual teams that work: Creating conditions for virtual team effectiveness*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Gibson, C. B., & Gibbs, J. L. (2006). Unpacking the concept of virtuality: On team innovation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 51, 451–495.
- Gurung, A., & Prater, E. (2006). A research framework for the impact of cultural differences on IT outsourcing. *Journal of Global Information Technology Management*, 9(1), 24–43.
- Haas, M. R. (2006). Acquiring and applying knowledge in transnational teams: The roles of cosmopolitans and locals. *Organization Science*, 17(3), 367–384.

- Hambrick, D. C., Davison, S. C., Snell, S. A., & Snow, C. C. (1998). When groups consist of multiple nationalities: Towards a new understanding of the implications. *Organization Studies*, *19*(2), 181–205.
- Hardin, A. M., Fuller, M. A., & Davison, R. M. (2007). I know I can, but can we?: Culture and efficacy beliefs in global virtual teams. *Small Group Research*, *38*, 130–155.
- Hinds, P. J., & Bailey, D. E. (2003). Out of sight, out of sync: Understanding conflict in distributed teams. *Organization Science*, *14*(6), 615–632. doi:10.1287/orsc.14.6.615.24872.
- Hinds, P. J., & Mortensen, M. (2005). Understanding conflict in geographically distributed teams: The moderating effects of shared identity, shared context, and spontaneous communication. *Organization Science*, *16*(3), 290–307. doi:10.1287/orsc.1050.0122.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Cultural consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Huysman, M., Steinfeld, C., Jang, C.-Y., David, K., Huis in't veld, M., Poot, J., et al. (2003). Virtual teams and the appropriation of communication technology: Exploring the concept of media stickiness. *Computer Supported Cooperative Work*, *12*, 411–436.
- James, M., & Ward, K. (2001). Leading a multinational team of change agents at Glaxo Wellcome (now GlaxoSmithKline). *Journal of Change Management*, *2*(2), 148–159.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., Knoll, K., & Leidner, D. R. (1998). Is anybody out there? Antecedents of trust in global virtual teams. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *14*, 29–64.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., & Leidner, D. R. (1999). Communication and trust in global virtual teams. *Organization Science*, *10*(6), 791–815. doi:10.1287/orsc.10.6.791.
- Kankanhalli, A., Tan, B. C. Y., & Wei, K.-K. (2007). Conflict and performance in global virtual teams. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *23*(3), 237–274.
- Kayworth, T. R., & Leidner, D. E. (2001). Leadership effectiveness in global virtual teams. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *18*(3), 7–40.
- Kirchmeyer, C., & Cohen, A. (1992). Multicultural groups: Their performance and reactions with constructive conflict. *Group and Organization Management*, *17*(2), 153–170.
- Kirkman, B. L., Rosen, B., Tesluk, P. E., & Gibson, C. B. (2006). Enhancing the transfer of computer-assisted training proficiency in geographically distributed teams. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(3), 706–716. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.91.3.706.
- Klitmøller, A., & Luring, J. (2013). When global virtual teams share knowledge: Media richness, cultural difference and language commonality. *Journal of World Business*, *48*(3), 398–406.
- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Bell, B. F. (2001). Work groups and teams in organizations. Retrieved November 14, 2012, from Cornell University, ILR School site: <http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/articles/389/>
- Krishna, S., Sahay, S., & Walsham, G. (2004). Managing cross-cultural issues in global software outsourcing. *Communications of the ACM*, *47*(4), 62–66.
- Lawler, E. E., Mohrman, S. A., & Ledford, G. E. (1995). *Creating high performance organizations: Practices and results of employee involvement and total quality management in Fortune 1000 companies*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Levina, N., & Vaast, E. (2008). Innovating or doing as told? Status differences and overlapping boundaries in offshore collaboration. *MIS Quarterly*, *32*(2), 307–332.
- Lowry, P. B., Zhang, D., Zhou, L., & Fu, X. (2010). Effects of culture, presence, social pressure, and group composition on trust in technology-supported decision-making groups. *Information Systems Journal*, *20*(3), 297–315. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2575.2009.00334.x.
- Martins, L. L., Gilson, L. L., & Maynard, M. T. (2004). Virtual teams: What do we know and where do we go from here? *Journal of Management*, *30*(6), 805–835. doi:10.1016/j.jm.2004.05.002.
- Maznevski, M. L., & Chudoba, K. M. (2000). Bridging space over time: Global virtual team dynamics. *Organization Science*, *11*, 473–492.
- McDonough, E. F., III, Kahn, K. B., & Barczak, G. (2001). An investigation of the use of global, virtual, and colocated new product development teams. *The Journal of Product Innovation Management*, *18*(2), 110–120.

- Metiu, A. (2006). Owning the code: Status closure in distributed groups. *Organization Science*, *17*, 418–435.
- Mockaitis, A. I., Rose, E. L., & Zetting, P. (2009). The determinants of trust in multicultural global virtual teams. *Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings*, pp. 1–6.
- Montoya-Weiss, M. M., Massey, A. P., & Song, M. (2001). Getting it together: Temporal coordination and conflict management in global virtual teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, *44*, 1251–1262.
- Mortensen, M., & Hinds, P. (2001). Conflict and shared identity in geographically distributed teams. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *12*, 212–238.
- Nohria, N., & Eccles, R. G. (1992). Face-to-face: Making network organizations work. In N. Nohria & R. G. Eccles (Eds.), *Network and organizations* (pp. 288–308). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- O’Leary, M. B., & Mortensen, M. (2010). Go (con) figure: Subgroups, imbalance, and isolates in geographically dispersed teams. *Organization Science*, *21*(1), 115–131.
- Oertig, M., & Buegri, T. (2006). The challenges of managing cross-cultural virtual project teams. *Team Performance Management*, *12*(1–2), 23–30.
- Olson, G. M., & Olson, J. S. (2000). Distance matters. *Human-Computer Interaction*, *15*(1), 139–179.
- Panteli, N., & Davison, R. M. (2005). The role of subgroups in the communication patterns of global virtual teams. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, *48*(2), 191–200. doi:10.1109/TPC.2005.849651.
- Paul, S., Samarah, I., Seetharaman, P., & Mykytyn, P. P. (2005). An empirical investigation of collaborative conflict management style in group support system-based global virtual teams. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *21*(3), 185–222.
- Paul, S., Seetharaman, P., Samarah, I., & Mykytyn, P. P. (2004). Impact of heterogeneity and collaborative conflict management style on the performance of synchronous global virtual teams. *Information & Management*, *41*(3), 303–321.
- Pauleen, D. J. (2003). Lessons learned crossing boundaries in an ICT-supported distributed team. *Journal of Global Information Management*, *11*(4), 1–19.
- Pauleen, D. J., & Yoong, P. (2001). Relationship building and the use of ICT in boundary-crossing virtual teams: A facilitator’s perspective. *Journal of Information Technology*, *16*, 205–220.
- Polzer, J. T., Crisp, C. B., Jarvenpaa, S. L., & Kim, J. W. (2006). Extending the faultline model to geographically dispersed teams: How colocated subgroups can impair group functioning. *Academy of Management Journal*, *49*(4), 679–692.
- Poole, M. S., & Zhang, H. (2005). Virtual teams. In S. A. Wheelan (Ed.), *The handbook of group research and practice* (pp. 363–386). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Powell, A., Piccoli, G., & Ives, B. (2004). Virtual teams: A review of current literature and directions for future research. *ACM SIGMIS Database*, *35*(1), 6–36.
- Qureshi, S., & Zигurs, I. (2001). Paradoxes and prerogatives. *Communications of the ACM*, *44*(12), 85–88.
- Reinig, B. A., & Mejias, R. J. (2004). The effects of national culture and anonymity on flaming and criticalness in GSS-supported discussions. *Small Group Research*, *35*(6), 698–723.
- Saunders, C., Van Slyke, C., & Vogel, D. R. (2004). My time or yours? Managing time visions in global virtual teams. *Academy of Management Executive*, *18*, 19–31.
- Shachaf, P. (2008). Cultural diversity and information and communication technology impacts on global virtual teams: An exploratory study. *Information & Management*, *45*(2), 131–142.
- Stahl, G., Maznevski, M. L., Voght, A., & Jonsen, K. (2010). Unraveling the effects of cultural diversity in teams: A meta-analysis of research in multicultural work groups. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *41*, 690–709.
- Staples, D. S., & Zhao, L. (2006). The effects of cultural diversity in virtual teams versus face-to-face teams. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, *15*, 389–406.
- Stroh, L., & Caligiuri, P. (1998). Seeing global competitiveness through effective people management. *Journal of World Business*, *33*, 1–16.

- Tirmizi, S. A. (2008). The impact of culture in multicultural teams. In C. B. Halverson & S. A. Tirmizi (Eds.), *Effective multicultural teams: Theory and practice* (pp. 21–42). New York: Springer.
- Uber Grosse, C. (2002). Managing communication within virtual intercultural teams. *Business Communication Quarterly*, 65(4), 22–38.
- Walther, J. B. (1996). Group and interpersonal effects in international computer-mediated collaboration. *Human Communication Research*, 23(1), 342–369.
- Westrup, C., Al Jaghoub, S., El Sayed, H., & Liu, W. (2003). Taking culture seriously: ICTs cultures and development. In S. Krishna & S. Madon (Eds.), *The digital challenge: Information technology in the development context* (pp. 13–27). Burlington, VT: Ashgate.
- Zack, M. H. (1994). Electronic messaging and communication effectiveness in an ongoing work group. *Information and Management*, 26, 231–241.
- Zakaria, N., Amelinckx, A., & Wilemon, D. (2004). Working together apart? Building a knowledge-sharing culture for global virtual teams. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 13, 15–29.
- Zolin, R., Hinds, P. J., Fruchter, R., & Levitt, R. E. (2004). Interpersonal trust in cross-functional, geographically distributed work: A longitudinal study. *Information & Organization*, 14(1), 1–26.

Chapter 3

Project GLOBE for Scientists and Practitioners: Drawing Clarity from Controversy

William K. Gabrenya Jr. and Peter B. Smith

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness project (Project GLOBE) was initiated in the early 1990s by a group of industrial–organizational psychologists and business school faculty, including Robert House and Paul Hanges, with the eventual participation of up to 170 coinvestigators working in 62 societies. In one of the most ambitious multinational projects to date, the research team set out to transform our understanding of cultural values and behavior and to investigate global leadership on a scale not heretofore seen in organizational research. GLOBE has had considerable impact on the fast-growing field of international work and organizational psychology (iWOP).

Indeed, from the point of view of researchers inside and outside of iWOP, there are effectively two GLOBE research projects, a *leadership project* and a *dimensional project*. The leadership project, conducted primarily by people inside or associated with Project GLOBE, is a sweeping culture-comparative study designed to answer important theoretical questions about leadership differences across cultures and to provide practical advice to managers in a globalized world business context. The leadership project depends on the dimensional project, the goal of which was to create a new, psychometrically sophisticated set of societal dimension measures that could also be utilized at the organizational level of analysis. These dimensions, characterized as independent variables by GLOBE, form the theoretical starting point for their culture-comparative work on leadership, just as Hofstede's (1980) dimensional model has provided a basis for an untold number of comparative studies throughout the social sciences (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010). The leadership project

W.K. Gabrenya Jr., Ph.D. (✉)

School of Psychology and Institute for Cross Cultural Management, Florida Institute of Technology, 150 W. University Blvd, Melbourne, FL 32901, USA

e-mail: gabrenya@fit.edu

P.B. Smith, Ph.D.

School of Psychology, University of Sussex, Falmer, Brighton BN19QG, UK

e-mail: psmith@sussex.ac.uk

has the potential to advance our understanding of cultural aspects of leadership at a time when it is one of the most active areas of organizational psychology and therefore is of particular interest to iWOP researchers. The dimensional project, as described in the next section, might have provided new material for a wide range of research specialties both in and outside of organizational psychology. It could be said that the leadership project creates science; the dimensional project creates scientific tools.

Joining Big Values

In conducting the dimensional project, GLOBE researchers set out to improve on previous values-based models of culture and to tailor their empirical work to the needs of organizational behavior researchers. In later sections we describe how they undertook this research and introduce some of the critiques of their work. In the dimensional project, GLOBE has joined the Hofstede (2001), Schwartz (2004), and World Values Survey (Inglehart, 1997) research programs in the panoply of “Big Values” projects by providing another toolset upon which to base comparative research. Along with the five factor personality model datasets (McCrae, Terracciano, & 79 Members of the Personality Profiles of Cultures Project, 2005) and the social axioms project (Bond, Leung, & 51 co-authors, 2004), we now have five well-developed cross-national datasets through which to conduct comparative research in this popular dimensional research design. Publicly available summary scores (mainly aggregates by nations) for these five datasets are a wonderful gift to the social science research community that we enthusiastically use and occasionally abuse. Thus, the importance of the entry of another major research program in the Big Values domain cannot be underestimated, as it will have an undoubted long-term influence on research and practice. While GLOBE dimensional data do have the capacity to facilitate and enhance future iWOP research, the quality of this research will necessarily be limited by the quality of these data. In addition to publishing scholarly works describing and defending their project, the GLOBE researchers have begun to reach out to practitioners such as business consultants and managers in an attempt to popularize the utilization of their findings in international management (Dorfman, Hanges, Javidan, & Sully de Luque, 2013). Therefore, it is crucial that both researchers and practitioners understand the GLOBE project and are cognizant of its contributions and limitations.

Our goals in this chapter are to critique the GLOBE research project as a service to the research community and to identify the most solid, actionable findings as a useful tool for practitioners. In the first section of the chapter, we summarize the GLOBE theory and methodology in the context of related research traditions in cross-cultural psychology by identifying the choices that the GLOBE researchers made at several stages in their work and “interpreting,” if you will, these choices from the point of view of cross-cultural psychology. In the second section, we examine the validation efforts of the GLOBE researchers and attempt to identify the components of their project that are sufficiently valid and reliable to be utilized by practitioners.

We take a moderately conservative approach in doing this, erring more on the side of caution, guided by the principle that practitioners should not be led astray by invalid claims. In the third section, we present a comprehensive review of the debates that have been triggered by Project GLOBE. Most of the controversy over GLOBE, conducted mainly in culturally oriented management journals such as the *Journal of International Business Studies*, has concerned the dimensional project. In the final section, we use the critiques developed in the previous sections to winnow the GLOBE leadership project findings down to the set that we believe should be communicated to practitioners to aid practice. It is not possible to present a complete overview of all of GLOBE's theory and methods in a chapter of this kind; the reader must find such detail in the original books and articles that the GLOBE team have published over the past decade.

About GLOBE: Theory and Method

Building on the Shoulders of Giants

Historically, commencement of Project GLOBE followed the introduction of the Hofstede values project by a little over a decade and that of the Schwartz values project by just a few years. It built on the work of these two well-known projects by incorporating what was then state-of-the-art values measurement with a focus on leadership and management questions and the acquisition of responses from samples of managers from a large number of nations. GLOBE promised an impressively long list of at least thirteen improvements over the earlier work, viewed from the perspective of organizational psychology:

1. A larger and arguably better set of nine dimensions informed theoretically by the earlier work.
2. Theoretical development and assessment of an interesting leadership construct, implicit leadership, that is directly relevant to iWOP research and a focused goal to test it cross-culturally.
3. Integration of theoretical and empirical work with the goal of providing practical information to managers involved in international business.
4. Use of a sample appropriate to the questions at hand, namely, managers.
5. In addition to measuring values, innovative assessment of "practices" in order to move beyond the field's overemphasis on values.
6. A sample of 62 cultural units, broader than Hofstede's sample.
7. Availability of "modern" data, as opposed to Hofstede's 1960s IBM data.
8. A theory-driven approach to scale development supported by strong psychometric validation.
9. A large and well-developed qualitative/country-study component that extends well beyond the exclusively quantitative work that preceded it.
10. A multi-level research design that included organizations at the meso level of analysis.

11. The inclusion of some meso-level variables such as type of industry.
12. A sampling strategy designed to minimize bias due to common method variance.
13. An early utilization of hierarchical linear modeling to work with the data.

We describe and critique most of these characteristics of the project in this chapter. GLOBE's "big book," analogous in many ways to Hofstede (1980), is Hanges, Javidan and Dorfman's *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies* (2004). A companion volume, *Culture and Leadership Across the World: The GLOBE Book of In-depth Studies of 25 Societies* (Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2007) presents qualitative country studies. A new book will be published by the time this chapter goes to press, *Strategic Leadership Across Cultures: GLOBE Study of CEO Leadership Behavior and Effectiveness in 24 Countries* (House, Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, & Sully de Luque, 2013). Several summary articles have been published by GLOBE authors as introductions to readers new to the project (Dickson, Castaño, Magomaeva, & Den Hartog, 2012; Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012; Javidan & Dastmalchian, 2009; Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, & House, 2006). Regionally focused summaries of GLOBE findings have also been published, for example, Kabasakal, Dastmalchian, Karacay, and Bayraktar's (2012) summary of findings for the Middle East and North Africa and Wanasika, Howell, Littrell, and Dorfman's (2011) summary for sub-Saharan Africa. House et al. (2004) include the most thorough description of methods and results available at this writing along with detailed chapters devoted to each of the culture dimensions that they introduced, structured similarly to Hofstede (1980, 2001). Readers are encouraged to consult these books for greater detail than is feasible in this chapter.

Where Is the Culture?

To cross-cultural psychologists, definitions and assumptions about the construct "culture" are always important and are used to some extent to categorize and interpret theoretical and research products. The GLOBE researchers began by taking on the thorny question of how culture should be conceptualized and ended up with an answer that reflects several different approaches. They first defined culture as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events...", which is consistent with an ideational approach to culture (Harris, 1979), but added to this an acknowledgement of the effects of local circumstances, "...that [cultures] result from common experiences of members of collectivities that are transmitted across generations" (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004, p. 15). Apparently influenced by Schein's theory of organizational culture (1992), they operationalized culture as including both behavior and values. Behavior is represented by practices, or "as is [actually performed]" in a society, which they take as an example of Schein's "artifacts." Values are what people think "should be"

in their society and are tapped by focusing on whether or not specific practices are desirable. This conceptualization contrasts with the traditional view in which values are broad means and goals such as “security” (e.g., Schwartz, 1992). Linking practices and values in this manner allowed for a novel measurement procedure that is presented in the following section.

GLOBE’s conception of culture is similar to approaches in cross-cultural psychology that take a consensus approach (Van de Vijver & Fischer, 2009), in which a society is deemed to have a cultural element (value, belief, trait, norm, practice, etc.) if there is an empirically demonstrated consensus on its presence and within-society agreement is high. GLOBE uses the term “modal” in this regard, emphasizing that their measures tap frequency of occurrence of scores derived from individuals. Other options for conceptualizing and operationalizing culture for a study of leadership in a business context were available, such as those highlighting institutions, economic systems, political systems, geography, or ecology. In taking an individual-centered, consensus approach, Project GLOBE is situated within the mainstream of cross-cultural psychology and thus can be evaluated alongside other Big Values research programs.

Dimensionality

Early theorizing in the GLOBE research team led to crucial decisions concerning the identification of societal and organizational cultural dimensions. As noted by Hanges and Dickson (2004), cultural dimensions can be generated either empirically or theoretically. In the empirical approach, information such as self-report data collected from individuals or characteristics of societies obtained through numerous methods (observation, subject matter experts, institutional archives, etc.) are used to generate dimensions inductively through statistical analysis. In the values research domain, Hofstede’s work is often taken as an example of this approach. A theoretical approach begins with rich information about societies and cultures, usually obtained through direct or indirect observation and other empirical methods, including others’ inductively generated dimensions, out of which the theorist develops a set of dimensions that may be applicable to most societies. An excellent, if forgotten, example of a theoretical approach is Talcott Parsons’ model of “pattern variables” (Parsons & Shils, 1951). Some of his pattern variables anticipated the dimensions identified in later empirical work, such as collectivism, universalism, and achievement. In practice, most researchers use both methods at one or another stage in the development of theory and measurement. For example, Hofstede (1980) found three dimensions in his IBM dataset, but divided the first dimension on theoretical grounds into “individualism” and “power distance.” Bond (2002) points out how that decision may have changed the course of cross-cultural psychology by generating an individualism–collectivism dimension and placing the United States at the top of it. Project GLOBE chose a theoretical approach in which Hofstede’s (1980, 2001) original four dimensions, the future orientation and human nature dimensions

of the anthropologists Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), and McClelland's need for achievement concept were used to identify seven dimensions (House & Javidan, 2004):

- *Uncertainty Avoidance*: reliance on rules and norms to alleviate unpredictability
- *Power Distance*: expectation for power to be distributed unequally
- *Individualism and Collectivism*: organizations and society encourage collective action (institutional collectivism); individuals are loyal to organizations and families (in-group collectivism)
- *Gender Egalitarianism*: collectively minimized gender inequality
- *Future Orientation*: individuals delay gratification, plan, invest in future
- *Performance Orientation*: performance improvement and excellence is encouraged and rewarded
- *Humane Orientation*: individuals are rewarded for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, kind

The collectivism dimension was subsequently split into two dimensions, institutional collectivism and in-group collectivism, on theoretical grounds. Unsatisfactory fit indices in confirmatory factor analyses of gender egalitarianism led to the creation of a ninth dimension, assertiveness (individuals are assertive, aggressive, confrontational in relationships), out of items in the gender egalitarianism dimension. Thus, GLOBE followed the common practice of employing both theoretical and empirical bases for generating dimensions. The crucial challenges to any dimensional system are, "are these the right dimensions?" and "what do empirical assessments of these dimensions really measure?" We review GLOBE's assessment decisions in a later section to provide the context in which these challenges are addressed.

Implicit Leadership

The point of the GLOBE research program is to study global leadership, so the considerable effort devoted to the dimensional project is of less theoretical interest than their work involving leadership. Indeed, if Project GLOBE had suffered from resource constraints, the dimensional project could have been dropped and existing dimensional scores utilized as cultural predictors. GLOBE set out to answer four questions concerning leadership and organizational behavior (House & Javidan, 2004):

1. *Universalism*: can universally accepted, effective leadership practices be identified?
2. *Contingent leadership*: are some leadership practices accepted and effective in some cultures?
3. *Culture and leadership effectiveness*: what is the relationship between societal/organizational culture and the acceptance/effectiveness of leadership behaviors?
4. *Culture and leadership practices*: what is the relationship between societal/organizational culture and observed leadership behaviors?

The first two questions echo the fundamental concerns of cross-cultural psychologists (Adamopoulos & Lonner, 1997). Given the centrality of the US economy in the context of globalization, the universality question in leadership studies might be viewed as a subset of the larger study of modernization and social change. The default position concerning how nations, institutions, and individuals change as societies modernize and industrialize is the famous convergence hypothesis (Inkeles & Smith, 1974). There is some evidence supporting the convergence of many social and psychological phenomena (Marsh, 1996), but limiting conditions have been identified (Yang, 1988) that constrain the extent to which convergence does occur, and controversy surrounds the question of how far modernization differs from westernization (Bomhoff & Gu, 2012; Inglehart & Baker, 2000). In the special case of leadership, the question that GLOBE explicitly set out to resolve is whether international management is converging on the US style (Dorfman & House, 2004). The practical implications of these questions are important as multinationals attempt to do business across multiple borders, and economic communities such as the European Union struggle to coalesce. “The multicultural reality is not just an abstract phenomenon to ponder; real people in [multinational European companies] are searching for more effective management practices” (Dorfman & House, 2004, p. 52).

GLOBE’s treatment of leadership is focused on implicit leadership theory (ILT; Lord & Maher, 1991), the central tenet of which is that “...individuals have implicit beliefs, convictions, and assumptions concerning attributes and behaviors that distinguish leaders from followers, effective leaders from ineffective leaders, and moral leaders from evil leaders” (Dorfman & House, 2004, p. 16). Leaders are accepted and effective to the extent that their behavior is congruent with followers’ ILTs. Cultures and organizations may (or may not) differ in the modal ILTs shared by their members. At the societal and organizational levels of analysis, an ILT is referred to as a “culturally endorsed implicit theory of leadership” (CLT; Dorfman, Hanges, & Brodbeck, 2004). The aim of the GLOBE leadership project was to identify the dimensions of CLTs, measure them across cultures and organizations, and examine their relationships with the dimensions identified in the dimensional project. GLOBE’s goals and more specific hypotheses have been summarized by Dorfman and House (2004) and more recently by Dickson et al. (2012) and Dorfman et al. (2012).

Measurement Decisions: The Dimensional Project

Project GLOBE undertook the most sophisticated assessment effort to date in relation to values or leadership in cross-cultural psychology and iWOP. We cannot do justice to all details, but we outline their general strategy and identify some crucial choice points. Foreshadowing their results, GLOBE succeeded in developing questionnaires in many languages to assess two broad sets of constructs: societal and organizational practices and values (seen as independent variables) and implicit

leadership (the dependent variable). Their measurement strategy was elegant, but as we discuss in later sections also controversial. In assessing the independent variables, two important decisions were made:

1. The societal dimensions were assumed to be isomorphic across levels of analysis with the organizational dimensions (i.e., structurally the same), and the development of measures for dimensions at these two levels of analysis was therefore guided by the assumption that nearly identical self-report items could be used to assess them.
2. Values have the same dimensions as cultural practices and both can be measured using nearly identical self-report items.

By asserting these two equivalencies prior to commencing empirical work, GLOBE was able to create so-called parallel quartets of items that use similar words and appear at face value to refer to the same phenomena, but which could be modified to distinguish practices and values in societies and in organizations. This example is provided by Hanges and Dickson (2004, p. 125):

- The economic system in this society is/should be designed to maximize: (individual interests ... collective interests)
- The pay and bonus system in this organization is/should be designed to maximize: (individual interests ... collective interests)

Where :is = practices; should be = values

A large pool of items was written and eventually winnowed down to 39 items through standard psychometric practices in two pilot studies conducted in 28 and 15 societies, respectively.¹ Analyses were performed at the societal level of analysis, i.e., by aggregating individuals' responses by nation, a technique pioneered by Hofstede (1980). Each of the nine dimensions was based on 3–5 items. Practical concerns undoubtedly led to formulating the scales with so few items per scale, but the item counts are not out of line compared, for example, with Schwartz's Portrait Values Questionnaire (Schwartz et al., 2001) in which four items are used to assess each of the 10 individual-level values. Of more concern is the seeming narrowness of the content represented by items within some scales.

The measurement strategy chosen by GLOBE would be termed "referent shift" by Van de Vijver and Fischer (2009) because the respondent is asked to make judgments about entities outside him/herself (societies, people in societies, organizations), i.e., shifting the referent away from the self. For practices items, the referent shift places the respondent in the position of subject matter expert on the organizations or societies to which he/she belongs. Hanges and Dickson (2004) followed Kozlowski and Klein's (2000) perspective, utilizing individual judgments to assess commonalities in perceptions of what is observed. Consensus is the average of the judgments made by respondents. Biases, lack of knowledge, or acceptance of stereotypes could compromise these attributions.

¹At the time of this writing, the questionnaires can be accessed at <http://business.nmsu.edu/programs-centers/globe>

Whereas creating a self-report, referent-shift assessment of societal practices is somewhat novel, the development of values measures has a long history in social science. GLOBE's choice to diverge from common practice, perhaps in support of the leadership project, by contextualizing values and writing them in a referent shift rather than a self-referent style may have influenced their controversial decision to phrase values items in terms of "should be." As critics such as Hofstede (2006) have observed, depending to a great extent on how the items were translated and perhaps on the content of the items themselves, "should be" could refer to the respondent's own values, to the respondent's judgments about normative consensus in his/her society or organization, or to laments about the society's or organization's shortcomings.

Measurement Decisions: The Leadership Project

Project GLOBE used both theoretical and empirical methods to develop CLT measures, although it employed a more inductive empirical approach than in the dimensional project. A pool of 382 items was generated to tap behaviors and traits associated with ILTs. Each item presented a description of a leader quality (e.g., "skilled at interpersonal relations, tactful") and a 7-point response scale bounded by "this behavior or characteristic *greatly inhibits* a person from being an outstanding leader" and "...*contributes greatly*..." Over two pilot studies, working at the societal level of analysis, 21 CLT subscales were identified, e.g., "administratively competent," "malevolent," "collaborative team orientation." A second-order exploratory factor analysis was used to identify the six "CLT leadership dimensions" that were utilized in subsequent tests of hypotheses (Hanges & Dickson, 2004; first-order factors in parentheses):

1. Charismatic/value-based (visionary, inspirational, self-sacrificing, integrity, decisive, performance oriented)
2. Team oriented (collaborative, integrator, diplomatic, malevolent [reversed], administratively competent)
3. Self-protective (self-centered, status conscious, conflict inducer, face saver, procedure)
4. Participative (autocratic [reversed], nonparticipative [reversed])
5. Human oriented (modest, humane orientation)
6. Autonomous (one subscale)

Sampling

The quantitative GLOBE findings on which we focus in this chapter were collected in two pilot studies (Phase 1) followed by a main study that is referred to as Phase 2. The scale creation work described in previous sections utilized data collected in Phase 1.

Phase 2 data were used both for validation in the dimensional project and for hypothesis testing. The multilevel research design called for sampling regions, societies, industries, organizations, and individuals. The study began with convenience sampling but, as more cultures became available, it became a purposive sample in which the goal (and outcome) was to obtain data from at least three societies from six regions: North and South Africa, Asia, Europe, Latin America, North America, and the Pacific Rim (House & Hanges, 2004). Cultures or societies correspond for the most part to nations, although in a few cases subcultural differences were accommodated and more than one sample was then taken from a single nation (e.g., black and white South Africa). Three industries were chosen: food processing, telecommunications, and finance, under the assumption that the food-processing industry is stable (mature) whereas the other two vary in stability over countries. Nonmultinational corporations headquartered in the identified country were sampled ($N=951$). Respondents ($N=17,370$) were primarily men (74.8 %) employed as middle-level managers with 12.2 years of tenure in the organization. The samples were not representative. Unfortunately, only small samples were obtained from some countries: A few countries yielded samples smaller than 75, but these countries were kept in the dataset in order to increase the generalizability of the overall sample (House & Hanges, 2004).

Reducing Complexity

Not unlike other multilevel, multidimensional projects, GLOBE's analysis is complex. GLOBE took two approaches to reducing some of this complexity. First, in order to avoid overinterpretation of small differences between societies, and to provide a convenient method for delivering descriptive findings, GLOBE used a banding technique to group society samples into sets (Hanges, Dickson, & Sipe, 2004). Banding is accomplished through a statistical procedure related to the variability of scores. This method yields different numbers of bands for different scales (e.g., three bands for Performance Orientation practices and five bands for Power Distance values). The number of societies in each band also varies within and across dimensions. For example, for Power Distance practices, all but seven societies are in the upper two bands, but for Power Distance values, 15 societies are in the upper two bands. Banding is convenient in communicating results, especially for practitioners who need descriptive information. Bands are labeled A (highest) through E (lowest).

Societies were subsequently grouped into ten clusters using primarily geographic criteria: Anglo, Latin Europe, Nordic Europe, Germanic Europe, Eastern Europe, Latin America, sub-Saharan Africa, Middle East, Southern Asia, and Confucian Asia. Discriminant analysis and multidimensional scaling supported a ten cluster model, although the distinction between Nordic Europe and Germanic Europe was weak (Gupta & Hanges, 2004). Clustering is also helpful to practitioners in summarizing culture information that might prove helpful. Unfortunately, the value of

clustering is somewhat reduced because nations belonging to the same cluster are found in disparate bands on some dimensions. For example, on Power Distance practices, nations in the Nordic cluster are found in bands B and D, and nations in the Germanic Europe cluster are found in bands A and D.

Validation

Validation: The Dimensional Project

Much of the controversy concerning the GLOBE research has revolved around the question of what was actually measured in the dimensional project (e.g., Hofstede, 2006), so we explore these validation efforts in detail.

The dimensional measures were validated in several ways. Multilevel confirmatory factor analyses were performed to test the structure of each scale separately. These analyses were mainly successful with the exception of gender equality, noted previously. Unlike the procedures used in other values research programs, GLOBE did not report exploratory or confirmatory analyses in support of their nine-dimensional model. This omission has fueled controversy over how many separate dimensions are represented empirically in their questionnaires, and more conceptually, how many dimensions can usefully be distinguished, measurement technology aside. In contrast, they generated leadership subscales using more standard methods that included analyses that demonstrated the dimensional structure that was used in all subsequent hypothesis tests.

Several analyses were performed to examine the convergent and discriminant validity of the GLOBE dimensions. In this section we review and evaluate these analyses.

Relationships with Other Values Measures

The nine dimensions were validated at the societal level against the Hofstede and Schwartz measures and to a lesser extent the dimensional research of the World Values Survey and Trompenaars' management samples (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Comparing GLOBE dimensions to those of earlier value dimension models is desirable, but direct comparisons can be compromised in three ways: first, the meanings of the criterion measures are themselves sometimes in doubt (e.g., see Brewer & Venaik, 2011; Venaik & Brewer, 2010); second, in some cases GLOBE adopted the names of others' dimensions but not precisely their underlying constructs; and third, in several cases the content validity of a dimension's items appears too narrow or off target, suggesting that the proposed construct and the assessed construct may be different.

Most efforts to validate culture-level dimensional models rely on correlations between dimensions and independent culture- or nation-level indices (e.g., Hofstede, 1980).

These relationships are indirect in the sense that arguments are made for processes that mediate the value construct and the criterion construct. For example, Gupta, Sully de Luque, and House (2004) reported a significant relationship between Power Distance practices and “monopolistic orientation,” the acceptance of monopolistic business practices. They argued that this relationship is mediated by the degree of status given to power holders. In high Power Distance societies, power holders are awarded higher status, which is associated in turn with greater privileges and rewards, including the privilege of monopolistic control of a market. The quality of this criterion validation strategy rests on the plausibility of the hypothesized indirect relationship since research that empirically tests the implied mediational model is usually not available. In this section, we show that GLOBE’s indirect validation efforts, like those of other value researchers, varied in plausibility. Arguments for indirect or mediated relationships are also challenged by the problem of low specificity in the hypothesized relationships. In the example given earlier, one could argue with equal plausibility that collectivism would lead to monopolistic orientation due to in-group focused business practices such as those described by Redding (1990) in his qualitative study of overseas Chinese business. Alternatively both dimensions could contribute to the effect.

Hofstede and Schwartz. Using Hofstede’s dimensional model as a baseline, the best cases for successful convergent validity can be made for Assertiveness, In-group Collectivism, Institutional Collectivism, and Power Distance. However, three of these four significant relationships were found for practices, and among the values measures only Institutional Collectivism showed evidence of convergence. Significant convergence of the measures for Uncertainty Avoidance were found for both practices and values, but GLOBE argued that their and Hofstede’s Uncertainty Avoidance constructs differ (Sully de Luque & Javidan, 2004), clouding the usefulness of these relationships for validation purposes (see also Minkov & Blagoev, 2012).

Evidence for relations with Schwartz’s nation-level dimensions is harder to evaluate because, consistent with GLOBE’s theoretical position on the distinction between values and practices, five relationships between GLOBE practices measures and Schwartz values are not reported. Where correlations for both practices and values are given, they are equally often related to Schwartz dimensions. Supportive relationships were found for Gender Egalitarianism (values) and In-group collectivism (practices). GLOBE argued for mediated relationships involving the several Schwartz dimensions that do not directly correspond to GLOBE dimensions. Plausible, significant relationships were found for Assertiveness (values), Power Distance (values), and for Uncertainty Avoidance (both values and practices, but the practices correlations were in the wrong direction).

Other values dimensions. Country data available from surveys conducted by Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998), the World Values Survey (Inglehart, 1997), and Williams and Best’s gender research (Williams & Best, 1982, 1990a, 1990b) provided some validation information for Performance Orientation, Future Orientation, Gender Egalitarianism, and Uncertainty Avoidance. Results showed support for Gender Egalitarianism (values) and Uncertainty Avoidance (practices).

Table 3.1 Outcomes of tests of hypotheses relating GLOBE societal dimensions to external archival variables

Measure	Number of tests	Success	Failure	Null
Practices	174	80 (46 %)	3 (2 %)	91 (52 %)
Values	162	29 (18 %)	38 (24 %)	95 (58 %)
Total	336	109 (32 %)	41 (12 %)	186 (55 %)

Note: Success indicates a significant correlation in the predicted direction. Failure indicates a significant correlation opposite to the predicted direction. Null indicates a nonsignificant correlation

Contradictory evidence was found for Future Orientation and Uncertainty Avoidance values in that correlations were in the wrong direction.

World Values Survey items. Gupta et al. (2004) examined relationships between individual items in the World Values Survey (WVS) and GLOBE values dimensions. Convergence was high in this analysis and overall discriminant validity was good. Most cases of poor discriminant validity involved GLOBE values dimensions that are highly related to each other. Overall, support was found for Gender Egalitarianism, Institutional Collectivism, In-group Collectivism, Power Distance, Humane Orientation, and Uncertainty Avoidance. However, it is difficult to reconcile the positive correlations found in this analysis with the more numerous negative correlations reported between GLOBE values scales and other validation variables, noted below.

Qualitative Culturegram relationships. A content analysis of nation descriptions in the *Culturegram* handbook published by Brigham Young University (1999) provided a novel opportunity to validate the practices dimensions (Gupta et al., 2004). *Culturegram* descriptions of nations are consensus reports by area experts, effectively ethnographies written by committees. This validation project supported the validity of all practices scales except Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance. (See the Appendix for additional details of this analysis.)

Establishing relationships with societal-level variables. Employing the same strategy as Hofstede (1980, 2001; see Leung & Bond, 2008), GLOBE sought to validate the culture dimensions by establishing a nomological network involving societal-level archival measures from a large number of independent sources. This type of validation is particularly important when working at levels of analysis above that of the individual because the meaning of nation-level scales cannot necessarily be discerned from examining the face meaning of their component items. In an effort confined only to measures of practices (Gupta et al., 2004), plausible validation claims could in our judgment only be made for In-group Collectivism, Gender Egalitarianism, and Power Distance. A broader effort that included values and in some cases practices was reported in eight chapters of House et al. (2004), amounting to 174 reports of tests involving practices measures and 162 tests involving values (excluding relationships with other values research programs as well as all the geographical and climate variables).

Table 3.1 shows our tally of the outcomes of these tests. Over all nine dimensions, practices measures are related to a large number of external variables in the

predicted direction, but values are as likely to be related to external variables in the wrong direction as in the predicted direction. Practices dimensions were somewhat more likely to produce significant correlations than values dimensions, predictions aside. However, Table 3.1 glosses over specific detail. Looking at the dimensions individually, six of the practices dimensions are supported: Performance Orientation, Future Orientation, In-group Collectivism, Power Distance, Humane Orientation, and Uncertainty Avoidance. For values, only three dimensions are supported: Gender Egalitarianism, Institutional Collectivism, and In-group Collectivism. Additional details of this analysis can be found in the Appendix.

Conclusion. A substantial amount of evidence concerning the predictive, convergent, and discriminant validity of the GLOBE dimensions has thus been reported, revealing that some dimensions are more valid than others and that the practices dimensions have greater validity than the values dimensions.

Validation: Leadership Project

No external data were available against which to validate the CLT dimensions given that country level or organizational level research in implicit leadership has not been conducted across a large number of societies, in contrast to the dimensional research literature (Hanges & Dickson, 2004). The researchers pointed out that the first four CLT dimensions listed earlier have been identified in other leadership research, so their large, multilevel, cross-cultural analysis did converge nicely with this extant literature. In this sense, the measurement development phase of the leadership project served to establish an expansive national- and organizational-level archive of four previously recognized leadership variables that had not heretofore existed. The fifth and sixth dimensions, Humane-oriented and Autonomous, are “probably not typically associated with leadership, at least within the ‘Western-oriented’ leadership literature” (p. 144). The Humane-oriented dimension, composed of items that measure generosity, compassion, modesty, self-effacingness, and patience, corresponds roughly to the distinctively non-Western organizational phenomenon identified by Smith (2008) as “creating harmony.” Creating harmony is manifested in several regionally important concepts, such as Asian “face” or “face-saving,” the Latin American “simpatía” (empathy with others), the Scandinavian “Jante Law” (modesty in self-presentation), and sub-Saharan African “ubuntu” (caring, community, harmony, respect).

In conclusion, like the dependent variables in many studies that cannot be independently validated prior to use, the validity of the CLT dimensions can only be assessed by observing if they “work” in hypothesis tests.

The Controversies

The goals of the GLOBE authors were to develop and improve on the framework for understanding cultural differences that had been initiated by Hofstede (1980) and to use their newer framework to illuminate cultural differences in the exercise of leadership. While Hofstede's dimensions of cultural variation have proved enormously influential, they have also attracted a steady stream of critics. However, rather than resolving the ambiguities inherent in Hofstede's work, House et al. (2004) found themselves involved in further debates concerning numerous aspects of their own work. Indeed, a leading critic of their work has been Hofstede himself (Hofstede, 2006; Hofstede et al. 2010). Two principal issues have been debated: how best to characterize differences along cultural dimensions, and how best to measure leadership. We consider these in turn.

Cultural Dimensions

Measuring Behaviors

As we have seen, the GLOBE researchers chose to define culture in terms of separate measures of shared practices and of shared values. Their decision to do so provided an opportunity to improve upon the measures employed by Hofstede (1980), which comprised a blend of values and perceived behaviors. The GLOBE researchers and Hofstede were agreed that culture has to be defined in terms of entities that are widely shared between culture members, and they picked up on a suggestion by Hofstede (2001) that it is preferable to measure behavioral practices as well as values as expressions of culture.

Hofstede (2006) subsequently argued that GLOBE's referent-shift strategy for assessing practices is inadequate because it is not plausible that respondents can have accurate knowledge of what is distinctively typical in their own society or organization if they do not have extensive experience of other societies or organizations. This problem has been identified in a more general way by Heine, Lehman, Peng, and Greenholz (2002), who termed it the Reference Group Effect. When someone is asked to make a rating of some quality or action on a rating scale, in deciding whether it is frequent or infrequent they will inevitably draw on some basis of comparison. Different people are likely to draw on different bases of comparison, so there will be substantial error in the measurements that are obtained. On behalf of the GLOBE researchers, Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, and Sully de Luque (2006) replied that their respondents had not been asked to make comparisons with other nations, just to rate the behaviors that are typical in their own nation. This provides

an adequate response to Hofstede's specific criticism, but leaves open the questions as to how large a source of error is entailed in the Reference Group Effect and on what basis a respondent, lacking the frame of reference of an anthropologist, can accurately judge the extent to which his or her society is high or low on a cultural practice. Lacking a frame of reference, referent-shift judgments may reflect the respondent's own evaluation of each practice (in other words, a series of value judgments: "there is too much of this, too little of that") rather than an objectively calibrated judgment of the behavior's prevalence in his or her society.

Another source of error in referent judgments can be expected from the respondent's situated experiences in a specific demographic niche in society. Employing samples of middle-level managers in local companies would mitigate this problem to some extent, similarly to Schwartz's strategy of using teachers and university students, but one would expect the managers' judgments of practices outside the business context to reflect their own social experience. While the influence of mass media would probably reduce the effects of demographics on referent judgments, the media have their own logic and need not be expected to represent reality.

One way to address this problem is to examine correlations between the practices scores for nations and other relevant indices. McCrae, Terracciano, Realo, and Allik (2008) compared nation-level mean scores on the Five Factor Model (FFM) personality dimensions with the GLOBE practices dimensions. Some significant correlations were found, but these were not the ones that might be predicted on the basis of the content of particular scales. The strongest correlations found were between GLOBE's measure of Uncertainty Avoidance practices and nations high on personality measures of Agreeableness and Openness. However, in a further study using respondents' aggregated ratings of typical national character, it was found that these ratings did correlate in more plausible ways with some of the GLOBE practices dimension scores, even after controlling for GDP per capita. Predicted relationships between GLOBE dimensions and national character dimensions were found for Assertiveness, Future Orientation, Institutional Collectivism, Humane Orientation, and Uncertainty Avoidance. Although not predicted a priori, Performance Orientation was significantly related to conscientiousness before controlling for wealth. Hofstede (2009) concluded that this result showed that GLOBE measures tap national stereotypes rather than providing valid measures of actual cultural differences. The typical conceptualization of stereotypes in social psychology is that they usually contain a kernel of truth. However, McCrae et al. (2008) found no relationships between aggregated ratings of national character and corresponding aggregated personality dimensions. Therefore, the convergence of six GLOBE practices dimensions with FFM national character dimensions may indicate consistency in stereotyping between the GLOBE manager samples and the FFM student samples rather than informed judgments about characteristic behaviors in societies.

Whether one would agree with Hofstede's conclusion must depend upon how one understands the nature of cultural difference. If culture can be captured in terms of the nation-level structure of values, then Hofstede's measure best accomplishes that. If culture is better thought of as a subjective representation in individuals' minds of the prevailing contexts in which they are located, then the GLOBE measure more

closely approximates that. Later research has shown that national stereotypes are better predicted by such factors as size of nation and prosperity rather than personality (Smith, Fischer, Vignoles, & Bond, 2013).

Measuring Values

Most culture researchers have agreed that the values that are shared between culture members provide a key reference point by which specific behaviors are accorded agreed meanings and purpose. However, the GLOBE researchers felt that Hofstede's choice to base his dimensions of culture on aggregated measures of individuals' values gave insufficient emphasis to culture as a collective entity. Rather than recording their values as to how they themselves should behave, GLOBE's respondents were therefore asked to record their values about the behaviors of others in their nation or organization (referent shift). Hofstede (2006) found this unsatisfactory, arguing that we all maintain quite differing sets of values about what we personally aspire to (the "desired") and what we view positively in a more general sense (the "desirable"). If I want to be powerful, it does not follow that I shall want others to be powerful. If I want to take risks, it does not follow that I shall want others to do likewise. By asking respondents how others "should" behave, it appears that the GLOBE researchers may have come closer to tapping norms rather than values.

There are additional reasons for pondering the meaning of their values measure. We noted above the potential impact of the Reference Group Effect on ratings. The survey that GLOBE respondents completed comprised an intermingled set of items referring to behavioral practices and to desirable "should" behaviors. The recurring presence of items referring to present behaviors may have encouraged respondents to complete the "should" items in terms of the behaviors that they felt were lacking in their society. If this did happen, it might help to explain why for many of their dimensions the GLOBE researchers found strongly negative correlations between their behavior measures and their values measures. On this point at least, the principal contributors to this debate agree (Hofstede, 2009; Javidan, House et al., 2006; McCrae et al., 2008).

The perplexing issue of negative correlations between values and practices has also been explored by commentators who propose a more clearly differentiated way of assessing values, by distinguishing values (defined as an absolute preference for some end state) from marginal utility (wanting more of something of which one already has some amount) (Maseland & van Hoorn, 2009, 2010). Resolving these ambiguities may well require the formulation of more systematically crafted survey instruments (Taras, Steel, & Kirkman, 2010).

The values measurement problem is compounded by the ambiguity of the word "should." The items were translated from English, mainly by professional translators, using the back translation method, into a large number of other languages. Unfortunately, the items were not made available to the research community until just a few years ago and only the Spanish and French translations are yet available, so it has been difficult to evaluate the actual measures fully. It would be particularly

interesting to see how the word “should” was translated across all of the languages. Some of the discordant results for specific nations, such as appearing too close to each other or too distant relative to findings from other studies, may be due to translation problems. GLOBE contends that cross-cultural equivalence of the factor structure need not be established (Hanges & Dickson, 2004), precluding one, albeit indirect, way to examine translation quality. Working at the individual level of analysis (US sample, English), Gabrenya, van Driel, and Fehir (2007) found that the original “should-be” format GLOBE items were positively correlated with corresponding items rewritten in a traditional values format (Schwartz Values Survey style) as well as with GLOBE practices items. However, a culture-level study is needed to determine if problems with GLOBE values items can be attributed to their ambiguous format.

The Levels of Analysis Problem

Psychologists mostly collect data from individual respondents. However, culture is collectively defined, so there is a problem as to how individual datasets are to be combined to provide a valid representation of culture. Hofstede (1980) reasoned that item responses provided by individuals should be aggregated to the nation level before determining the ways in which items could be combined to yield dimensions of cultural variation. The GLOBE researchers (Hanges & Dickson, 2004) did not initially explain their psychometric procedure, leading to critical comments (Peterson & Castro, 2006). Hanges and Dickson (2006) subsequently provided much fuller detail. As noted in a previous section, their nation-level, ecological factor analyses were only performed within item sets corresponding to each of their 18 dimensions. Such analyses cannot reveal other dimensions or item cross-loadings. Working at the individual level, Gabrenya et al. (2007) were unable to replicate within-dimension consistency for several dimensions and were not able to support the nine-factor structures of the practices and values items.

How Many Dimensions?

Hofstede (2006) argued that the 18 dimensions of cultural variation identified by the GLOBE researchers are too numerous to be useful in practice and may include dimensions that are insufficiently distinct from one another. He therefore performed a factor analysis on the entire set of nation scores for 18 dimensions (i.e., combining values and practices dimensions), concluding that these data could be adequately summarized in terms of five dimensions. Javidan, House et al. (2006) responded that the type of analysis performed by Hofstede is invalid, as the proportion of cases to dimensions is insufficient to yield reliable results. Peterson and Castro (2006) performed a second order factor analysis on practices and values dimensions separately, identifying three (practices) and four (values) dimensions that were interpretable, albeit with some cross-loadings. Stephan and Uhlaner (2010) included seven of the nine practices dimensions (omitting Institutional Collectivism and Gender

Egalitarianism) in a second-order factor analysis and found two factors that they labeled “performance based culture” (Future Orientation, Uncertainty Avoidance, Performance Orientation, Power Distance-reversed, In-group Collectivism-reversed) and “socially supportive culture” (Humane Orientation, Assertiveness-reversed).

These analyses suggest the possibility of a more concise summary of the GLOBE data. Although the multilevel confirmatory factor analyses that were used by the GLOBE researchers provide a stronger basis for establishing the robustness of their dimensions, the reported scores on several dimensions do correlate significantly with one another. Analyses are required in which the predictive power of these dimensions is evaluated competitively with one another. A few analyses of this type were provided by Dorfman et al. (2004), but the great majority of analyses reported in House et al. (2004) are for single dimensions only. This leaves open the question of which of the GLOBE dimensions can explain particular aspects of cultural variance that is distinctive and unique (Smith, 2006).

While it may be possible to reduce the number of GLOBE dimensions that have predictive value in this way, it can also be useful to examine more fully the ways in which the GLOBE dimensions differ from the original Hofstede dimensions on which they were based. This has been attempted for Uncertainty Avoidance by Venaik and Brewer (2010), who note the contrasting emphases on stress by Hofstede and on rule orientation by GLOBE. In a similar way, Brewer and Venaik (2011) note that Hofstede’s measure of collectivism contrasts work orientation with self-orientation, whereas the GLOBE measure emphasizes family-based collectivism.

Wealth Issues

The process of devising adequate ways of comparing national cultures requires that one works on the basis of a theory that specifies what is included within one’s concept of culture and what is separate from it. This proves to be particularly important in relation to national wealth, because levels of national wealth are found to be significantly correlated with scores on the dimensions of collectivism and power distance first identified by Hofstede (1980) and with 12 of the 18 dimensions within the GLOBE project (House et al., 2004, p. 118). Hofstede considered wealth to be distinct from culture and he consequently controlled for it when computing correlations between his dimensions and other measures. House et al. (2004) did not do this, since their view is that national wealth is an inherent aspect of a nation’s culture. This difference in the very definition of culture poses a significant challenge for progress in the field. It remains desirable to test the correlates of wealth competitively against the other GLOBE dimensions in order to identify which of these various aspects of culture have greatest explanatory potential. The pervasive finding in the validation results, discussed in the previous section, that partialing wealth out of the reported correlations reduces them to nonsignificance would be taken by those who separate culture from wealth as evidence against the validity of much of the dimensional project.

National Culture Versus Organizational Culture

The GLOBE researchers devised separate items to tap organizational culture and national culture, but they expected that these items would measure the same nine dimensions. In contrast, Hofstede (2001) has proposed that organizational cultures will vary along quite different dimensions from those that he had found to differentiate national cultures. Using data available in House et al. (2004), Gerhart (2008) estimated that national culture only explains around 6 % of the variance within the GLOBE data. He concludes that there is ample opportunity for organizational cultures to vary within a given nation. However, across the three different industries that were sampled, Brodbeck, Hanges, Dickson, Gupta, and Dorfman (2004) showed that mean scores for organizational culture were strongly correlated with mean scores for national culture. Hofstede (2009) argued that this is because the measures used do not detect important aspects of organizational culture. While this is possible, even within the constraint of the measures used, the convergence of mean scores averaged across industries does not mean that there are no variations in organizational culture. Indeed, Dickson, Resick, and Hanges (2006) showed that when differences between national cultures in the GLOBE data are held constant, there are consistent differences between the three industries sampled in their types of preferred leadership.

Content and Face Validity Issues

Some of the criticisms of the GLOBE dimensional project are based on examination of the instruments' items. Maseland and van Hoorn's (2010) marginal utility interpretation of the negative correlations between practices and values was based on a close reading of the items, and Brewer and Venaik's (2011) challenge to their interpretation employed a lexical analysis of the items. Venaik and Brewer's (2010) reinterpretation of some dimensions were based on examination of item content, including narrowness of content and the face meanings of items.

At a more fundamental level, the charge that GLOBE values are in fact norms comes from the problem of interpreting "should" in English in a referent-shift measurement context. However, interpretation of societal level dimensions by looking at the meanings of specific items at the individual level is precarious when the dimensions have been generated through an ecological psychometric procedure (Hofstede, 2006). This common practice would be more defensible if isomorphisms were established first (Fontaine & Fischer, 2011). Lacking such an analysis, GLOBE did the second-best thing: they showed that the items, chosen originally on the basis of their individual-level meanings, did form coherent, internally reliable scales in ecological factor analyses and multilevel analyses. However, when all 78 items were reanalyzed by Hofstede (2006) in a single ecocultural factor analysis, the resulting dimensions did not approximate GLOBE's theoretically generated nine-dimensional structure. Even if the GLOBE procedure is accepted, demonstrating high reliability at the societal level does not prove that the meanings of the societal

level dimensions correspond to the meanings of the items when read in the context of individual judgments. The emergent meanings of the societal-level scales must ultimately be intuited from the nomological network of relationships with other variables whose meanings are presumably better understood.

Some of the validation strategies, such as content analysis of *Culturegram* country reports to validate practices scales and of the World Value Survey “outcropping” variables to validate values scales, do provide evidence for isomorphic meanings across the individual and societal levels. Nonetheless, psychologists are just beginning to grapple with the dilemma of working with sociological dimensions generated from the individual-level responses that make sense to psychologists. Some recent analyses of data obtained using the Schwartz Values Survey and Schwartz’s Portrait Values Questionnaire have demonstrated isomorphism, or near-isomorphism, at the individual and country levels of analysis (Fischer, 2011; Fischer & Poortinga, 2012; Fischer, Vaclair, Fontaine, & Schwartz, 2010), suggesting that interpretations of nation-level dimensions using individual-level items may in fact be justified.

Leadership Qualities

As described in Sect. 2, the leadership project concerned cultural variations in *implicit* leadership theories. Since the GLOBE survey contained no questions in which the behaviors of leaders were actually evaluated directly, it could be argued that their measures might in that sense be considered implicit. However, the ratings of traits were direct and explicit. What was missing from the study is any evidence as to how respondents’ perceptions of idealized traits are related to evaluations of actual leader behaviors. While critics such as Graen (2006) saw this lack of individual-level data as a weakness, the GLOBE authors argued that it was collectively defined understandings of leadership that they sought to understand, rather than individual-level variations (House, Javidan, Dorfman, & Sully de Luque, 2006). Their way of looking at leadership thus parallels the way in which they also chose to measure cultural dimensions by tapping perceptions of others rather than by focusing on individual values. However, whereas their creation of the cultural dimensions was guided by the dimensions identified earlier by Hofstede (1980) and others, their list of leader traits was not built upon any prior cultural conceptualization of charismatic or other prior theories of leadership besides implicit leadership theory (Lord & Maher, 1991) and transformational leadership concepts. Their representation of groups of effective leader traits was constructed after the data had been collected, with names assigned on the basis of primary and secondary nation-level factor analyses. Although this is a weakness of the study, simply by summarizing leadership preferences across numerous nations, it has provided a uniquely broad perspective, and to some critics this, rather than the strong emphasis on cultural dimensions, was the major achievement of the study (Earley, 2006).

Nonetheless, it remains a limitation that the characterization of helpful and unhelpful leadership traits was exclusively focused on scores aggregated to the

nation level, thus leaving out of account the substantial variations in preferred leadership that will be found within any given nation (Smith, Peterson, & Thomason, 2011). In their own 43-nation multilevel study, Smith et al. were able to show that variation between cultures in individual-level reactions to leader behaviors could be predicted by several of the nation-level GLOBE practices dimensions of culture, thus amplifying and extending our understanding of the extent to which effective leadership does vary between cultures.

Practitioners: What Does GLOBE Offer Leaders?

In this section, we distill the best of what GLOBE has for practitioners: leaders in global organizations and multicultural work environments. Calling on the detailed description and critique of the GLOBE research presented in previous sections, we summarize the results of the GLOBE leadership project for the societal dimensions that appear to be supported by validation results. We begin by using the validation information presented in Sects. 2 and 3 to provide our best estimate concerning which dimensions are solid enough to serve as the basis for recommendations for practitioners. This evaluation of the dimensional project is then used to pull in findings from the leadership project. Finally, we focus exclusively on the leadership project and present leadership findings that can be tied to nations and regions.

Which Dimensions Are Valid?

The disparate validation findings presented in Sect. 2 do not provide a fully coherent picture of the quality of the GLOBE dimensional and leadership project constructs and measures. We can say with some confidence that the practices scales are more valid than the values scales, although the question of what the practices scales measure is hotly debated. It appears that the practices scales may also indirectly assess values and may be better described as stereotypes, given the limitations of respondents' knowledge. We scrutinized the seven kinds of validation information presented by House et al. (2004) and attempted to make judgments concerning the validity of each of the 18 dimensions. Validation is strongest for In-group Collectivism and Power Distance practices and acceptable for Performance Orientation and Future Orientation practices and Gender Egalitarianism values. However, In-group Collectivism may be better characterized as "family collectivism" (Brewer & Venaik, 2011). Validation is weakest for Institutional Collectivism practices and Performance Orientation and Future Orientation values.

Table 3.2 presents our evaluation of the dimensions. Minkov and Blagoev (2012) performed a similar analysis that agrees with ours on eight of the 18 dimensions. Minkov was more optimistic, proposing that three of the values dimensions must be considered valid measures of norms, not values. We observed poor validity results for

Table 3.2 Evaluation of the validity of GLOBE societal dimensions

Dimension	Values	Practices
Performance orientation	Poor	Good
Future orientation	Poor	Good
Gender egalitarianism	Good	Mixed
Assertiveness	Poor	Poor
Institutional collectivism	Mixed	Poor
In-group collectivism	Poor	Good
Power distance	Poor	Good
Humane orientation	Poor	Poor
Uncertainty avoidance	Poor	Mixed

these three dimensions. We deemed only one value dimension, Gender Egalitarianism, as valid. Probably not coincidentally, this is the only dimension for which a positive, significant correlation was found between practices and values. Erring on the side of caution, we next focus on the practices and values identified as “good” in Table 3.2 in interpreting the practical implications of the leadership project.

The banding technique that GLOBE used to simplify and communicate its findings is most informative for dimensions that show strong evidence of validity. On dimensions that are valid (see Table 3.2), society samples should occupy plausible positions, and in fact this is generally the case. On dimensions that appear to be less valid, anomalous groupings of countries appear. For example on Humane Orientation practices, Zambia, Philippines, and Ireland score highest, with Greece, Spain, and Germany scoring lowest. Implausible placement of countries in bands might also be attributed to the small samples obtained in some societies. If these small samples were collected from a single industry or company, nonrepresentativeness would not be unexpected.

Parsing Implicit Leadership

Implicit Leadership and Cultural Dimensions

In this section, we summarize the relationships between cultural dimensions and implicit leadership for the dimensions that we have judged to be valid. On the assumption that global leaders are far more likely to know what nation(s) they will work in, rather than the cultural characteristics of the companies (as defined by the GLOBE organization dimensions), we confine our summary to the relationships between societal dimensions and CLT dimensions and do not discuss the relationships between organizational dimensions and CLTs. Table 3.3 summarizes our findings. Notably, no significant relationships were found for the humane-oriented and autonomous CLT dimensions.

Gender Egalitarianism. Societies high in Gender Egalitarianism (GE) values prefer charismatic leadership and participative leadership, and devalue self-protective

Table 3.3 Predicted and obtained relationships between GLOBE societal dimensions and implicit leadership dimensions

Societal dimension	Culturally endorsed implicit leadership dimensions					
	Charismatic/ Value	Team	Participative	Humane oriented	Autonomous	Self-protective
Performance orientation (practices)	None	None	None	None	None	None
Future orientation (practices)	None	Med	None	None	None	None
Gender egalitarianism (values)	High	None	High	None	None	High ^a
In-group collectivism (practices)	None	Med	High ^a	None	None	High
Power distance (practices)	None	Med	High^a	None	None	High

Note: None=no relationship found with societal dimension; Med=small but significant relationship ($|r| < 0.30$) found but low variance accounted for (<10 %) or vice-versa; High=significant relationship found ($|r| > 0.30$) and moderate to strong variance accounted for

Outcomes in boldface type were predicted to be significant by GLOBE

^aThe relationship was inverse due to the way the construct was measured

leadership. GLOBE found that Germanic-, Nordic-, and Latin-Europe nations, as well as Anglo nations and Latin American nations, scored highest on GE values while the Middle East scored low, reflecting related findings for gender in the World Values Survey (Norris & Inglehart, 2003). This finding is partly counterintuitive, in that Sweden, the US, Mexico, and Kazakhstan are all located in the same high-egalitarianism band. No relationships were found between GE practices at the societal level and CLT dimensions. Thus, these societies place a high emphasis on positive relationships between leader and follower, preferring leaders who are visionary, of high integrity, not autocratic, and open to participation by followers. On the other hand, societies scoring high on GE values dislike leaders who are concerned with status and saving face, who are self-centered and concerned with their own status.

In-group Collectivism. Societies that emphasize loyalty to the family, represented in GLOBE by In-group Collectivism, prefer leaders who are *not* participative but are to some extent team oriented, and do not like leaders who are self-protective. Team-oriented leaders, as conceptualized by GLOBE, stress collaboration, are competent in administrative matters, diplomatic in interacting with others, and kind. Collectivists are sometimes characterized as naturally forming family-like units and relationships across a wide range of situations, so this finding is consistent with the broader literature on collectivism, especially horizontal collectivism (Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, & Gelfand, 1995). Collectivism is the most prevalent way of life

for humans, and in GLOBE all clusters were high or mid-level on this dimension except Germanic Europe, Nordic Europe, and Anglo Europe—all northern European heritage regions, all speaking a Germanic language.

Power Distance. GLOBE did not find any culture clusters to be high in Power Distance (PD) practices and all but one cluster was placed in the mid-score category. Nordic Europe stood alone as a low PD cluster. Therefore, culture clusters cannot function as a useful heuristic for understanding the relationships between PD and CLTs. People in high PD societies do not like participative leadership and are moderately in favor of team leadership, but they do not like self-protective leadership. The participative and team leadership findings are consistent with other research in this area (cf. Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010).

Performance Orientation. Societies high in Performance Orientation practices are usually in the Confucian Asia, Germanic Europe, and Anglo clusters. Table 3.3 shows that none of the six CLTs met our criteria for significant relationships to this dimension.

Future Orientation. Germanic Europe and Nordic Europe clusters evidenced the highest scores on Future Orientation, while the Middle East, Latin Europe, and Eastern Europe had the lowest scores. Societies high in Future Orientation tend to prefer Team-oriented leadership but no other relationships were found with CLTs.

Implicit Leadership and Culture Clusters

The voluminous GLOBE data can be parsed in other ways that are useful for practitioners. Turning to culture clusters and ignoring the dimensional project, we can identify the most and least highly endorsed CLTs for each cluster (Dorfman et al., 2004):

Eastern Europe: Charismatic, Team/Self-protective
 Latin America: Charismatic, Team/Self-protective, Autonomous
 Latin Europe: Charismatic, Team/Self-protective, Autonomous
 Confucian Asia: Charismatic, Team/Self-protective
 Nordic Europe: Charismatic, Team, Participative/Self-protective
 Anglo: Charismatic, Team, Participative/Self-protective
 Sub-Saharan Africa: Charismatic, Team/Self-protective, Autonomous
 Southern Asia: Charismatic, Team/Self-protective
 Germanic Europe: Charismatic, Team, Participative/Self-protective
 Middle East: Charismatic, Team/Self-protective, Autonomous

At first pass, these findings provide a highly reassuring result for practicing managers. The pattern is clear: middle-level managers the whole over prefer charismatic and team leadership styles, and they dislike self-protective leadership and sometimes autonomous leadership. Autonomous leadership includes attributes such as independence and individualism. The consistency in this pattern reveals the outcome of one of the key research questions posed by GLOBE: are there universally accepted leadership styles? Yes, there are. However, preference for participative leadership

varies between high and low PD clusters, and autonomous leadership is also more favored in some clusters than others.

Having established a high level of universality for three of the six CLTs, the global leader must confront two challenges: (1) learning how to implement transformational leadership methods as needed, wherever needed; and (2) utilizing the other dimension-related CLT findings, such as the information in Table 3.3, to go one step beyond the universal and optimize leadership in particular specific settings. The universal pattern suggests culture-general efforts, such as training and other preparation in general cultural and intercultural competencies that ease implementation of leadership across otherwise distinctly different societies. But getting down into the weeds also requires culture-specific efforts to accommodate local conditions, norms, practices, business climates, political climates, etc. For this culture-specific detail, the qualitative work in Chhokar et al. (2007) is a good starting point.

Mining the Nonuniversals

As an exercise in exploring “the rest of the variability,” i.e., differences across countries outside of the three apparently universal CLTs, we can look at the much-discussed BRIC nations (Brazil, Russia, India, and China). Notably among these nations, Brazil is high in preference for participative leadership and rejection of autonomous leadership while the other three countries do not stand out. The G-7 industrialized nations provide a different slice of the world: France, Germany, Italy, the United Kingdom, Japan, the United States, and Canada. France is against humane-oriented leadership, Canada and the US are high in preference for participative leadership (although Hofstede et al., 2010, point out that in the US this type of leadership is understood differently than in other nations), and Germany is high in preference for autonomous leadership. A German–Brazilian joint venture would share the three universal leadership style preferences but would clash on the value of autonomous leadership. France has the lowest score among all samples on preference for charismatic leadership, providing a singular counterexample to the seeming universality of this CLT and suggesting a challenge to global leaders working in France.

Conclusion

Our exposition and critique of Project GLOBE and distillation of its findings for practitioners can be summarized in terms of five propositions. First, despite its huge scale, and commendable improvements on previous values and cultural leadership studies, a number of flaws in the dimensional component of the project have resulted in their limited usefulness. Our and others’ examinations of the available findings have revealed both ambiguity and unfortunate weaknesses in methodology, the ultimate result of which is the severely pared down list of valid societal dimensions presented in Table 3.2 and explored more fully in Table 3.3. These five dimensions

provide the only empirically defensible basis for the design of organizationally relevant training relevant to cultural issues at the nation level. Rather than providing radically novel perspectives, they give firm support to understandings that are already widely understood, such as the contrasting acceptance of greater hierarchy in cultures that are high on collectivism and power distance, and preference for lesser hierarchy in cultures that are more individualistic, lower in power distance, and more in favor of gender egalitarianism. Beyond these modest findings, the value of GLOBE to organizations may rest more on its implication of the continuing value to multinational organizations of surveying varying leadership preferences within the range of their own specific operations, as a basis for better targeting of needed interventions.

Second, on a truly grand scale, GLOBE has identified two universally endorsed and one universally rejected culturally implicit leadership theories and the research and practitioner communities have both benefited from this research, relying on its unparalleled sample breadth and on the sound methodological procedures employed in the leadership project.

Third, the limitations of the dimensional project suggest we must temper our enthusiasm for the inclusion of GLOBE dimensions in cross-national research projects. Scores on GLOBE dimensions are currently being referenced alongside older dimensional models, but the literature to date reflects our own critique in that more findings are being reported for practices than for values (e.g., Vecchi & Brennan, 2011). Meta-analyses will in due course provide a firmer basis for our conclusions. Unfortunately, researchers do not consistently distinguish between values and practices, leading to confusion in interpreting findings. For example, in their study of workplace bullying, Power et al. (2013) stated: “Practice measures, which consider actual values held by cultures, were selected rather than value measures that measure the values to which cultures aspire” (p. 377).

Fourth, again due to problems in the dimensional project, the findings for the relationships between valid dimensions and CLTs are thin. In Table 3.3, seven of the 30 cells were predicted by GLOBE to show significant positive or negative correlations (indicated by boldface type), but only three did so. As with any null finding, only additional research can distinguish between problems of theory and problems of method. Although another project on the scale of GLOBE would be challenging, future research could use the published CLT society dataset to test hypotheses derived from alternative indicator variables. There is a growing recognition that values may not be the most useful independent variable for explaining leadership. Values might be supplanted or at least supplemented by other cultural constructs, such as cognitive style (Brockner, 2003) or institutions (Fiske, 2002). Fischer and Schwartz (2011) have recently provided evidence confirming that values differ much more between individuals than they do between societies, suggesting that values might be more useful for personality research than cultural research.

Finally, Project GLOBE commenced at a time of considerably increasing activity in the field of international work and organizational psychology (iWOP). In their review of the field, Gelfand, Erez, and Aycan (2007) probably understate the claim that we are “...entering a new era when cultural research is beginning to be embraced

in OB” (p. 482). While Hofstede’s seminal work appeared at just the right time for cross-cultural psychology (Bond, 2002), Project GLOBE did the same for iWOP. These projects all have limitations, but we expect both to influence future research in many fields. While GLOBE, perhaps implicitly, set out to supplant some of the earlier values work, we expect the other Big Values projects to continue to influence our work for the foreseeable future.

Looking to the future, the GLOBE project continues, although sadly without the participation of its founding member, Robert House, who passed away in 2011. The next “big book” (House et al., 2013) has just been published, this time shifting the research focus up the corporate hierarchy from middle-level managers to CEOs and upper management teams, covering 24 countries. GLOBE has been conducted for the most part by the “first generation” of iWOP academics as described by Gabrenya and Yan (2014) and has helped foster the second generation while providing theoretical and methodological lessons for the third generation, “Generation G.” Gabrenya and Yan speculated that it is within this generation of cross-cultural work and organizational psychologists that theory and method will reach the level of sophistication associated with the field at large. Assuming a relatively monotonic progression in the communication technology and resources needed for international collaboration, we can expect this generation to conduct any number of large projects of the scale of GLOBE, each building on the previous one’s experience and sophistication.

Appendix: Cultural Dimension Validation

Culturegram validation study. Gupta et al.’s (2004) qualitative *Culturegram* followed the approach of research employing the Human Relations Area Files (Ember & Ember, 2001). Content analyses of the national culture descriptions, such as “it is proper for women to have a job,” were used to generate quantitative variables that could be employed in correlational analyses. They found that correlations between corresponding GLOBE and ethnographic measures ranged from $r=51$ to $r=65$ while correlations between noncorresponding measures (e.g., GLOBE Power Distance and ethnographically assessed uncertainty avoidance) were usually lower and often negative, supporting discriminant validity. Thus, the amateur ethnographers (middle-level managers) who provided GLOBE practices data shared up to 42 % of the variance in their societal practices judgments with area experts.

Nomological network analyses to support validation. The authors of dimension-focused chapters generated hypotheses as to whether the correlations would be positive or negative in all but four tests. We usually agreed with these hypotheses. Although the authors report several correlations that were reduced to nonsignificance when GNP was partialled out, Table 3.1 is based on counts of the zero order correlations. In most cases, partialing out GNP reduced values scale correlations but not practices scale correlations to nonsignificance. GLOBE did not report partial correlations for tests involving some dimensions (e.g., Performance Orientation),

so we do not know the full extent to which doing so could have compromised these validation results. The question of whether or not wealth should be partialled out was discussed in Sect. 3. A further problem in interpreting the results is that in some cases, primarily for values, results were not reported. This omission suggests a higher rate of null findings for values than Table 3.1 shows. It should be noted that this type of analysis ignores the validity of the external measures themselves and does not take into account the relative importance of some archival validation criteria over others.

References

- Adamopoulos, J., & Lonner, W. J. (1997). Culture as antecedent to behavior. In J. W. Berry et al. (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology* (2nd ed., Vol. 1, pp. 43–83). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bomhoff, E., & Gu, M. M. (2012). East Asia remains different: A comment on the index of ‘self-expression’ values by Inglehart and Welzel. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *43*, 373–383.
- Bond, M. H. (2002). Reclaiming the individual from Hofstede’s ecological analysis—A 20-year odyssey: Comment on Oyserman et al. (2002). *Psychological Bulletin*, *128*(1), 73–77.
- Bond, M. H., Leung, K., & 51 co-authors (2004). Culture-level dimensions of social axioms and their correlates across 41 cultures. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *35*, 548–570.
- Brewer, P., & Venaik, S. (2011). Individualism-collectivism in Hofstede and GLOBE. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *42*, 436–445.
- Brigham Young University. (1999). *Culturegrams*. Provo, UT: Brigham Young University.
- Brockner, J. (2003). Unpackaging country effects: On the need to operationalize the psychological determinants of cross-national differences. In R. M. Kramer & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 25, pp. 333–367). Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Brodbeck, F. C., Hanges, P. J., Dickson, M. W., Gupta, V., & Dorfman, P. W. (2004). Societal culture and industrial sector influences on organizational culture. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 664–668). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Chhokar, J. S., Brodbeck, F. C., & House, R. J. (2007). *Culture and leadership across the world: The GLOBE book of in-depth studies of 25 societies*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Dickson, M. W., Castaño, N., Magomaeva, A., & Den Hartog, D. (2012). Conceptualizing leadership across cultures. *Journal of World Business*, *47*, 483–492.
- Dickson, M., Resick, C., & Hanges, P. (2006). Systematic variation in organizationally-shared cognitive prototypes of effective leadership based on organizational form. *Leadership Quarterly*, *17*, 487–505.
- Dorfman, P. W., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., & Sully de Luque, M. F. (2013). *GLOBE project findings on CEO leadership: Reactions, questions, and practical applications*. Orlando, FL: Academy of Management.
- Dorfman, P. W., Hanges, P. J., & Brodbeck, F. (2004). Leadership and cultural variation. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 669–719). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dorfman, P. W., & House, R. J. (2004). Cultural influences on organizational leadership: Literature review, theoretical rationale, and GLOBE project goals. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 51–73). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dorfman, P., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., Dastmalchian, A., & House, R. (2012). GLOBE: A twenty year journey into the intriguing world of culture and leadership. *Journal of World Business*, *47*, 504–518.

- Earley, P. C. (2006). Leading cultural research in the future. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37, 922–931.
- Ember, C. R., & Ember, M. (2001). *Cross-cultural research methods*. Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.
- Fischer, R. (2011). Value isomorphism in the European Social Survey: Exploration of meaning shifts in values across levels. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 43(6), 883–898.
- Fischer, R., & Poortinga, Y. H. (2012). Are cultural values the same as the values of individuals?: An examination of similarities in personal, social and cultural value structures. *International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management*, 12, 157–170.
- Fischer, R., & Schwartz, S. (2011). Whence differences in values priorities? Individual, cultural, or artifactual sources. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 42(7), 1127–1144.
- Fischer, R., Vauclair, C. M., Fontaine, J. R., & Schwartz, S. H. (2010). Are individual- and culture-level value structures different? Testing Hofstede's legacy with the Schwartz data. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 41, 135–151.
- Fiske, A. (2002). Cultural psychology, a new look: Reply to Bond. *Psychological Bulletin*, 128, 78–88.
- Fontaine, J. R. J., & Fischer, R. (2011). Data analytic approaches for investigating isomorphism between the individual-level and the cultural-level internal structure. In D. Matsumoto & F. J. R. van de Vijver (Eds.), *Cross-cultural research methods in psychology* (pp. 273–298). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Gabrenya, W. K., Jr., van Driel, M., & Fehir, S. (2007). *Understanding Project GLOBE: Exploratory scale reconstruction at an individual level*. New York: Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology.
- Gabrenya, W. K., Jr., & Yan, W.-H. (2014). The making of generation G: Education and collaborative teaching to create the next generation of international work and organizational psychologists. In R. L. Griffith & L. F. Thompson (Eds.), *The age of internationalization: Developing an international organizational psychology curriculum*. New York: Springer.
- Gelfand, M. J., Erez, M., & Aycan, Z. (2007). Cross-cultural organizational behavior. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 58, 479–514.
- Gerhart, B. (2008). How much does national culture constrain organizational culture? *Management and Organization Review*, 5, 241–259.
- Graen, G. B. (2006). In the eye of the beholder: Cross-cultural lesson in leadership from Project GLOBE: A response viewed from the third culture bonding (TCB) model of cross-cultural leadership. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20, 102–114.
- Gupta, V., & Hanges, P. J. (2004). Regional and climate clustering of societal cultures. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 178–208). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gupta, V., Sully de Luque, M., & House, R. J. (2004). Multisource construct validity of GLOBE scales. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 152–177). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hanges, P. J., & Dickson, M. W. (2004). The development and validation of the GLOBE culture and leadership scales. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 122–151). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hanges, P. J., & Dickson, M. W. (2006). Agitation over aggregation: Clarifying the development of and the nature of the GLOBE scales. *Leadership Quarterly*, 17, 522–536.
- Hanges, P. J., Dickson, M. W., & Sipe, M. T. (2004). Rationale for GLOBE statistical analyses: Societal rankings and tests of hypotheses. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture, and Organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 219–233). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Harris, M. (1979). *Cultural materialism: The struggle for a science of culture*. New York: Vintage.
- Heine, S. J., Lehman, D. R., Peng, K. P., & Greenholz, J. (2002). What's wrong with cross-cultural comparisons of subjective Likert scales? The reference group effect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82, 903–918.

- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (2006). What did GLOBE really measure? Researchers' minds versus respondents' minds. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37, 882–896.
- Hofstede, G. (2009). The GLOBE debate: Back to relevance. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 41, 1339–1346.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- House, R. J., Dorfman, P. W., Javidan, M., Hanges, P. J., & Sully de Luque, M. (2013). *Strategic leadership across cultures: GLOBE study of CEO leadership behavior and effectiveness in 24 countries*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- House, R. J., & Hanges, P. J. (2004). Research design. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 91–101). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Leadership, culture and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- House, R. J., & Javidan, M. (2004). Overview of GLOBE. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 9–28). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- House, R. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Sully de Luque, M. (2006). A failure of scholarship: Response to George Graen's critique of GLOBE. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20, 102–114.
- Inglehart, R. (1997). *Modernization and post-modernization: Culture, economic and political change in 43 nations*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Inglehart, R., & Baker, W. E. (2000). Modernization, cultural change, and the persistence of traditional values. *American Sociological Review*, 65, 19–33.
- Inkeles, A., & Smith, D. H. (1974). *Becoming modern: Individual change in six developing countries*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Javidan, M., & Dastmalchian, A. (2009). Managerial implications of the GLOBE project: A study of 62 societies. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 47(1), 41–58.
- Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., Sully de Luque, S., & House, R. J. (2006). In the eye of the beholder: Cross-cultural lessons in leadership from project GLOBE. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20(1), 67–90.
- Javidan, M., House, R. J., Dorfman, P. W., Hanges, P. J., & Sully de Luque, M. (2006). Conceptualizing and measuring cultures and their consequences: A comparative review of GLOBE's and Hofstede's approaches. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37, 897–914.
- Kabasakal, H., Dastmalchian, A., Karacay, G., & Bayraktar, S. (2012). Leadership and culture in the MENA region: An analysis of the GLOBE project. *Journal of World Business*, 47, 519–529.
- Kluckhohn, F. R., & Strodtbeck, F. L. (1961). *Variations in value orientations*. Oxford, England: Row, Peterson.
- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Klein, K. J. (2000). A multilevel approach to theory and research in organizations: Contextual, temporal and emergent processes. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations* (pp. 3–90). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Leung, K., & Bond, M. H. (2008). Psycho-logic and eco-logic: Insights from social axiom dimensions. In F. J. R. Van de Vijver, D. A. van Hemert, & Y. H. Poortinga (Eds.), *Multilevel analysis of individuals and cultures* (pp. 199–222). New York: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Lord, R. G., & Maher, K. J. (1991). *Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions and performance*. Cambridge, MA: Unwin Hyman.
- Marsh, R. M. (1996). *The great transformation: Social change in Taipei, Taiwan since the 1960s*. Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharp.

- Maseland, R., & van Hoorn, A. (2009). Explaining the negative correlation between values and practices: A note on the Hofstede-GLOBE debate. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 40, 527–532.
- Maseland, R., & van Hoorn, A. (2010). Values and marginal preferences in international business. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 41, 1325–1329.
- McCrae, R. R., Terracciano, A., Realo, A., & Allik, J. (2008). Interpreting GLOBE societal practices scales. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 35, 805–810.
- McCrae, R. R., Terracciano, A., & 79 Members of the Personality Profiles of Cultures Project. (2005). Personality profiles of cultures: Aggregate personality traits. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 89, 407–425.
- Minkov, M., & Blagoev, V. (2012). What do project GLOBE's cultural dimensions reflect? An empirical perspective. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 18(1), 27–43.
- Norris, P., & Inglehart, R. (2003, March–April). The true clash of civilizations. *Foreign Policy*.
- Parsons, T., & Shils, E. (Eds.). (1951). *Toward a general theory of social action*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Peterson, M. F., & Castro, S. L. (2006). Measurement metrics at aggregate levels of analysis: Implications for the GLOBE project and organization culture research. *Leadership Quarterly*, 17, 506–521.
- Power, J. L., Brotheridge, C. M., Blenkinsopp, J., Bowes-Sperry, L., Bozionelos, N., Buzady, Z., et al. (2013). Acceptability of workplace bullying: A comparative study on six continents. *Journal of Business Research*, 66, 374–380.
- Redding, S. G. (1990). *The spirit of Chinese capitalism*. Berlin: Walter De Gruyter.
- Schein, E. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schwartz, S. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 25, pp. 1–65). New York: Academic Press.
- Schwartz, S. H. (2004). Mapping and interpreting cultural differences around the world. In H. Vinken, J. Soeters, & P. Ester (Eds.), *Comparing cultures: Dimensions of culture in a comparative perspectives* (pp. 43–73). Leiden, NL: Brill.
- Schwartz, S. H., Melech, G., Lehmann, A., Burgess, S., Harris, M., & Owens, V. (2001). Extending the cross-cultural validity of the theory of basic human values with a different method of measurement. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 32, 519–542.
- Singelis, T. M., Triandis, H. C., Bhawuk, D., & Gelfand, M. J. (1995). Horizontal and vertical dimensions of individualism and collectivism: A theoretical and measurement refinement. *Cross-Cultural Research*, 29(3), 241–275.
- Smith, P. B. (2006). When elephants fight, the grass gets trampled: The GLOBE and Hofstede projects. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37, 915–921.
- Smith, P. B. (2008). Indigenous aspects of management. In P. B. Smith, M. F. Peterson, & D. Thomas (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural management research* (pp. 319–332). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Smith, P. B., Fischer, R., Vignoles, V. L., & Bond, M. H. (2013). *Understanding social psychology across cultures: Engaging with others in a changing world*. London: Sage.
- Smith, P. B., Peterson, M. F., & Thomason, S. (2011). National culture as a moderator of the relationship between managers' use of guidance sources and how well work events are handled. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 42, 1101–1121.
- Stephan, U., & Uhlaner, L. M. (2010). Performance-based vs socially supportive culture: A cross-national study of descriptive norms and entrepreneurship. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 41, 1347–1364.
- Sully de Luque, M., & Javidan, M. (2004). Uncertainty avoidance. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 602–653). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Taras, V., Kirkman, B. L., & Steel, P. (2010). Examining the impact of *Culture's Consequences*: A three-decade, multilevel, meta-analytic review of Hofstede's cultural value dimensions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(3), 405–439.

- Taras, V., Steel, P., & Kirkman, B. (2010). Negative practice-value correlations in the GLOBE data: Unexpected findings, questionnaire limitations and research directions. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *41*, 1330–1338.
- Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (1998). *Riding the waves of culture* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Van de Vijver, F. J. R., & Fischer, R. (2009). Improving methodological robustness in cross-cultural organizational research. In R. S. Bhagat & R. M. Steers (Eds.), *Handbook of culture, organizations, and work* (pp. 491–517). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Vecchi, A., & Brennan, L. (2011). Quality management: A cross-cultural perspective based on the GLOBE framework. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, *31*(5), 527–553.
- Venaik, S., & Brewer, P. (2010). Avoiding uncertainty in Hofstede and GLOBE. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *41*, 1294–1315.
- Wanasika, I., Howell, J. P., Littrell, R., & Dorfman, P. (2011). Managerial leadership and culture in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Journal of World Business*, *46*, 234–241.
- Williams, J. E., & Best, D. L. (1982). *Measuring sex stereotypes: A thirty nation study*. Berkeley, CA: Sage.
- Williams, J. E., & Best, D. L. (1990a). *Measuring sex stereotypes: A multi-nation study*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Williams, J. E., & Best, D. L. (1990b). *Sex and psyche: Gender and self viewed cross-culturally*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Yang, K. S. (1988). Will societal modernization eventually eliminate cross-cultural psychological differences? In M. Bond (Ed.), *The cross-cultural challenge to social psychology* (pp. 67–85). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Chapter 4

Structuring Successful Global Virtual Teams

Stephanie A. Miloslavic, Jessica L. Wildman, and Amanda L. Thayer

When asked to think of a twenty-first century organization, what comes to mind? If asked to list ten adjectives to describe today's organizations, it's likely that one or more of those descriptors would be "global," or "virtual." Indeed, it is becoming increasingly common for organizational employees to belong to one or more teams whose members are geographically dispersed and potentially spanning the globe. With technology advancement, geographical and time zone differences no longer prevent employees from working together. Thus, organizations have greater potential to expand across nations and work with international partners, making global teams more prevalent in the workplace.

Global teams refer to groups that work in geographically dispersed environments that are heterogeneous on a number of dimensions such as nationality and cultural diversity (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999; Maloney & Zellmer-Bruhn, 2006). Teams are utilized in organizations in order to more effectively complete complex tasks that are beyond the scope of what an individual could reasonably accomplish. In particular, teams provide an increased capacity for workload and human capital. Global teams can further build on these advantages by leveraging diversity to increase innovation (Gibson & Gibbs, 2006). However, members and leaders must also be mindful of

S.A. Miloslavic, Ph.D. (✉)
National Aeronautics and Space Administration, Kennedy Space Center,
Cape Canaveral, FL 32899, USA
e-mail: Stephanie.Miloslavic@nasa.gov

J.L. Wildman, Ph.D.
School of Psychology and Institute for Cross Cultural Management,
Florida Institute of Technology, 150 W. University Blvd, Melbourne, FL 32901, USA
e-mail: jwildman@fit.edu

A.L. Thayer
Department of Psychology and Institute for Simulation and Training,
University of Central Florida, 3100 Technology Parkway, Orlando, FL 32826, USA
e-mail: athayer@ist.ucf.edu

the potential problems that can arise from sociocultural differences in order to ensure this diversity translates into effective teamwork and organizational outcomes. Therefore, there is a need for organizational leaders to understand the complexities of global teams as well as how they might differ from domestic teams in order to set the conditions for team effectiveness (Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, & Cohen, 2012).

When compared to traditional or conventional teams, organizational leaders may not initially believe that global teams are very different. However, the complexity of collaborating with global team members is not exaggerated. Traditional teams tend to take for granted informal interactions such as eating lunch together or running into another individual in the hall. However, these off-task interactions and information exchanges play an important role in developing relationships by building cohesiveness and trust. Unfortunately, these types of exchanges are rarely possible for global team members to experience, given most interactions are task focused and typically mediated by virtual tools. Because of these inherent challenges, organizational leaders must carefully consider the team's structure and characteristics when designing global virtual teams. Wildman et al. (2012) recognized the importance of considering the structure and function of teams and developed two theoretical organizing frameworks to enhance classification: (1) an integrated set of task types that categorizes the types of work that many teams complete and (2) an integrated set of team-level characteristics that describes the nature of the team itself independent of the work being completed. The integrated set of team-level characteristics is particularly important when structuring global teams, since some team-level structural characteristics may be more or less appropriate across cultures, time zones, and technologies.

Accordingly, the primary purpose of this chapter is to summarize the theoretical and empirical research on team structural elements in global teams and synthesize this literature into useful recommendations for organizations seeking to make decisions regarding the structure and design of global teams. First, we will discuss the defining characteristics that are likely to exist in what we refer to as global teams (e.g., distribution, multiple cultures, time zone differences, etc.). Second, we will review the Wildman et al. (2012) framework of team-level characteristics. Third, theoretical and empirical research discussing the influence of these structural characteristics on global teams and practical recommendations for global team leaders will be provided by using the team-level characteristics framework as a basis for the suggestions.

Global Teams

In an effort to provide more useful and practical recommendations to organizations and organizational leaders, research across several areas will be integrated. Specifically, theoretical and empirical work on the following topics will be combined: global teams, virtual teams, multicultural teams, distributed teams, team

diversity, and team structure. Virtual teams are comprised of individuals that are geographically and/or organizationally dispersed, working together through telecommunication in order to accomplish organizational tasks (Townsend, DeMarie, & Hendrickson, 1998). Multicultural teams can be defined as, “a group of people from different cultures, with a joint deliverable for the organization or another stakeholder” (Stahl, Mäkelä, Zander, & Maznevski, 2010, p. 439). Distributed teams refer to “groups of geographically dispersed employees with a common goal carrying out interdependent tasks using mostly technology for communication and collaboration” (Bosch-Sijtsema, Ruohomäki, & Vartiainen, 2009, p. 534). Finally, team diversity refers to an aggregate construct that, “represents differences among members of an interdependent work group with respect to a specific personal attribute” (Joshi & Roh, 2009). Diversity may refer to task-oriented or relation-oriented diversity (Joshi & Roh, 2009), as well as surface-level and deep-level attributes (Bell, 2007).

One of the most important factors that can be used to describe a global team is its level of team virtuality. Team virtuality is defined as the extent to which team members use virtual tools to coordinate and execute team processes, the amount of informational value provided by such tools, and the synchronicity of team member virtual interaction (Kirkman & Mathieu, 2005). Kirkman and Mathieu (2005) proposed three dimensions of virtuality, including (a) extent of reliance on virtual tools, (b) informational value, and (c) synchronicity. Extent of reliance of virtual tools refers to the level of interaction among team members that takes place virtually. Teams may interact entirely through virtual media, schedule periodic face-to-face meetings, or conduct all task work face to face without the use of virtual tools. The vast majority of global teams complete their work primarily via the use of virtual tools. Informational value concerns the value of the communications sent or received through virtual teams for team effectiveness. When members employ technologies that convey rich and valuable information (e.g., visual social cues such as facial expressions) their exchanges are considered to be *less* virtual. Although global teams generally do use virtual tools, the informational value of those tools can vary from very little (e.g., email) to a lot (e.g., video conferencing). Finally, global teams can vary in their level of synchronicity, or the degree to which a team’s exchange of information is synchronous (i.e., in real time; chat or teleconferencing) versus asynchronous (i.e., delayed; email; Goel, Sharda, & Taniar, 2003; Pinelle, Dyck, & Gutwin, 2003). Team virtuality is not simply the reliance on or use of virtual tools, but the notion that different virtual technologies offer different (dis)advantages relative to team effectiveness (Kirkman & Mathieu, 2005).

In global teams, members also often differ in their cultural backgrounds and identities. Culture is defined as the assumptions people hold about relationships with each other and the environment that are shared among an identifiable group of people (e.g., team, organization, nation) and manifest in individuals’ values, beliefs, norms for social behavior, and artifacts (Gibson, Maznevski, & Kirkman, 2009). Cultural dimensions describe the values of a group’s members and how these values relate to behavior (Hofstede, 1984). Cultural values are particularly important in team settings because they have implications for shaping teamwork attitudes

(e.g., trust, cohesion), cognitions (e.g., shared mental models), and behaviors (e.g., information exchange, backup behavior; Shuffler, DiazGranados, & Salas, 2011) such as communication and conflict management (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010). Numerous taxonomies of cultural values have been proposed (e.g., Hofstede, 1980, 2001; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Trompenaars, 1993). Generally speaking, these models suggest that cultures can vary in terms of their distribution of power and authority in society, centrality of individuals or groups as the basis of social relationships, people's relationship with their environment, use of time, and mechanisms of personal and social control (Nardon & Steers, 2009). When determining how to structure and design global teams, organizational leaders should take culture into account to ensure that the team structure and norms match cultural values and norms to the extent possible.

Although various types of teams have been distinguished in previous work (e.g., Bell & Kozlowski), we suggest that it is more useful to highlight the similarities between team types. Global teams share several common characteristics with virtual, multicultural, distributed, and diverse teams. These common attributes include, but are not limited to, geographical distribution, cultural diversity between team members, time zone differences, and reliance on electronic communication. Thus, we view these types of teams as analogous enough that they can be discussed together under the overarching term of "global teams."

Integrated Team-Level Characteristics

In an effort to synthesize prior research and provide a tool to inform team-oriented practitioners and researchers, Wildman et al. (2012) developed an integrated set of team-level characteristics that describe core team structural attributes. This set of higher level attributes is meant to describe the basic structure and nature of teams at any single snapshot in time. This set of characteristics includes task interdependence, role structure, leadership structure, communication structure, physical distribution, and team lifespan (defined in more detail below). Each of these attributes is further defined by discrete, mutually exclusive categories. For instance, when describing a team's interdependence, it could be considered either pooled or intensive, but not both. Table 4.1 provides an overview of each of the team-level characteristics. We now further discuss each of these team characteristics in the context of global teams and provide a practical set of recommendations for leaders of global teams.

Task Interdependence

Task interdependence refers to the extent to which outcomes of the team members are influenced by, or depend on, the actions of others. Based on the taxonomy proposed by Saavedra, Earley, and Van Dyne (1993), Wildman et al. (2012)

Table 4.1 Integrated set of team-level characteristics

Characteristic	Description	Discrete categories
Task interdependence	The extent to which outcomes of the team members are influenced by, or depend on, the actions of others	Pooled, sequential, reciprocal, intensive
Role structure	The extent to which roles are fundamentally different and therefore not interchangeable or each person is capable of performing every component	Functional, divisional
Leadership structure	The pattern, or distribution, of leadership functions such as setting direction and aligning goals among the members of the team	External manager, designated, temporary, distributed
Communication structure	The pattern, or flow, of communication and information sharing among the members of the team	Hub and wheel, star, chain
Physical distribution	The spatial location of the team members in reference to one another	Collocated, distributed, mixed
Team lifespan	The length of time for which the team exists as a functional, active unit	Ad hoc, long term

specified four levels of task interdependence: pooled, sequential, reciprocal, and intensive. In pooled task interdependence, each member contributes to the outcome without any direct interaction with other team members. Sequential task interdependence is similar to an assembly line in that interactions move in one direction and each team member must act prior to the next member. Reciprocal task interdependence is characterized by team members working in one-on-one interactions with other team members. Finally, intensive task interdependence is characterized by collaboration between all team members in an effort to achieve desired outcomes.

In general, acknowledging the level of interdependence within a global team is important because the way in which team attitudes and behaviors translate into performance often depends on the level of task interdependence (Barrick, Bradley, & Colbert, 2007). For instance, in traditional teams, interdependence moderates the process–performance relationship. That is, cohesion and open communication are more related to performance (i.e., are more important) when the task interdependence is high (Barrick et al., 2007). In other words, because the team members are heavily reliant on one another to accomplish the team’s goals, it is very important for them to develop close bonds and to communicate effectively. However, when interdependence is low, cohesion and open communication are not as necessary and are less predictive of performance. Furthermore, task interdependence also interacts with team efficacy (i.e., the collective belief of group members in their capacity to execute a course of action that will result in a certain level of performance; Bandura, 1997) in predicting team performance. That is, when task interdependence is high, team collective efficacy emerges as a predictor of team performance. However, when task interdependence is low, collective efficacy does not predict team performance (Katz-Navon & Erez, 2005). Generally, high levels of interdependence intensify the impact of team processes on performance.

This moderating effect of task interdependence on the relationship between key team processes and performance is critical to consider in global teams because it is

often more difficult to perform these processes in virtual work settings. Therefore, if a global team is highly task interdependent, it must focus more on building relationships in order to increase cohesion, build trust, and develop shared views across cultural, organizational, and national borders (Kelley, 2001). This relationship building is often engaged in through periodic face-to-face or telephone conversations. If possible, face-to-face meetings should be set up in the early stages of the team's lifespan in order to facilitate strong relationship building as well as reduced conflict in the future. In global teams, where it is easy to feel disconnected from other team members, it is all the more important to consider interdependence in order to appropriately leverage team benefits. The task interdependence in global teams ranges from low to high (Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000), which suggests that pooled, sequential, reciprocal, and intensive interdependence structures are all possible within global teams. As task interdependence increases, it becomes more important for the team to put extra effort into developing the key processes and emergent states such as cohesion, trust, and effective communication in order to ensure optimal team performance.

Researchers have also previously suggested that global team effectiveness depends on the alignment of task demands with the communication technology used by teams (Strauss & McGrath, 1994). Indeed, empirical research has found that global team performance depends on the fit between the nature of the task and the synchrony of communication (Rico & Cohen, 2005). The synchrony of communication is conceptualized as a continuum where degree of synchrony refers to the extent to which the technology used in team communication facilitates teams working together in the same space and time. In other words, a highly synchronous tool may be a videoconference call, where as an asynchronous tool may be an email. In the Rico and Cohen study, performance was not significantly different under two conditions: high interdependence and synchronous communication and low interdependence and asynchronous communications (Rico & Cohen). However, as a whole, performance was better for teams using synchronous communication tools. In the context of global teams, synchronicity is further challenged by time zone differences. If teams are operating across the globe, there may be few times when the entire team can meet via videoconference or other synchronous methods, unless some team members operate during nonprime work hours. In this situation, it is beneficial for team cohesion to "share the burden" and rotate the meeting schedule so that it is not always the same people or person that is required to either work late or get up early.

In sum, under high task interdependence conditions, global teams should attempt to utilize synchronous, rich media to the extent possible, and supplement with asynchronous methods (e.g., email) as needed. However, the literature suggests that under low task interdependence conditions, communication, cohesion, and other aspects of teamwork are less influential for performance, and therefore face-to-face interactions or rich synchronous media may be less important.

Recommendation 1: For highly interdependent global teams, utilize synchronous communication tools that allow increased face-to-face interaction to promote teamwork behaviors and attitudes and supplement with less rich media as needed. For less interdependent teams, less synchronous communication tools may be sufficient.

Role Structure

Role structure refers to the extent to which roles are fundamentally different and therefore not interchangeable. Wildman et al. (2012) specified two different types of role structure: functional and divisional. A functional role structure is one in which each role within the team serves a distinct role and team members are not interchangeable, whereas a divisional role structure is one in which the roles are similar and therefore members are more interchangeable. In other words, members of a team with functional role structures perform fundamentally different, specialized roles. Alternatively, members of a team with divisional role structures are able to perform any and all pieces of the overall task, but focus on one particular task at a time.

Both functional and divisional role structures are certainly possible within global teams. Global teams often allow for more flexible organizational responses, meaning that the potential exists for these types of teams to be more dynamic than traditional teams (Townsend et al., 1998). The role structure of the team will be primarily influenced by two factors: (1) the scope of the project and (2) the complexity of the work necessary to complete the project. The scope of the project impacts the necessary role structure, such that a divisional role structure is appropriate for teams working on a single-disciplinary project. Alternatively, in a multidisciplinary environment, a functional role structure is necessary. In a similar vein, the role structure of the team will also be influenced by the complexity of the tasks that must be completed. For instance, low complexity tasks are more interchangeable compared to those that are more complex and challenging and require a combination of specialized knowledge and skills (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). Tasks with greater complexity require more training, specialization, and expertise, and therefore inherently require a functional role structure.

One additional component that creates complexity stems from holding multiple roles. Team members may hold multiple roles across different global teams, which increases the likelihood that individuals will experience role ambiguity and role conflict (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). Role ambiguity refers to vague and unclear expectations being set for employees, such that they are uncertain what is expected of them (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Role conflict refers to contradictory expectations from coworkers that create difficulty in task progress and completion (Katz & Kahn, 1978). For both of these role stressors, negative relationships have been found with job satisfaction and organizational commitment and positive relationships have been found with emotional exhaustion, tension, and anxiety (Fried, Shirom, Gilboa, & Cooper, 2008; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006). Additionally, role stressors have been found to be negatively associated with task performance (Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008) and organizational citizenship behaviors (i.e., discretionary behavior that benefits organizations and employees by improving the social and psychological context; Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic, & Johnson, 2011), reinforcing the negative outcomes associated with role stressors.

Therefore, reducing the role stressors as much as possible in global teams is essential. Research has found that a primary method through which role ambiguity

and conflict can be reduced is by clearly specifying each member's role in the team (Kozlowski, Gully, Nason, & Smith, 1999). In the case of global teams, leaders will need to find ways to clearly communicate the intended role structure (i.e., functional or divisional) through the use of virtual communication tools. A functional role structure will be less challenging to keep clear, given each team member will have a distinct and specialized role. A divisional role structure, however, may tend toward higher levels of ambiguity and global team leaders will need to be careful to monitor team performance to ensure no role overlap or redundancy occurs.

Different role structures are more or less suitable depending on situational constraints (Hollenbeck et al., 2002; Moon et al., 2004), including (a) the predictability of an environment and (b) the interdependency requirement. In an unstable, random, and unpredictable environment, changes constantly occur. In these types of situations, a divisional role structure may be more appropriate because it promotes flexibility within the team. In particular, teams may benefit from the development of shared mental models (i.e., collective knowledge that team members have in common) within divisional role structures. Conversely, in a stable and predictable environment, changes and random events rarely occur. In these types of situations, a functional role structure may be more appropriate because it promotes efficiency by reducing redundancy and developing high levels of expertise for each team member. In particular, under stable conditions teams can benefit from the development of transactive memory systems, where there is a collective awareness within the team of "who knows what." Indeed, empirical research supports this, suggesting that divisional role structures outperform functional role structures in unpredictable situations, whereas functional role structures outperform divisional role structures in predictable situations (Hollenbeck et al., 2002).

Generally speaking, global teams may be less predictable than traditional teams. Namely, global teams are subject to a wider range of challenges that can greatly impair teamwork and team outcomes. For instance, global teams must rely on computer-mediated communications in order to communicate and coordinate. As such, if there is a technology failure that prevents communication among members, the team must be able to adapt in order to perform the team's task. Furthermore, time zone differences and different cultural norms regarding holidays may prevent particular team members from working during certain times. Team members may need to engage in backup behavior in order to complete the task in the face of these time zone and cultural differences. In this case, a divisional structure may be more appropriate for global teams, to the extent possible given the task at hand.

The interdependency requirement within a team may also determine the most appropriate role structure. In other words, given that long-term teams may exist for the duration of an organization's life, the types of projects completed by team members may vary to a great extent. In order to provide maximum efficiency, the change in project types may necessitate a change in role structure. For instance, a functional role structure promotes high levels of task interdependency. Research has shown that, when necessary, team members in a functional role structure are able to switch to a divisional role structure; however, team members in a divisional role structure are not able to successfully change to a functional role structure, even when the environment required a change (Hollenbeck et al., 2002; Moon et al., 2004).

The reasoning behind this is that norms of high communication and backing-up behavior exist within functional role structures due to their high interdependence. Team members are able to leverage these dynamics and successfully adapt to a divisional role structure. However, in the context of global teams, cultural values may influence the extent to which this adaptation is seen as a viable and effective option. For instance, in high power distance cultures that value hierarchy, individuals are socialized to comply with their roles and are sanctioned if they do not (Schwartz, 1994). As such, individuals who hold these values may be resistant to adapting to a divisional role, seeing this as a weakness. Therefore, organizational leaders must consider the cultural values of their global teams when structuring roles.

Recommendation 2: Because global teams are operating in often unpredictable and dynamic environments, utilize divisional role structures, unless the task is highly complex or multi-disciplinary in scope in which case a functional role structure may be more appropriate.

Leadership Structure

Leadership structure refers to the pattern or distribution of leadership functions, such as setting direction and aligning goals, among the members of the team. Wildman et al. (2012) specified four common patterns of leadership structure: external manager, designated leader, temporary leadership, and distributed leadership. Gibb, Gilbert, and Lindzey (1954) described two basic forms of team leadership: focused leadership, in which the leadership resides in a single individual, and distributed leadership, in which two or more individuals share roles and responsibilities. The forms of leadership structure described in Wildman et al. (2012) range from more traditional focused leadership (i.e., external; designated) to distributed leadership (i.e., temporary; distributed). Specifically, external and designated leadership are structures that represent more formal, individually focused team leadership. An external manager refers to a leadership structure in which an individual outside of the team fulfills the leadership responsibilities, but is not otherwise a member of the team. A designated team leader is a team member who performs all of the leadership responsibilities and also is involved in the primary team task. In both leadership structures, only one individual holds the leadership responsibilities.

Temporary and distributed leadership are forms of what is known as shared leadership. Shared leadership can be defined as an interactive process in groups in which team members lead one another to achieve the group's goals (Pearce & Conger, 2003). Leadership can be shared over time or concurrently. Teams can temporarily designate one individual to perform as the leader and rotate leadership to others over time or based on the particular task at hand. This can be referred to as temporary or rotated leadership (Erez, LePine, & Elms, 2002). Finally, distributed leadership refers to a scenario in which several team members perform leadership responsibilities simultaneously. For instance, one team member could be assigned to a specific leadership function such as planning, whereas another team member could be assigned to confidence building and team member motivation.

Some research has directly compared the utility of vertical (i.e., individual) leadership and shared leadership in virtual teams. Solansky (2008) examined the leadership structure of student work teams and found that teams that exhibited high levels of shared leadership (i.e., at least 50 % of team members identified multiple leaders) had higher collective efficacy and better transactive memory than teams that engaged in single leadership (i.e., teams that identified only one leader). Pearce and Sims (2002) found that both vertical and shared leadership contribute uniquely to team effectiveness. However, shared leadership was a stronger predictor of team effectiveness than vertical leadership. Similarly, Muethel, Siebdrat, and Hoegl (2012) demonstrated that self-reported shared leadership behaviors predicted team performance in distributed software development teams. In terms of the type of shared leadership, shared transformational and empowering leadership were beneficial but shared aversive and directive leadership were harmful for performance (Pearce & Sims, 2002). In a study of leadership networks, Carson, Tesluk, and Marrone (2007) found that teams with more dense shared leadership (i.e., more team members involved in leadership) had higher performance. Leadership delegation has also been positively linked to team satisfaction (Zhang et al., 2009).

Taken as a whole, the research generally suggests that both vertical and shared leadership are beneficial, but that the sharing of leadership functions may play a particularly important role for global virtual teams. Shuffler, Wiese, Salas, and Burke (2010) suggest that shared leadership is especially important for virtual teams because the physical separation between the team's leader and the other team members makes it necessary to distribute leadership functions in order to ensure they are being completed. Sharing leadership is also beneficial for virtual teams because it helps team members develop a stronger bond and a better understanding of each team member's responsibilities, strengths, and weaknesses. Sharing leadership also likely empowers each team member to feel a sense of contribution to the team's overall success.

By suggesting that global virtual teams should engage in shared leadership, we are not saying that vertical leadership should not be used as well. There is a close relationship between vertical and shared leadership (Pearce & Sims, 2002). Strong vertical leadership is helpful, if not necessary, for encouraging the distribution and sharing of leadership functions. In other words, to get leadership functions distributed across global virtual team members, a directive vertical leader may need to orchestrate that distribution. For example, Heckman, Crowston, and Misiolek (2007) argue for a second-order model of shared leadership in virtual teams. They suggest that effective virtual teams will have a combination of shared first-order leadership complemented by a strong centralized (or focused) second-order leadership. First-order leadership is meant to maintain existing structures and procedures whereas second-order leadership is meant to modify and adapt team structures. This theory therefore suggests that because first-order leadership is focused on maintaining the more predictable, established norms and behaviors within the team, it can be effectively shared among team members. However, because second-order leadership is focused on transformation and adaptation, it requires strong leadership from one individual to manage those change processes. Therefore, we suggest that global

virtual teams may benefit from distributing the routine, daily leadership functions among team members while assigning one designated leader for enacting and overseeing any transformational activities. Carte, Chidambaram, and Becker (2006) supported this notion of second-order leadership by finding that focusing performance-related leadership but sharing monitoring-related leadership led to higher performance in self-managed virtual teams.

Ocker, Huang, Benbunan-Fich, and Hiltz (2011) found via qualitative research that teams with shared leadership had a stronger awareness of member capabilities and this positively influenced performance. In other words, it appears that the sharing of leadership responsibilities across team members is related to a higher quality transactive memory system, which improves performance. It was also found that emergent leadership, or self-initiated leadership not formally assigned by the organization, was more effective than assigned leadership. This is likely because the individuals that emerge as leaders are more likely to be highly motivated and therefore more effective leaders than individuals simply assigned to be leaders. By allowing leadership to emerge within the team, it increases the chance that the “right” person within the team will step into the leadership role. Research suggests that both the composition of the team and the communication mediums used can influence leadership emergence. Balthazard, Waldman, and Warren (2009) found that communication media that mimics face-to-face interactions (e.g., video conferencing) increased the emergence of transformational leadership in team members that were extraverted and emotionally stable. Cogliser, Gardner, Gavin, and Broberg (2012) found that agreeableness and conscientiousness were positively related to leadership emergence in virtual teams. Organizations can use selection procedures and work design to increase the likelihood that global virtual team members will naturally emerge as leaders, further encouraging the sharing of leadership across multiple team members.

Recommendation 3: Allow for the natural emergence of shared first-order leadership functions (i.e., individuals electing to take on leadership focused on maintaining existing structures and routine procedures) but concentrate second-order leadership functions (i.e., enacting and overseeing transformational activities and adaptation) within a single designated leader.

Communication Structure

Communication structure refers to the pattern, or flow, of communication and information sharing among the members of the team. Wildman et al. (2012) specified three different types of communication structures: hub-and-wheel, star, and chain. A hub-and-wheel communication structure refers to one in which communication passes through a single team member (often, but not necessarily the leader) before being circulated to other team members. A star communication structure refers to one in which information is freely passed between all team members. A chain communication structure refers to a hierarchical structure, where information is passed up and down the line of authority in a sequential manner.

The nature of effective communication in global teams differs in comparison to in-person teams. Specifically, in-person teams are provided the opportunity to pick up on nonverbal cues, whereas global team members are faced with a limited cue set (Cannon-Bowers & Bowers, 2011). These circumstances may generally reduce information sharing. Two primary types of information sharing exist: unique information sharing and open information sharing (Mesmer-Magnus, DeChurch, Jimenez-Rodriguez, Wildman, & Shuffler, 2011). Unique information sharing refers to the “variability in how many group members have access to a piece of information” (Hinsz, Tindale, & Vollrath, 1997, p. 54). Open information sharing refers to “the extent to which a team is overtly sharing information, unique and common alike” (Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2011, p. 216). A recent meta-analysis found that virtuality facilitates the sharing of unique information, but hinders open information sharing (Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2011). Additionally, the type of information sharing was investigated as a predictor of performance in global teams as well as face-to-face teams. Results suggest that open information sharing is more important than unique information sharing in global teams. Based on these results, it is likely most beneficial to encourage global teams to engage in both types of information sharing—unique and open.

The structure of communication is an important consideration in global teams given that information sharing between team members may be restricted in comparison to in-person teams. Specifically, the necessity to use mediating technology, differing work contexts, and geographical distance all contribute toward constraining knowledge sharing and shared understanding (Gibson & Cohen, 2003). Unfortunately, virtual team members may not anticipate which information is most important to share with their virtual counterparts or the extent to which sharing is impacted by using technology-mediated communication. Whereas collocated teams tend to share the same environment, this often is not the case with virtual teams. Therefore, greater task (i.e., information about how to carry out the task), social (i.e., information about team members and their relationships with each other), and contextual (i.e., information about the environment surrounding the task, team members, and teams) information should be communicated within virtual teams. However, research suggests that virtual team members do not anticipate these differences and tend to assume the other team members’ situations are similar. Indeed, research suggests that teams communicating through text-based media communicate more than 950 words less on average compared to face-to-face teams (Straus, 1996). In addition to physical proximity, one primary cause of restricted information sharing is due to the degree of synchronicity of communication tools. For instance, highly synchronous tools are those most similar to face-to-face interactions (e.g., videoconference calls), whereas asynchronous tools are most unlike face-to-face interactions (e.g., email).

Several communication challenges exist for global teams (Gibson & Cohen, 2003; Rosen, Furst, & Blackburn, 2007). Examples include (a) failure to receive important messages, (b) cultural differences in how frequently email is checked, (c) interpretation of silence, (d) levels of trust, (e) constraints on knowledge sharing, and (f) failure to develop a transactive memory system within the team (Cramton, 2001, 2002; Rosen et al., 2007). Especially in global virtual teams, it is unclear

whether or not a lack of response to an email is because a team member did not actually receive it or because they chose to ignore it. For example, incorrect or outdated email addresses may be added to a listserv or distribution list. If that is the case, other team members may believe that the individual has just chosen not to respond, though the issue is that they did not actually receive it. Additionally, the accessibility of Internet differs across nations, as do norms surrounding how often individuals check email. Whereas an American may be connected to their email 24 h per day, it may be custom for individuals in other cultures to check their email only once a day or every couple of days. As a result, a select subset of team members may communicate more frequently causing the team to become out of sync and potentially delaying progress. Furthermore, if some members of the team are silent, other team members may interpret silence as agreement, disagreement, or indifference.

Global teams also face several challenges associated with trust in teammates. This can be problematic, as levels of trust between team members may influence the quantity as well as quality of information that is shared among team members. However, a psychologically safe climate can be created by reinforcing all types of knowledge sharing between team members. Novel ideas should be acknowledged, asking for assistance should be encouraged, and constructive feedback should be provided between team members. Team members may produce constraints on knowledge sharing by hoarding information or encouraging team members to keep project details private. It is important for leaders to communicate the importance of a collaborative environment, clarify how each member contributes to that mission and vision, and recognize members for sharing knowledge. Finally, when a transactive memory system does not exist within a team, teams are not able to function to their maximum potential because team members are not aware of the expertise and experience held by team members. When team members initially meet, each member should provide information about their experiences, education, and any special expertise that they hold.

Recommendation 4: To promote sharing of open and unique information, provide rich, synchronous media; reinforce knowledge sharing and feedback; and promote discussion surrounding cultural norms associated with communication as well as members' experiences, education, and expertise.

Physical Distribution

Physical distribution refers to the spatial or geographic location of the team members in reference to one another. Wildman et al. (2012) specified three basic patterns of physical distribution: fully collocated, fully distributed, and mixed. Fully collocated physical distribution refers to situations in which all team members are located in close enough physical proximity to have regular face-to-face meetings. A fully distributed team refers to situations in which team members are located far enough apart in terms of physical proximity that most, if not all, communication occurs through some sort of telecommunication (e.g., computer, email, videoconference,

telephone, etc.). Finally, mixed physical distribution refers to situations in which a subset of team members is collated and a subset of team members is distributed and therefore a mix of face-to-face and virtual communication is used.

O'Leary and Cummings (2007) discuss team configuration as a particular framework for understanding more nuanced patterns of spatial distribution. This refers to the arrangement of team members across locations and includes three dimensions: the number of locations, the number of team members at each location, and the pattern of prescribed team roles across those locations. This framework is helpful for understanding the dynamics within partially distributed, also known as semivirtual, teams. Webster and Wong (2008) found that semivirtual teams had more positive perceptions of their local teammates compared to the distributed teammates, but there were no differences in perceptions between fully collocated and full virtual teams. In other words, the contrast that is directly perceived when an individual has both collocated and remote teammates led to the difference in perceptions regarding those two categories of teammates. Webster and Wong (2008) explain that this is due to the fact that the context of a semivirtual team brings into play stronger in-group/out-group biases compared to fully collocated or fully distributed teams. Privman, Hiltz, and Wang (2013) further demonstrate that in-group/out-group dynamics are stronger in partially distributed teams because there is an imbalance in the availability and use of communication channels between versus within the collocated and distributed subgroups. O'Leary and Mortensen (2010) found that having uneven subgroups across physical locations creates a competitive mentality that weakens team identity, leads to less effective transactive memory, exacerbates conflict, and hinders coordination. Furthermore, members of minority subgroups experienced significantly more problems than members of the majority subgroups.

This suggests that in order to develop a strong, cohesive team identity, global teams are better off being either fully collocated (although, clearly, this would be practically difficult to achieve) or fully and equally distributed. If, however, partial distribution is inevitable, team leaders need to monitor the team for formation of subgroup tensions and encourage frequent, consistent communication both within and between subgroups in the team. In sum, the pattern of physical distribution can have a significant impact on the processes and performance of global virtual teams. The ideal pattern is to have a relatively even distribution of team members across the various locations or sites rather than having uneven numbers of team members at different locations.

Ocker et al. (2011) further suggest that the number of members per geographic location and the location of the team leader(s) can become challenges for global virtual teams. Specifically, large geographically separated subgroups can be difficult to manage especially if the leader of the team exists within a smaller geographically separated subgroup. The geographic distance between the subgroups creates in-group/out-group dynamics, and because one of the subgroups has more members than the other, it may have a tendency to feel more power and control over the entire team's decisions. This can result in a situation in which the assigned team leader struggles to maintain authority and power over members from a large subgroup that do not identify with the team as a whole as much as they identify within the subgroup.

From a composition standpoint, managers of global virtual teams should strive to form teams that have small, relatively equally sized subgroups at each of the geographic locations. Furthermore, they should be careful to ensure that the team leader, to the extent possible, is situated in a subgroup that does not put them at a power disadvantage.

Recommendation 5: To the extent possible, construct global teams that are fully collocated or fully distributed. If that is not possible, strive for equally sized subgroups across geographic locations; encourage active and equal communication within and between geographic locations; and ensure the leader is physically positioned in a subgroup that is equal to or larger than the others.

Team Lifespan

Team lifespan refers to the length of time for which the team exists as a functional, active unit. Wildman et al. (2012) specified two different types of team lifespans: ad hoc and long term. An ad hoc team is a team that is designed to perform a specific short-term task and then subsequently disband, whereas a long-term team refers to one in which the team is intact and exists for the purpose of completing an unspecified or unlimited number of tasks, rather than a single time-limited task. In related work, Saunders and Ahuja (2006) developed a framework for examining distributed teams based on their lifespan. They differentiate between temporary distributed teams and ongoing distributed teams, and generally argue that the two types of teams will experience very different processes and outcomes. In this framework, teams are differentiated based on the perceived lifespan of the team's tasks rather than based on an absolute unit of time. Temporary distributed teams engage in only a few tasks to accomplish their overall goal, and then they are disbanded. Ongoing distributed teams, on the other hand, engage in a variety of tasks in order to accomplish many, or recurring, goals. This corresponds very closely with the definition of ad hoc and long-term teams given by Wildman et al. (2012).

Ongoing distributed teams are expected to differ from temporary distributed teams in several ways. Ongoing team members expect future interaction beyond the proximal task at hand. Because they will have long-term expectations to continue working with the same group of team members into the foreseeable future, they will be more concerned about getting along with those team members and having a satisfactory experience than if they expected to disband after only a short time. Ongoing distributed teams are more likely to be concerned about team member satisfaction in general and are more likely to develop a group identity compared to temporary distributed teams. This also means that there is more time for relationship problems to develop as well, making the development of cohesion and positive attitudes very important for the long-term success of the team. Therefore, ongoing globally distributed teams will need to engage in more social development activities than temporary distributed teams.

Conversely, temporary virtual team members will anticipate disbanding after the team's goal is completed. This means they will be less concerned with team member

satisfaction with the team because they know it is not a permanent experience. Rather than focusing on interpersonal dynamics and team satisfaction, temporary virtual team members will be more focused on short-term goal attainment. Namely, because the goal of temporary teams is to complete the project or mission and then move on to other teams, the focus is on efficiency and effectiveness. Therefore, temporary distributed teams will not benefit as much from social development activities such as small talk or face-to-face “getting to know” meetings. In fact, these activities may be interpreted as time-wasting distractions in the context of the short-term mission or project, though this will be driven by cultural preferences as well. Instead, temporary virtual teams will benefit most from immediately setting norms and expectations regarding technology use, communication, and task work. By setting these norms as early as possible, the team can facilitate a faster and smoother transition into the task work necessary to complete the team’s goal. In other words, setting norms early allows the team to focus on proximal task completion since social interactions and team satisfaction are not valued in temporary settings.

Recommendation 6: When leading a newly formed global team, meet face to face in the beginning, if possible, and develop a charter consisting of team norms for technology use, communication, task work, roles, responsibilities, and individuals’ work preferences and practices. For ongoing distributed teams, encourage social development activities such as periodic face-to-face meetings and socially oriented communication.

Summary and Conclusion

There is no question as to whether or not global teams are becoming more common in the workplace. As organizations work more frequently with customers across the globe, the necessity of effective global teams has become apparent. However, global teams actively face a variety of challenges due to geographic dispersion, cultural differences, and the reliance on technology for communication. These factors can hinder the development of cohesion and trust, and ultimately impact team performance and the bottom line for global organizations. Despite these challenges, global teams can create immense opportunities for organizational success if designed and implemented with these challenges in mind.

Therefore, in this chapter we sought to combine and interpret research on global teams, virtual teams, multicultural teams, distributed teams, and diversity into practical recommendations that organizations can use as a guide in the structure and design of global teams. We utilized Wildman et al. (2012) team-level characteristics framework as a means of organizing our recommendations. In doing so, we identified six practical recommendations regarding task interdependence, role structure, leadership structure, communication structure, physical distribution, and team lifespan. It is our hope that organizational leaders seek to apply these recommendations and find this compilation of composition-related research helpful in developing successful global teams (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Practical recommendations

Team characteristic	Recommendation
Task interdependence	For highly interdependent global teams, utilize synchronous communication tools that allow increased face-to-face interaction to promote teamwork behaviors and attitudes and supplement with less rich media as needed. For less interdependent teams, less synchronous communication tools may be sufficient
Role structure	Because global teams are operating in often unpredictable and dynamic environments, utilize divisional role structures, unless the task is highly complex or multidisciplinary in scope in which case a functional role structure may be more appropriate
Leadership structure	Allow for the natural emergence of shared first-order leadership functions (i.e., individuals electing to take on leadership focused on maintaining existing structures and routine procedures) but concentrate second-order leadership functions (i.e., enacting and overseeing transformational activities and adaptation) within a single designated leader
Communication structure	To promote sharing of open and unique information, provide rich, synchronous media; reinforce knowledge sharing and feedback; and promote discussion surrounding cultural norms associated with communication as well as members' experiences, education, and expertise
Physical distribution	To the extent possible, construct global teams that are fully collocated or fully distributed. If that is not possible, strive for equally sized subgroups across geographic locations; encourage active and equal communication within and between geographic locations; and ensure the leader is physically positioned in a subgroup that is equal to or larger than the others
Lifespan	When leading a newly formed global team, meet face to face in the beginning, if possible, and develop a charter consisting of team norms for technology use, communication, task work, roles, responsibilities, and individuals' work preferences and practices. For ongoing distributed teams, encourage social development activities such as periodic face-to-face meetings and socially oriented communication

Acknowledgements This research was supported by the United States Army Research Laboratory and the United States Army Research Office under Grant W911NF-08-1-0144. The views in this work are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect official Army policy.

References

- Balthazard, P. A., Waldman, D. A., & Warren, J. E. (2009). Predictors of the emergence of transformational leadership in virtual decision teams. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20, 651–663.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W.H. Freeman.
- Barrick, M. R., Bradley, B. H., & Colbert, A. E. (2007). The moderating role of top management team interdependence: Implications for real teams and working groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(3), 544–557.
- Bell, S. T. (2007). Deep-level composition variables as predictors of team performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(3), 595–615.

- Bell, B. S., & Kozlowski, S. W. J. (2002). A typology of virtual teams: Implications for effective leadership. *Group and Organization Management*, 27(1), 14–49.
- Bosch-Sijtsema, P. M., Ruohomäki, V., & Vartiainen, M. (2009). Knowledge work productivity in distributed teams. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 13(6), 533–546.
- Cannon-Bowers, J. A., & Bowers, C. (2011). Team development and functioning. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Vol. 1: Building and developing the organization* (pp. 597–650). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Carson, J. B., Tesluk, P. E., & Marrone, J. A. (2007). Shared leadership in teams: An investigation of antecedent conditions and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(5), 1217–1234.
- Carte, T. A., Chidambaram, L., & Becker, A. (2006). Emergent leadership in self-managed virtual teams. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 15(4), 323–343.
- Cogliser, C. C., Gardner, W. L., Gavin, M. B., & Broberg, J. C. (2012). Big five personality factors and leader emergence in virtual teams: Relationships with team trustworthiness, member performance contributions, and team performance. *Group and Organization Management*, 37(6), 752–784.
- Cramton, C. D. (2001). The mutual knowledge problem and its consequences for dispersed collaboration. *Organizational Science*, 12(3), 346–371.
- Cramton, C. D. (2002). Finding common ground in dispersed collaboration. *Organizational Dynamics*, 30(4), 356–367.
- Eatough, E. M., Chang, C.-H., Miloslavic, S. A., & Johnson, R. E. (2011). Relationships of role stressors with organizational citizenship behavior: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(3), 619–632.
- Erez, A., LePine, J. A., & Elms, H. (2002). Effects of rotated leadership and peer evaluation on the functioning and effectiveness of self-managed teams: A quasi-experiment. *Personnel Psychology*, 55, 929–948.
- Fried, Y., Shirom, A., Gilboa, S., & Cooper, C. L. (2008). The mediating effects of job satisfaction and propensity to leave on role-stress—job performance relationships: Combining meta-analysis and structural equation modeling. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 15(4), 305–328.
- Gibb, C. A., Gilbert, D. T., & Lindzey, G. (1954). *Leadership*. New York: Wiley.
- Gibson, C. B., & Cohen, S. G. (Eds.). (2003). *Virtual teams that work: Creating conditions for virtual team effectiveness*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Gibson, C. B., & Gibbs, J. L. (2006). Unpacking the concept of virtuality: The effects of geographic dispersion, electronic dependence, dynamic structure, and national diversity on team innovation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 51, 451–495.
- Gibson, C. B., Maznevski, M. L., & Kirkman, B. L. (2009). When does culture matter? In R. S. Bhagat & R. M. Steers (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of culture, organizations, and work* (pp. 46–68). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Gilboa, S., Shirom, A., Fried, Y., & Cooper, C. (2008). A meta-analysis of work demand stressors and job performance: Examining main and moderating effects. *Personnel Psychology*, 61, 227–271.
- Goel, S., Sharda, H., & Taniar, D. (2003). Messaging in distributed systems. *Computer Systems Science and Engineering*, 18, 339–355.
- Heckman, R., Crowston, K., & Misiolek, N. (2007). A structural perspective on leadership in virtual teams. *Virtuality and Virtualization*, pp. 151–168.
- Hinsz, V. B., Tindale, R. S., & Vollrath, D. A. (1997). The emerging conceptualization of groups as information processors. *Psychological Bulletin*, 121(1), 43–64.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture and organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 10, 15–41.
- Hofstede, G. H. (1984). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. H. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- Hollenbeck, J. R., Moon, H., Ellis, A. P. J., West, B. J., Ilgen, D. R., Sheppard, L., et al. (2002). Structural contingency theory and individual differences: Examination of external and internal person-team fit. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 599–606.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1985). A meta-analysis and conceptual critique of research on role ambiguity and role conflict in work settings. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 36*(1), 16–78.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., & Leidner, D. E. (1999). Communication and trust in global virtual teams. *Organizational Science, 10*(6), 791–815.
- Joshi, A., & Roh, H. (2009). The role of context in work team diversity research: A meta-analytic review. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*(3), 599–627.
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Katz-Navon, T. Y., & Erez, M. (2005). When collective- and self-efficacy affect team performance: The role of task interdependence. *Small Group Research, 36*(4), 437–465.
- Kelley, E. (2001). Keys to effective virtual global teams. *Academy of Management Executive, 15*(2), 132–133.
- Kirkman, B. L., & Mathieu, J. E. (2005). The dimensions and antecedents of team virtuality. *Journal of Management, 31*, 700–718.
- Kozlowski, S. W., Gully, S. M., Nason, E. R., & Smith, E. M. (1999). Developing adaptive teams: A theory of compilation and performance across levels and time. In D. R. Ilgen & E. D. Pulakos (Eds.), *The changing nature of performance: Implications for staffing, motivation, and development* (pp. 240–292). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Maloney, M. M., & Zellmer-Bruhn, M. E. (2006). Building bridges, windows and cultures: Mediating mechanisms between team heterogeneity and performance in global teams. *Management International Review, 46*(6), 697–720.
- Maznevski, M. L., & Chudoba, K. M. (2000). Bridging space over time: Global virtual team dynamics and effectiveness. *Organization Science, 11*(5), 473–492.
- Mesmer-Magnus, J. R., DeChurch, L. A., Jimenez-Rodriguez, M., Wildman, J., & Shuffler, M. (2011). A meta-analytic investigation of virtuality and information sharing in teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 115*, 214–225.
- Moon, H., Hollenbeck, J. R., Humphrey, S. E., Ilgen, D. R., West, B., Ellis, A. J., et al. (2004). Asymmetric adaptability: Dynamic team structures as one-way streets. *Academy of Management Journal, 47*, 681–695. doi:10.2307/20159611.
- Muethel, M., Siebdrat, F., & Hoegl, M. (2012). When do we really need interpersonal trust in globally dispersed new product development teams? *R & D Management, 42*(1), 31–46.
- Nardon, L., & Steers, R. M. (2009). The culture theory jungle: Divergence and convergence in models of national culture. In R. S. Bhagat & R. M. Steers (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of culture, organizations, and work* (pp. 3–22). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- O’Leary, M. B., & Cummings, J. N. (2007). The spatial, temporal, and configurational characteristics of geographic dispersion in teams. *MIS Quarterly, 31*, 433–452.
- O’Leary, M. B., & Mortensen, M. (2010). Go (con)figure: Subgroups, imbalance, and isolates in geographically dispersed teams. *Organizational Science, 21*(1), 115–131.
- Ocker, R. J., Huang, H., Benbunan-Fich, R., & Hiltz, S. R. (2011). Leadership dynamics in partially distributed teams: An exploratory study of the effects of configuration and distance. *Group Decision and Negotiation, 20*, 273–292.
- Örtqvist, D., & Wincent, J. (2006). Prominent consequences of role stress: A meta-analytic review. *International Journal of Stress Management, 13*(4), 399–422.
- Pearce, C. L., & Conger, J. A. (2003). All those years ago: The historical underpinnings of shared leadership. In C. L. Pearce & J. A. Conger (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (pp. 1–18). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Pearce, C. L., & Sims, H. P., Jr. (2002). Vertical versus shared leadership as predictors of the effectiveness of change management teams: An examination of aversive, directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering leader behaviors. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 6(2), 172–197.
- Pinelle, D., Dyck, J., & Gutwin, C. (2003). *Aligning work practices and mobile technologies: Groupware design for loosely coupled mobile groups*. Proceedings of the Human-Computer Interaction with Mobile Devices and Services Conference, Udine, Italy, pp. 177–192.
- Privman, R., Hiltz, S. R., & Wang, Y. (2013). In-group (us) versus out-group (them) dynamics and effectiveness in partially distributed teams. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, 56(1), 33–49.
- Rico, R., & Cohen, S. G. (2005). Effects of task interdependence and type of communication on performance in virtual teams. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 20, 261–274. doi:10.1108/02683940510589046.
- Rosen, B., Furst, S., & Blackburn, R. (2007). Overcoming barriers to knowledge sharing in virtual teams. *Organizational Dynamics*, 36(3), 259–273.
- Saavedra, R., Earley, P. C., & Van Dyne, L. (1993). Complex interdependence in task-performing groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(1), 61–72.
- Saunders, C. S., & Ahuja, M. K. (2006). Are all distributed teams the same? Differentiating between temporary and ongoing distributed teams. *Small Group Research*, 37(6), 662–700.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 25(1), 1–65.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Are there universal aspects in the structure and content of human values? *Journal of Social Issues*, 50(4), 19–45.
- Shuffler, M. L., DiazGranados, D., & Salas, E. (2011). There's a science for that: Team development interventions in organizations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 20(6), 365–372.
- Shuffler, M. L., Wiese, C. W., Salas, E., & Burke, C. S. (2010). Leading one another across time and space: Exploring shared leadership functions in virtual teams. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones*, 26(1), 3–17.
- Solansky, S. T. (2008). Leadership style and team processes in self-managed teams. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 14(4), 332–341.
- Stahl, G. K., Mäkelä, K., Zander, L., & Maznevski, M. L. (2010). A look at the bright side of multicultural team diversity. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 26, 439–447.
- Straus, S. G. (1996). Getting a clue: The effects of communication media and information distribution on participation and performance in computer-mediated and face-to-face groups. *Small Group Research*, 27(1), 115–142.
- Strauss, S. G., & McGrath, J. E. (1994). Does the medium matter? The interaction of task type and technology on group performance and member reactions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(1), 87–97.
- Tannenbaum, S. I., Mathieu, J. E., Salas, E., & Cohen, D. (2012). Teams are changing: Are research and practice evolving fast enough? *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 5, 2–24.
- Taras, V., Kirkman, B. L., & Steel, P. (2010). Examining the impact of *Culture's Consequences*: A three-decade, multilevel, meta-analytic review of Hofstede's cultural value dimensions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(3), 405–439.
- Townsend, A. M., DeMarie, S. M., & Hendrickson, A. R. (1998). Virtual teams: Technology and the workplace of the future. *Academy of Management Executive*, 12(3), 17–29.
- Trompenaars, F. (1993). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding cultural diversity in business*. London: The Economist Books.
- Webster, J., & Wong, W. K. P. (2008). Comparing traditional and virtual group forms: Identity, communication and trust in naturally occurring project teams. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(1), 41–62.

- Wildman, J. L., Thayer, A. L., Rosen, M. A., Salas, E., Mathieu, J. E., & Rayne, S. R. (2012). Task types and team-level attributes: Synthesis of team classification literature. *Human Resource Development Review, 11*, 97–129.
- Zhang, S., Tremaine, M., Egan, R., Milewski, A., O’Sullivan, P., & Fjermestad, J. (2009). Occurrence and effects of leader delegation in virtual software teams. *International Journal of e-Collaboration, 5*(1), 47–68.

Part II

Adapting Global Teams

Chapter 5

Team Training for Global Virtual Teams: Strategies for Success

Christina N. Lacerenza, Stephanie Zajac, Nastassia Savage,
and Eduardo Salas

According to the Office of the United States World Trade Representative, 95 % of the world's consumers are located outside of the United States (National Foreign Trade, 2007). This statistic alone is reasonable cause for a company to expand their market reach outside the US's borders, often necessitating team members to be spread out across geographic regions. As such, globalization is becoming the norm for a multitude of companies. Global companies face the daunting challenge of identifying with a heterogeneous target audience spanned across a variety of countries, cultural backgrounds, languages, and preferences. In order to meet this challenge, it is necessary for the organization to understand the vast differences within their target audience and market appropriately to each population. To do so is taxing; however, one such strategy that may enhance the understanding of a globalized consumer base is the utilization of Global Virtual Teams (GVTs).

A GVT consists of team members who are geographically distributed, culturally diverse, and communicate mainly via virtual methods (Jarvenpaa, Knoll, & Leidner, 1998). They have the potential to be more cost effective, innovative, and productive in comparison to traditional teams, and therefore better able to meet the demands of a competitive marketplace (Cohen & Alonso, 2013; Duarte & Snyder, 2011). Furthermore, team members located in various marketplaces have access to 'situated knowledge' or knowledge rooted in a particular location (e.g., the reliability of local suppliers). According to Johnson, Carr, Day, and Kaashoek (2001) organizations that are not limited to a specific geographic region when composing teams have the

C.N. Lacerenza • N. Savage • E. Salas, Ph.D. (✉)
Department of Psychology and Institute for Simulation and Training,
University of Central Florida, 3100 Technology Parkway, Orlando, FL 32826, USA
e-mail: claceren@ist.ucf.edu; nsavage@ist.ucf.edu; esalas@ist.ucf.edu

S. Zajac
Department of Psychology, Rice University, 6100 Main St, Houston, TX 77005, USA
e-mail: Stephanie.Zajac@rice.edu

opportunity to draw from a larger pool of talent. The authors also point out that a significant advantage for employees is the potential for flexibility in both work schedules and their physical location.

In opposition to the advantages inherent to GVTs, several issues present barriers to effective teamwork. Team members may speak different languages, are often both temporally and spatially distributed, and possess various cultural backgrounds. As such, because of their diverse nature, GVTs may experience deficiencies in essential affective states and team processes such as communication, trust, and coordination (e.g., Jarvenpaa et al., 1998), thus potentially inhibiting overall team effectiveness.

Although GVTs may display differing characteristics than those of traditional teams, they also possess similarities. GVTs, like traditional teams, display a degree of task interdependence among team members and work toward shared goals. Moreover, the teamwork processes vital for team effectiveness within GVTs are similar to those of traditional teams. Although not all teams are created equal, research has identified critical teamwork competencies and team training programs to enhance team effectiveness. Team training programs focus on training principles derived from the scientific literature on team performance, training, and learning (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2000). The purpose of this chapter is to identify the barriers to effective teamwork in GVTs and to outline team training strategies that may help mitigate loss to team process and performance. We begin the chapter with a review of challenges faced by GVTs and then provide a brief review of team training and team training strategies that may prove useful for GVTs. Furthermore, we conclude the chapter with seven recommendations for successful implementation of a team training program within GVTs. In general, those recommendations leverage team training strategies that have been proven successful for traditional teams in an attempt to ameliorate issues experienced by GVTs.

Problems Faced by GVTs

Because GVTs are often multicultural in composition and interact virtually, they experience a unique set of challenges (Zander, Mockaitis, & Butler, 2012). GVTs face barriers in terms of task, context, people, time, and technology (Gibbs, 2009; Gluesing & Gibson, 2004), and rely heavily on virtual communication tools (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). In this section, we highlight how virtuality and culture play main roles in contributing to the challenges faced by GVTs and identify how team training may be used to overcome these challenges.

Virtuality

A virtual team uses technology to span spatial, temporal, and organizational boundaries and connect members who are distributed across the globe. Indeed, Kirkman and Mathieu (2005) state that while previous conceptualizations of a virtual team

have centered on physical distance, virtuality in fact refers to the degree to which teams rely on virtual tools to carry out essential team processes. The authors provide two additional dimensions salient to virtual teams: (1) informational value, or the extent to which communication contains information to facilitate team effectiveness, and (2) synchronicity, or real-time versus time-lagged communication (e.g., chat versus email). The increased availability and quality of communication modes has led to an increase in virtual teams, but not without potential drawbacks to team process.

The Impact of Virtuality on GVTs

While research has begun to address the challenges brought on by the organizational trend toward virtuality, much remains to be discovered about how virtuality directly and indirectly (through team process and emergent states) affects team performance. Research on constructs related to traditional face-to-face team performance is pervasive, and notes several challenges teams must overcome to be successful. However, virtual teams are confronted with an additional level of complexity, and thus have their own unique barriers to success above and beyond those of face-to-face teams. Indeed, according to Lipnack and Stamps (1997), it is more challenging for a virtual team to succeed than for collocated teams, and more likely that misunderstandings and errors will occur. Below we delineate problems that may arise from virtual team interaction.

Communication

According to Govindarajan and Gupta (2001) a GVT's survival depends on its ability to coordinate critical resources. Furthermore, as we move toward a knowledge-based economy (Dunning, 2002), information is viewed as a key resource. It is no surprise then that efficient communication is a cornerstone of success in virtual teams. However, these teams must first overcome several barriers to communication. One unavoidable obstacle is the conflict that occurs when communication must transpire between differing time zones and schedules. For example, consider a team of four people spread across the globe that needs to come to a strategic consensus on an issue before moving forward. Each of the members holds unique information that is critical to the decision at hand, but their schedules have little to no overlap. They will have to exchange information while distributed, and the communication media chosen may impact the quality of information exchange.

The mode of communication media has been investigated as a significant factor of virtual team success. Media richness theory, according to Dennis, Fuller, and Valacich (2008), suggests that the richness (i.e., depth and interactivity of the communication mode) affects task performance. Indeed, companies often try to increase the sense of team member collocation through advanced high-fidelity videoconferencing tools (Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, & Cohen, 2012). While videoconferencing and other methods of synchronous communication are ideal in some

situations, it is often not possible for all members of a team to communicate in “real time.” Asynchronous communication allows team members to carry on conversations over long periods of time or when schedules conflict, but may hinder openness and information sharing as well as shared consensus on task representation and task strategy (Alge, Wiethoff, & Klein, 2003).

Team training programs can be utilized to ameliorate these issues within GVTs by focusing on instructing team members how to communicate effectively when using virtual tools. Not only should team members be trained on how to operate such virtual tools, but it is also important for them to understand what mode to use for specific instances and how often they should communicate. Specifically, research has shown that when given a variety of communication tools, virtual teams can perform just as well as nonvirtual teams (Maynard, Mathieu, Rapp, & Gilson, 2012) and can at times perform better (Yanson, 2013). For example, research suggests virtuality improves the sharing of unique information among team members (Mesmer-Magnus, DeChurch, Jimenez-Rodriguez, Wildman, & Shuffler, 2011).

Trust

Another critical issue that virtual teams face is the establishment of trust. Comprising teams of individuals with the necessary skills is a prerequisite of effective performance, but the importance of team-level affect cannot be overlooked. Trust develops in teams when each member “(a) makes a good-faith effort to behave in accordance with any commitments both explicit or implicit, (b) is honest in whatever negotiations preceded such commitments, and (c) does not take excessive advantage of another even when the opportunity is available” (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996; p. 303). The link between team-level trust and processes critical to performance (e.g., information sharing) has been widely supported in the literature (Politis, 2003). Trust has also been shown to have buffering effects against interpersonal conflict (Peterson & Behfar, 2003) and increase members satisfaction with being a part of the team (Costa, 2003). Unfortunately, the development of trust in virtual teams may be inhibited by factors such as computer-mediated communication and cross-cultural issues (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). According to Ridings, Gefen, and Arinze (2002), lack of face-to-face contact and visual cues may impede the formation of trust for virtual teams and negatively impact both information sharing and requests for information. Trust is formed in virtual teams in part by other members’ perceived ability and integrity, which can be more difficult to establish when lacking the social interaction of a traditional face-to-face team (Jarvenpaa et al., 1998). Team training programs can be designed to help increase the establishment of trust and other emergent states. Specifically, it can encourage team members to adhere to deadlines, individual tasking, and scheduled meetings. In addition, GVTs could utilize videoconferencing software, as it allows the use of visual cues, such as nodding, smiling, and eye contact (Daft & Lengel, 1986), and more closely compares to face-to-face interaction in terms of information richness (Straus & Olivera, 2001).

Cohesion

Cohesion, like trust, is a social factor essential to team performance that poses a challenge for virtual teams. Cohesion is a multidimensional construct; it contains interpersonal factors including the attraction and desire to remain in the team, as well as a commitment to the task (Carless & De Paola, 2000). Lin, Standing, and Liu (2008) found evidence for a positive relationship between cohesion and coordination in virtual teams, which in turn improves performance. However, virtual team members are more likely to experience isolation and detachment due to lack of face-to-face contact and the verbal and nonverbal cues of teammates (Kirkman, Rosen, Gibson, Tesluk, & McPherson, 2002). Team training may help foster cohesion among GVT members because trainees are introduced to critical teamwork processes and are trained on effective development strategies. In regard to GVTs, it is necessary that team members are taught the importance of effective communication because they may develop feelings of isolation from one another (Gunawardena & Zittle, 1997).

Team Cognition

Technological advancements allow organizations to be more flexible in meeting the demands of the marketplace, but can affect the development of critical team knowledge constructs (Curseu, 2006). Team cognition [e.g., shared mental models (SMMs)] is comprised of organized knowledge structures or cognitive representations of reality that are used to understand and explain elements of the environment (Klimoski & Mohammed, 1994). The team processes that facilitate the development of SMMs may be more difficult in a virtual setting. Previous research has shown that regular team interaction and team debriefs facilitate the development of team cognition; however, the opportunity for such collaboration is often absent in virtual teams (Tannenbaum et al., 2012). Guided team self-correction is a team training strategy which aids in the development of team cognition through the use of regular prebriefs and debriefs among team members. This strategy can be utilized by GVTs to increase the development of team cognition and is also discussed in the following section on team training strategies. Other team training methods may also aid in the development of team cognition within GVTs by identifying specific tactics for eliciting team cognition such as closed-loop communication and adaptive behavior.

Culture

Culture is a critical, multilevel team composition variable that can impact the effectiveness of teams and well-validated team training programs (Salas, Wilson, Burke, & Wightman, 2006). As such, it is important to delineate the different levels of culture,

from professional culture (norms within the relevant profession) to organizational culture (norms for the specific organization) and national culture (norms within a particular nation), and how they uniquely affect team performance. While professional and organizational norms can greatly influence the effectiveness of team training programs, this effort will focus on the national culture level.

Two of the most researched cultural variables at the national level are individualism and collectivism. It has been well established in the literature that the level of individualism or collectivism has a significant impact on team process and performance (Gundlach, Zivnuska, & Stoner, 2006), and even shapes the descriptions of teamwork. For more individualistic cultures, sports metaphors are often used to describe the concept of teamwork. Military or family metaphors are used in more collectivistic cultures (Gibson & Zellmer-Bruhn, 2001). Individualistic cultures (e.g., America) see teams as reducing poor performance, whereas collectivistic cultures (e.g., Japan) see teams as improving performance (Sullivan, Suzuki, & Kondo, 1985). While this seems to be a minor difference in perceptions, one emphasizes the importance of solving preexisting issues, while the other emphasizes increasing performance as a whole. In addition, research suggests that in the more collectivistic cultures the focus is on group goals, while the more individualistic cultures focus on personal goals (Earley, 1989). Having a culturally diverse team (such as in global, virtual teams) will likely include individuals of different national cultures, thus increasing the probability of conflict.

Another variable that has received attention in the literature is power distance. Power distance has been shown to impact the perceptions of group efficacy, such that when the group is high in power distance, personal judgments impact collective judgments more than when they are low in power distance (Earley, 1999). The GLOBE studies have also shown that power distance in a particular country impacts implicit leadership styles, which carries over from family life (e.g., the father is the ultimate authority) to work life (e.g., the supervisor is the ultimate authority), and whether an individual is accepting of a particular leadership style (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012). When dealing with teams of individuals who vary in their levels of power distance, there are likely to be discrepancies in how different team members react to existing leadership, which needs to be considered when creating team training programs for GVTs.

The Impact of Culture on GVTs

Though researchers have been working to determine how different aspects of culture impact teams and team training programs, the work has been relatively recent and has focused primarily on individualism and collectivism with samples often from Western cultures. This causes issues when training programs are created, tested, and validated in Westernized areas and then are implemented in Eastern cultures. Similarly, research has rarely utilized team samples that are global, culturally diverse, and communicate through a virtual medium. Consequently, team training programs may have very different results depending on the context and culture in

which they are implemented. The major problems that have been found to occur in GVTs involve communication, leadership, conflict management, and collective identity differences between cultural groupings.

Communication

GVTs include individuals from different nations, often resulting in team members with varying language fluency in the primary language spoken within the team. This issue is compounded when the team communicates through certain virtual tools, such as teleconferencing software, in which there are no visual cues that can be utilized by team members, such as nodding, eye contact, and smiling (Daft & Lengel, 1986), that are available in tools that offer richer information (Straus & Olivera, 2001). This impacts the level of understanding individual team members may have given the level of language complexity used during discussions and can lead to conflict (Fischer, 2013). Similarly, team members higher on power distance are less likely to speak up and comment or offer their opinion, contributing to the possibility of group think. Issues such as these can severely limit the capability of the team to successfully execute tasks. Given the limitations a culturally diverse, virtual team faces with communication, it is particularly important to ensure communication limitations and medium are discussed. When using a virtual tool, be it as simple as an instant messaging service or simulated meeting environment, team training needs to include information on best practices for the particular medium used.

Leadership

One aspect of teams in general that has been shown to impact team processes and performance is the leadership within the team (Zhou & Shi, 2011). Leadership becomes even more important within GVTs as different aspects of culture impact the emergence of leadership, the effectiveness of leadership styles, and the team's acceptance of the leader. For example, a collectivistic orientation has been positively associated with leadership emergence, particularly if no leader is defined (Pillai & Meindl, 1998). The type of leadership also varies in effectiveness depending on the composition of individualism and collectivism in the team (Jung & Avolio, 1999). Power distance also impacts the leader's effectiveness. Individual power distance will affect how the team member perceives the leader and leader's style (Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009). For example, a more collectivistic team with higher power distance will experience a stronger positive effect of transformational leadership (Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007). Because of the different cultural backgrounds of those in GVTs, one leadership style and hierarchical structure may work well for some team members but not for others. As such, ensuring these differences are addressed during team training is a key point in encouraging the team's success.

Conflict Management

It is not uncommon for task or interpersonal conflict to arise within teams, particularly culturally diverse teams, but even more so for GVTs that communicate through a virtual medium. Communication issues can lead to misunderstandings and frustration just as different leadership style preferences within a team can cause conflict if not managed appropriately. How the team communicates, to whom they communicate, and what is communicated will vary given the composition of the team and what type of virtuality used, particularly when it comes to any conflicts the differences in preference and expectations may create. The ease of communication and the strength of cultural values in individuals may influence the way interpersonal issues are addressed on the team. For example, a team member low on power distance and high on individualism may speak up in a video call that they disagree with the leader's plan of action, despite the overall high power distance on the team. This may cause conflict within the team if the leader and/or the rest of the team is high on power distance, and managing this conflict becomes a key issue with diverse teams. Furthermore, the issue may be exacerbated by the difficulty of the chosen virtual tool to relay the content and context of messages among the team. As such, it is important to ensure the team training strategy used includes training for conflict management and how to effectively use the chosen virtual tool.

Collective Identity

Collective identity is defined as a cognitive and affective connection an individual has with a team based upon the perception of shared characteristics and beliefs (Polletta & Jasper, 2001; Pratt, 2003). A high level of collective identity increases team effectiveness and performance (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). However, issues can arise when cultural variables are inserted into the equation (Goncalo & Staw, 2006). The primary issue is that culturally diverse teams are difficult to identify given their potential for variance within the team, hindering the team's ability to create a superordinate identity. Similarly, if a team is more individualistic, they feel less need to create a collective identity than there would be in a more collectivistic team. This is compounded when a culturally diverse team is using virtual tools to communicate. The more virtual the tool (i.e., emails rather than videoconferencing), the more communication issues arise, potentially isolating members and preventing the creation of a collective identity. Given the difficulties GVTs face in this regard, it is important to ensure a team training strategy for these teams instills knowledge of the virtual tools used and emphasizes increased communication among team members. Ideally, team building exercises will also be included to encourage the development of a collective identity.

In sum, it is clear that GVTs experience additional barriers to team process above and beyond those faced by traditional face-to-face teams. In the following section, we briefly introduce team training and the constructs that training is designed to target. Additionally, training strategies that have proven effective in traditional

teams are introduced, followed by recommendations for how they may be adapted to be beneficial in a global environment as well.

Team Training

The overall goal of teamwork training programs is to enhance teamwork skills and behaviors, which ultimately leads to increased team effectiveness. Team effectiveness is a multidisciplinary construct and is often examined in terms of the relationships between input, processes, and outputs of a team (Stagl & Salas, 2001). Team effectiveness is defined as "...a judgmental process whereby a team performance outcome is held against an objective or subjective standard" (Stagl & Salas, 2001, p. 2386). Moreover, because the core of team effectiveness lies within a judgmental process, it is important for one to investigate the team's processes as well as the inputs and outputs when assessing team effectiveness (Stagl & Salas, 2001).

What Does Team Training Target?

As previously noted, the main purpose of teamwork training is to train specific teamwork skills, but what teamwork skills does it focus on? The content driving teamwork training is found within the team science literature and relies heavily on the implementation of theoretically based and empirically supported teamwork competencies and processes (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2000). The core competencies are housed in three major categories: cognitions (what team members think), behaviors (what team members do), and attitudes (what team members feel; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2000). These three categories have also been referred to as knowledge (team members' information), skills (team members' actions), and attitudes (team members' emotions; KSAs) and are necessary for team success (Cannon-Bowers & Salas, 2001). Because there is no consistent type of team, one set of generic teamwork KSAs has not been identified (Salas et al., 2006). However, researchers have identified core competencies for teamwork training under each category, and although there is no standardized teamwork training program, most programs focus on the critical processes identified by Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2000) or some variation.

Attitudes

Research suggests that the attitudes displayed toward the team and task greatly influence team effectiveness (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2000). Some prominent attitude-based competencies include motivation, collective efficacy (Guzzo, Yost, Campbell, & Shea, 1994), shared vision, team cohesion (Mullen & Copper, 1994),

mutual trust, collective orientation (Driskell & Salas, 1992, 1996), and team members' feelings toward the importance of teamwork (Gregorich, Helmreich, & Wilhelm, 1990). The presence of these competencies has been noted to positively influence teamwork, and it is one of the goals of team training to improve their emergence among team members.

Behaviors

One of the key elements to successful teamwork lies within the actions performed by team members (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2000). Research has shown that effective teams display several common and consistent behaviors among team members (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2000). These action behaviors include: performance monitoring (Hackman, 1990), self-correction implementation (McIntyre & Salas, 1995), motivational and task reinforcement (Oser, McCallum, Salas, & Morgan Jr, 1989), closed-loop communication (McIntyre & Salas, 1995), adaptability (Prince & Salas, 1993), shared situation awareness (Volpe, Cannon-Bowers, Salas, & Spector, 1996), mission analysis (Kleinman & Serfaty, 1989), assertiveness (Smith-Jentsch, Salas, & Baker, 1996), interpersonal relations, decision making, and conflict resolution (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2000). Furthermore, these action behaviors form the roots of team training, and every team training program is designed to improve the onset of effective behaviors.

Cognitions

The success of a team is also a direct result of the knowledge displayed by its individual team members, and it is necessary for teams to share an understanding of team roles, tasks, and situations (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2000). A specific type of shared cognition, known as a SMM, is a dynamic, simplified, cognitive representation of reality that team members use to describe, explain, and predict events (Burke, Stagl, Salas, Pierce, & Kendall, 2006). Team members use mental models to guide their interactions with others and with the elements that make up their system of operation (Burke et al., 2006). When a SMM is well established, the team communicates more effectively because team members can predict the resource and information requirements of their team (Mathieu, Heffner, Goodwin, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 2000). SMMs enable team members to react quickly to stressful situations, enable teams to better control for human error, and make predilections about future operational system conditions (Orasanu, 1994; Rouse, Cannon-Bowers, & Salas, 1992). It is often challenging for some teams to communicate, especially when embedded in a complex environment where situational constraints (e.g., time pressure) may negate the use of overt communication (e.g., aviation, medical, and global teams). When a team develops a SMM, it is easier for them to react to situations because they possess a common understanding of the situation (Salas et al., 2006) and overt communication becomes less necessary. Research also suggests that during

high workload periods, an established SMM leads to improved communication (Stout, Cannon-Bowers, Salas, & Milanovich, 1999).

Team Training Strategies

A team training strategy is a systematic process comprised of specific tools, methods, and teamwork competencies. A number of team training strategies exist, all exhibiting pros and cons. During team training development, it is recommended that a strategy is chosen based on the team's goals, objectives, needs, and configuration (Sims, Salas, Burke, & Wheelan, 2005). Several team training strategies are described below and summarized in Table 5.1.

Team Coordination and Adaptation Training

Team coordination and adaptation training strategies are aimed at increasing team coordination and can be defined as "a team training intervention in which team members are trained to alter their coordination strategy and to reduce the amount of communication necessary for successful task performance" (Salas, Nichols, & Driskell, 2007, p. 474). Research suggests team coordination and adaptation training increases team members' knowledge of teamwork principles and team performance (Stout, Salas, & Fowlkes, 1997). Moreover, Stout et al. (1997) also found trainees' reactions toward this team training strategy to be positive as they reported high levels of perceived utility. More recently, it has been suggested that team coordination and adaptation training may even be more effective than cross-training programs or team guided self-correction (Salas et al., 2007). Salas et al. (2007) recently conducted a meta-analysis on the effectiveness of coordination and adaptation team training programs on team performance and found a significant, moderately strong effect size ($r=0.286$). In addition, they investigated the extent to which each specific team training strategy influenced team performance and found the strongest relationships when team coordination and adaptation training were implemented ($r=0.607$, $z=1.718$, $p=0.0429$). Additional analyses indicated only team coordination and adaptation training to have a marginally significant independent contribution ($r=0.299$, $z=1.319$, $p=0.0936$; Salas et al., 2007).

Broadly speaking, team coordination and adaptation training programs are designed to train team members how to change or adjust their behavior based on current demands. A key component to this team training strategy is training team members to be adaptive; as being adaptive is a key component to team effectiveness (Burke et al., 2006). Specifically, the interdependent nature of a team requires individuals to act on internal team cues (e.g., milestones in the team's project, unusual or novel situations, or disruptions or failures during the team task) in order to compensate for their team members (see Burke et al., 2006, for a review). Team coordination and adaptation training increases the presence of adaptation among

Table 5.1 Team training strategies applied to global teams

Strategy	Targeted teamwork processes and competencies	Potential impact for global teams
Team coordination and adaptation training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mutual performance monitoring • Backup behavior 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increases team member's ability to alter behavior according to current demands without overt communication • Improves team members' basic understanding of teamwork processes
Event-based approach to training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication • Coordination • Assertiveness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides opportunity to practice effective teamwork processes • Enables team members to acquire skills without fear of repercussion
Cross-training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpositional knowledge • Team cognition • Coordination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increases knowledge of limitations in other roles • Reduces process loss
Team leadership development training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increases leader's ability to facilitate team problem solving • More effectively manage teamwork, task work, and team processes
Guided team (self-correction)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication • Feedback • Team cognition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facilitator is able to provide constructive feedback on teamwork processes • Increases team performance through guided self-monitoring

team members by having team members learn teamwork processes and how to discuss and anticipate potential issues (Salas et al., 2007). Training dimensions include communication, situational awareness, and assertiveness (Stout et al., 1997). Team coordination and adaptation training is most widely utilized within performance-based teams such as in the medical or aviation industry (Wilson, Burke, Priest, & Salas, 2005).

Crew Resource Management (CRM), a specific type of team coordination and adaptation training strategy, was developed for the aviation industry and has now been implemented successfully within other domains, such as the medical field, off shore oil production companies, and other industries that rely heavily on human performance (Salas et al., 2006). CRM is often utilized in industries where although there is a low frequency of error, the consequences for human error can be devastating. Its essence has also been refined in that its focus now lies in training instead of operations (Salas, Fowlkes, Stout, Milanovich, & Prince, 1999). CRM training focuses on utilizing "well-tested training tools (e.g., simulators, lectures, videos)" in order to teach specific teamwork skill elements and to ultimately improve teamwork (Salas et al., 1999, p. 163).

Team coordination and adaptation training should be utilized for GVTs because of its focus on training team members to adapt and coordinate using reduced amounts of communication. GVT members, because they are geographically distributed, must make decisions in regards to the team's objectives and goals without

overtly communicating with each individual team member. For example, during a performance period, some team members may not be able to focus on the tasks associated with their GVT due to other project demands. Within a successfully adaptive GVT, this team member would notify the rest of the team, and the other members would automatically attend to tasks that could not be accomplished by the hindered team member without being directly asked. Furthermore, team coordination training can also be used to overcome obstacles in regards to task complexity (Xiao, Hunter, Mackenzie, Jefferies, & Horst, 1996). Xiao et al. (1996) identified complexities in relation to task characteristics: multiple and concurrent tasks, uncertainty, changing plans, compressed work procedures, and high workload. Because these complexities pose issues in team functioning and lead to team coordination problems, the authors investigated the effect of team coordination training on performance within these tasks; consequently, they found it to be necessary in overcoming these complexities (Xiao et al., 1996). In sum, training that increases effective communication, coordination, and other teamwork processes should be beneficial if implemented within GVTs.

Event-Based Approach to Training

The Event-Based Approach to Training (EBAT) is a method used to guide the design of experiential-based exercises (e.g., simulation) and has been employed to train a variety of teamwork skills (e.g., communication, coordination, assertiveness; Dwyer, Oser, Salas, & Fowlkes, 1999; Fowlkes, Lane, Salas, Franz, & Oser, 1994). Event-based training is defined as a collection of techniques that “create training opportunities by systematically identifying and introducing events within exercises that provide known opportunities to observe specific behaviors of interest” (Fowlkes, Dwyer, Oser, & Salas, 1998, p. 210). EBAT was developed as an extension of two prior training methods (Oser, Gualtieri, Cannon-Bowers, & Salas, 1999). The first is Instruction System Design, which is founded in learning theory, and is predicated on a thorough needs assessment. ISD is a behaviorally focused method to training, and therefore focuses on the acquisition of skills versus knowledge. The second is assessment centers, which rely on situational tests designed to elicit complex human behavior. However, according to the authors, EBAT differs from these previous methods in two important ways: (1) it focuses on scenario-based training in simulation, and (2) it was specifically developed to enhance performance in situations where teamwork skills are necessary.

Fowlkes et al. (1998) assert that although there are alternatives to the EBAT, they are all founded on the principle that each component of the training is explicitly linked. Components include (1) development of specific training objectives and learning objectives, (2) exercises designed to allow trainees to demonstrate behaviors related to training objectives, (3) observation/evaluation of trainee behavior, and (4) feedback on performance or after-action reviews. In fact, Oser et al. (1999) stress that the key strength of this approach is that it leads to training objectives,

experimental design, and evaluation and feedback that are all closely connected. The events that comprise each exercise provide a degree of control over the environment and what behaviors can and should be displayed. Embedded within each event is a set of cues or stimuli for the team to recognize and respond to, creating the opportunity for observers to examine the presence or absence of desired behaviors (Dwyer et al., 1999).

Teamwork skills are essential to operating in a global environment, and the design and delivery of EBAT could facilitate effective training for GVTs. Dwyer and colleagues (1999) point out that because EBAT is conducted in a simulated environment, team members who are geographically distributed can participate in virtual environments via technological tools. Furthermore, these tools allow for the inclusion of nonroutine tasks and the measurement of both process and outcome variables. The authors propose that EBAT is an ideal training technique for GVTs because it is rated as face valid by both instructors and trainees and provides a detailed record of performance outcomes that can later be used to provide feedback to all members. For example, the EBAT strategy could be used to train team members to troubleshoot any teleconferencing or videoconferencing system glitches (e.g., how to restore a lost connection). EBAT scenarios could also be developed to immerse GVT members into a simulated conversation with another team member from a different culture. As such, the EBAT program could be designed to train team members how to appropriately communicate and interact with those team members from diverse backgrounds. Fowlkes and colleagues (1994) also assert that EBAT is a psychometrically sound tool (e.g., it shows strong evidence for both reliability and internal consistency) and can provide the relevant diagnostics to inform future modifications to the training. This is especially important for global environments, where the exact specifications of training have not been as well established and flexibility in designing training is desirable.

Cross-Training

Cross-training, as defined by Volpe et al. (1996), is “an instructional strategy in which each team member is trained in the duties of his or her teammates” (p. 87). The primary focus of cross-training is to teach team members about the roles and responsibilities of other members. There are, however, three different types of cross-training identified by Blickensderfer, Cannon-Bowers, and Salas (1998), each building on the other. The most basic type of cross-training is positional clarification in which team members tell one another about their roles and responsibilities. In a GVT this could be as simple as a teleconference in which each team member identifies themselves and describes the role and expectations they have to the rest of the team. The second type of cross-training is called positional modeling and involves each team member discussing and observing other team members’ roles. It can be carried out through live observation or through video reenactments. For GVTs, this would more likely involve the use of actors or employees reenacting the

position on a video that the team members in other positions would then watch to learn what is involved in that position. The third and most comprehensive type of cross-training is positional rotation which involves both the discussion and observation of the others' positions as well as performing the roles themselves. This does take longer as the team members would need to be trained in the others' positions and be able to take time to perform that role, even if briefly. It is common to see this type of cross-training in organizations where it is relatively quick to train members of a team in other positions, such as in retail. While the three types of cross-training are similar, the goal is always to teach team members about the other positions in the team so that they may be able to coordinate better, thus improving team performance.

The most appropriate type of cross-training strategy depends on position and the resources of the organization. In simpler positions, such as a factory line worker, there is little need for observation or experience doing the job so positional clarification would be sufficient. Similarly, it is important to consider organizational demands and resources when deciding upon a team training strategy. If the organization is limited on resources, it is impractical to do positional rotation cross-training as it takes extra time training team members in each position and allowing them time in the position to understand what it is composed of. However, should organizational resources be plentiful and the positions complex enough to warrant it, positional rotation has been shown to increase coordination and, thus, performance within teams more so than the positional clarification or modeling (Marks, Sabella, Burke, & Zaccero, 2002).

For teams that are both global and virtual in nature, the benefits of incorporating team training such as this include higher coordination, particularly if the virtual tools used are those with fewer social cues (i.e., email or instant messaging) as it will allow the team members to more fully understand the requirements of others' positions and will similarly require less communication to describe the hows and whys of the positions. It is also important to clarify to the team which individuals are in charge of what tasks and pieces of information, particularly within GVTs. By using cross-training in any of its forms, the team will not just be more coordinated but will also be able to better hold one another accountable throughout the lifespan of the team. However, cross-training does not directly impact all of the communication issues that are likely to present themselves within GVTs. As such, it is important to supplement cross-training with additional team training strategies to ensure the team receives the most complete training it can to allow it to perform at their maximum potential, rather than be hindered by issues easily addressed through training. Cross-training does increase performance, however, and can help address issues faced due to the presence of virtuality and a culturally diverse team (Marks et al., 2002).

Team Leadership Development Training

Instead of simply adopting the age-old assumption of the team leader being a supervisor, it is instead recommended by some authors for the team leader to be more of a

facilitator or coach (e.g., Caminiti, 1995). Specifically, a team leader should facilitate team performance such that they provide guidance to team members and ensure team members have the proper tools for successful team performance (i.e., team training, technology training). In addition, the nature of teams has changed such that successful task execution involves more implicit, flexible, and adaptive coordination among team members in comparison to simple explicit directives (Adelman, Zirk, Lehner, Moffett, & Hall, 1986; Fleishman & Zaccaro, 1992), and facilitative team members are crucial for this type of team development. Kozlowski, Gully, McHugh, Salas, and Cannon-Bowers (1996) identify the importance of a developmental team leader in their model on the effects of leadership on team effectiveness. In order to ensure this developmental role of a team leader, it is recommended that team leadership development training is implemented (Tannenbaum, Smith-Jentsch, & Behson, 1998) as the transition from a supervisor to a facilitative, team leader is not trivial, and requires a shift in both leadership behaviors and attitudes (Ray et al., 1994).

Team leadership training, as with all team training, is a systematic process and should be developed in tandem with empirically supported recommendations and guidelines. In a study investigating the effects of team leadership training on effective team briefing, results suggested that team performance was greater in teams whose leaders were trained on how to effectively conduct prebriefs and postaction reviews (Tannenbaum, Smith-Jentsch & Behson, 1998). As such, team leadership development training should focus on training briefing skills. Tannenbaum, Smith-Jentsch and Behson (1998) recommend training leaders to probe team members more during briefing sessions and to not rely heavily on one-way communication patterns. Tannenbaum, Smith-Jentsch and Behson (1998) also noted that team leaders gravitate toward discussing team outcomes and task work skills and therefore team leaders should be trained to discuss teamwork skills in addition to these topics. Team members often look to their leaders as behavioral role models, thus it is important for team leaders to not only discuss the use of teamwork skills, but also model this behavior (Tannenbaum, Smith-Jentsch & Behson, 1998).

Team leaders play an integral role in ensuring team performance within traditional teams (Bass, 1990; Hackman, 1990), and given the critical need for leadership among face-to-face teams, it can be inferred that team leadership is also influential among GVTs (Tyran, Tyran, & Shepherd, 2003). It is known that GVTs face numerous challenges associated with their distributive nature and their virtual communication patterns; therefore, we suggest that a facilitative leader is crucial to GVT effectiveness such that they can encourage the use of teamwork skills and increase team performance. As such, this strategy is particularly useful in that it has the potential to not only develop leaders to be more effective teamwork facilitators, but to be more effective teamwork facilitators of GVTs specifically. Leadership development training programs should be tailored for these types of leaders and should focus on the critical issues and challenges that GVTs will face. For example, it may be beneficial for GVT leaders to be trained on effective virtual communication and the benefits and drawbacks to all virtual communication tools. In addition, the team leaders should be trained to utilize synchronous and asynchronous communication methods when conducting team briefings; face-to-face communication may not be

able to be achieved; however, research suggests that videoconference calls provide almost as much communication richness as face-to-face interaction (Straus & Olivera, 2001).

Guided Team Self-Correction

Although debriefing strategies are utilized frequently among active teams, research suggests that not all debriefs are successful. Team cognition, and consequently team performance, is not necessarily enhanced by merely providing team members the opportunity to participate in a debrief (Edwards, Day, Arthur, & Bell, 2006; Mathieu et al., 2000). It is possible that during team briefings or prebriefings, team members develop inaccurate and scenario-specific SMMs and engage in discussion focused on either positive or negative performance aspects, but not both (Smith-Jentsch, Cannon-Bowers, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 2008). Guided team self-correction is a strategy designed to ameliorate these issues, and empirical research supports its success in enhancing team effectiveness (Smith-Jentsch et al., 2008; Smith-Jentsch, Zeisig, Acton, & McPherson, 1998).

Smith-Jentsch et al. (2008) empirically tested the effects of guided team self-correction on shared cognition, teamwork processes, and effective outcomes. The first study was conducted with US Navy command and control teams and investigated the impact of guided team self-correction on team SMM similarity and accuracy. The results suggested that both teamwork mental model similarity and accuracy were greater for teams in the experimental condition; however, this difference was only significant for mental model accuracy (Smith-Jentsch et al., 2008). In their second study, the same population was utilized; however, the purpose was to investigate whether team guided self-correction improved teamwork processes and overall performance. The experimental condition displayed significantly higher overall teamwork ratings as well as a significantly increased overall performance metric (Smith-Jentsch et al., 2008). In a meta-analysis on three team training strategies, a moderately strong effect size was found for teams utilizing a component of team guided self-correction on overall team effectiveness (Salas et al., 2007). In sum, empirical evidence suggests this team training strategy is useful in enhancing team effectiveness.

Guided team self-correction involves the use of a facilitator who “(a) keeps the team’s discussion focused, (b) establishes a positive climate, (c) encourages and reinforces active participation, (d) models effective feedback skills, and (e) coaches team members in stating their feedback in a constructive manner” (Smith-Jentsch et al., 1998, p. 272). As such, successful guided team self-correction requires the facilitator to identify what topics the team should discuss and ways in which the team should discuss them. One way this can be achieved is for the facilitators to outline specific discussion questions within a debriefing guide for the team members (Smith-Jentsch et al., 1998). Another specific strategy for guided team self-correction is Team Dimensional Training (TDT; Smith-Jentsch et al., 1998). TDT specifically focuses on helping teams to develop a collective, accurate mental model of relevant

teamwork components in order to increase their mastery of teamwork knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Smith-Jentsch et al., 1998).

A TDT cycle consists of prebriefing, performance, and debriefing episodes. Within a prebrief, the facilitator should focus on defining the mission and identifying team goals and objectives. Teamwork processes that are essential to the team's goals should also be discussed during the prebrief. For a GVT, these processes may include effective technologically mediated communication, information exchange, and supporting behavior. Following the prebrief, the facilitator should monitor the team's progress during the performance episode. The facilitator should identify positive or negative teamwork examples and keep a note of them to discuss during the debrief. Specifically, the team leader can ask for routine biweekly updates via email from all team members and take note of task progress. Various technologies also exist which can assist in the monitoring progress such as Dropbox, Google documents, and Basecamp. These programs enable GVT to share electronic documents in order to consistently track one another's progress. The debrief then consists of a recapping of events (both positive and negative), critiques on teamwork, a summary of lessons learned, and the development of goals for improvement (Smith-Jentsch et al., 1998).

Although an ample amount of empirical research has yet to be conducted on this type of teamwork training strategy, a case study conducted by Smith-Jentsch et al. (1998) has demonstrated its effectiveness on enhancing team performance within a military setting. TDT as well as other team guided self-correction strategies are useful in enhancing teamwork processes and performance, and these methods may be well suited for GVTs. Specifically, the use of a facilitator may improve effective communication utilization and reduce confusion regarding the lack of information sharing. In addition, during a guided team self-correction prebrief, the facilitator can review critical teamwork processes for the team, monitor whether they are effectively being utilized during the performance episode, and identify to the team any deficiencies in team performance during a debrief. This may be more effective in increasing teamwork among GVT members because the facilitator provides an unbiased and "outside" opinion on the team's performance.

Recommendations for Implementing Team Training Within GVTs

The purpose of this chapter was twofold, to identify the challenges faced by GVTs in relation to virtuality and culture, and to outline how team training may ameliorate these issues. In the current section, based on the team training and GVT literature, we offer seven recommendations (Table 5.2) for successful implementation of a team training program for GVTs. Although they bring many positive elements to an organization, GVTs face challenges that are nonexistent or less significant in collocated teams. The challenges that virtual teams face can be directly addressed with certain competencies taught within team training programs. Indeed, we suggest that team training should be implemented within GVTs, and, in turn, the

Table 5.2 Recommendations for implementing team training within global teams

1. Choose the appropriate GVT team development strategy

Key points:

- Determine the team task type: (a) managing others, (b) advising others, (c) human service, (d) negotiation, (e) psychomotor action, (e) defined problem solving, and (f) ill-defined problem solving
- Consider team-level characteristics before determining what teamwork competencies and processes are critical for team success
- Key characteristics include: (a) task interdependence, (b) role structure, (c) leadership structure, (d) communication structure, (e) physical distribution, and (f) team lifespan

2. Tailor the strategy to be specific for the GVT

Key points:

- Focus on the competencies needed for GVT success
- Competencies may include communication, trust, cohesion, team cognition, leadership, collective efficacy, and conflict management
- Ensure GVT members understand why GVT are different from traditional teams
- Provide specific strategies for how to implement each trained competency

3. Create a hierarchical structure

Key points:

- Clearly define who the leader is and what the leadership structure is
- Discuss the expectations for communication so team members know who to report to
- Create the hierarchical structure, rather than let the team do so to limit confusion

4. Clearly define roles and responsibilities

Key points:

- Establish the roles and responsibilities of each team member and clarify them with the team as soon as possible in team development
- Describe the overall goals, shared and individual responsibilities, and how the individual roles fit into the overall team plan to the team
- Account for individual's strengths and weaknesses when assigning roles
- Key elements include: (a) team goals, (b) shared versus individual responsibilities, and (c) how roles fit into the overall team plan

5. Provide GVT team members with a variety of communication tools

Key points:

- Provide virtual team members with various communication tools when carrying out an interdependent team task.
- Explain the benefits and drawbacks of each type of communication mode and under what circumstances each might be most beneficial

6. Overcome psychosocial boundaries

Key points:

- Encourage positive and effective communication that is predictable, substantive, and timely
- Have team set up team rules about the content and pattern of communication among members
- Get global teams to schedule regular team meetings and utilize rich media sources
- Encourage team members to share personal information in order to establish interpersonal relationships

7. Provide tools that foster longitudinal GVT development

Key points:

- Provide job-aids (e.g., feedback, debriefs, coaching) that foster transfer of team training
- Feedback should be focused on team processes and should be clear, concise, and constructive
- Make sure team members have the knowledge necessary to conduct debriefs after training to reflect on real-world experiences
- Provide team leaders with tools, training, and support to increase their coaching skills

barriers presented may be reduced. Most GVTs interact virtually and are culturally diverse; therefore, traditional team training programs may not be as successful in global environments if they are not customized appropriately. It is important to keep specific issues related to GVTs in mind when designing and implementing a team training program or strategy.

Recommendation 1. Choose the Appropriate Team Development Strategy

In the previous section, we delineated several team training strategies. Although, each strategy has been validated for its effectiveness, it is important to note that each strategy may not be effective for every team as not all teams are created equal (Salas, Burke, Cannon-Bowers, 2000). Several core team characteristics should be identified before determining what teamwork processes are critical for GVT success (Salas et al., 2000). Wildman et al. (2011) recently conducted a systematic review of 17 team classification systems (e.g., Sundstrom, McIntyre, Halfhill, & Richards, 2000; Devine, 2002) in order to develop an integrated and succinct set of team task types and team characteristics. The integrated set of team task types includes managing others, advising others, human service, negotiation, psychomotor action, defined problem solving, and ill-defined problem solving. To further classify teams, Wildman et al. (2011) identified a set of team-level characteristics including task interdependence, role structure, leadership structure, communication structure, physical distribution, and team lifespan. These factors play a key role in determining the functionality of certain teamwork competencies for GVTs, and it is important to keep the GVT's makeup in mind when determining a team training strategy and program. Although it is important to consider all team characteristics, some may be more pertinent than others for GVTs. For example, cross-training may pose as a challenge for GVTs due to the physical distribution of team members. Effectively training team members on the roles and responsibilities traditionally executed by other team members can be hard if team members do not interact regularly and witness each other completing certain tasking. In addition, because GVT members likely display distinct backgrounds it may be harder for these teams to establish shared cognition. Therefore, guided team self-correction, because it significantly increases the onset of team mental models, may be highly beneficial for most GVTs. In sum, it is important to denote the nature of the GVT before selecting a team training strategy in order to ensure effectiveness.

Recommendation 2. Tailor the Strategy to be Specific for the Team Needs

Once a strategy has been chosen, it is important to tailor it to the specific needs of the GVT. Team competencies that are known to be problematic for GVTs or required

by a GVT to perform successfully should be included in the team training program. For example, GVT members should be trained on effective techniques for communicating with physically distributed team members. For example, with teleconference software, it would be ideal for team members to say their name before speaking and to take turns speaking. Similarly, if there are those in the team that have a lower level of proficiency in the primary language in the team, it is important that team members use more easily understood terminology and speak slower and more clearly to give all team members the best chance to follow the conversation. In addition, strategies aimed at developing trust should be incorporated within the GVT team training program, and GVT members should be educated on how trust develops within teams and how this differs for GVTs. Other competencies that should be covered when implementing a team training strategy for GVTs include cohesion, team cognition, leadership, conflict, and collective identity.

Recommendation 3. Create a Hierarchical Structure

Given that GVTs will have varying cultural orientations among team members and the ambiguity added by certain virtual tools, clearly defining the hierarchical structure may reduce potential conflict. This could be as straightforward as clearly stating who the leader is and what the leadership structure is. However, it would also include discussing and clarifying the expectations for communication as it reduces conflict should an issue occur and clarifies who team members report to. Creating a hierarchical structure before the GVT begins their tasking also reduces conflict caused by differing levels of power distance and mitigates effects of collectivism and individualism in regards to who is in charge and what to do with complaints and/or suggestions for improvement. As the type of virtual tool can exacerbate issues among the team, it is important to limit confusion within the team. Creating the hierarchical structure, rather than letting the GVT develop it on their own, is a simple, easy way to reduce confusion and ambiguity and to ensure better team processes and performance (Glassop, 2002).

Recommendation 4. Clearly Define and Communicate Roles and Responsibilities

A key component in the definition of a team is that the individual team members have “been assigned specific roles or functions to perform” (Salas, Dickinson, Converse, & Tannenbaum, p. 4). Furthermore, team members must coordinate task activities and exchange resources in order to perform successfully. In GVTs, interpositional knowledge may be even more critical, as it may require more time to transfer resources and information among distributed members.

In addition, a core element of the establishment of a team’s SMM is knowledge of the roles and responsibilities of team members, thus creating a shared conception

of how the team will interact (Mathieu et al., 2000). Both the sharedness and accuracy of interaction models have been evidenced to influence performance (e.g., Ellis, 2006). In GVTs, a well-developed team interaction mental model may make it easier to efficiently delegate tasks, engage in backup behavior when needed, and ultimately prevent lost time. Cohen and Alonso (2013) suggest that GVTs should engage in more formal planning to facilitate the development of shared knowledge structures.

Research also suggests that ill-defined roles can lead to team conflict and ultimately hinder team performance (Antai-Otong, 1997). Furthermore, resolving conflict, both task and relationship oriented, has been cited as one of the most challenging behaviors for virtual teams (Cohen & Alonso, 2013). Clearly identifying and communicating what is expected of each member may help to reduce conflict caused by miscommunication or different expectations among team members.

GVT members are likely to come from many different cultural and functional backgrounds. In addition, they have less opportunity to interact and learn about members. Therefore, they may feel disconnected with one another due to these differences as well as communication lags. This may lead to lower accountability levels and emergence of in-group versus out-group dynamics. Moreover, the need for established roles and responsibilities among team members is increased.

Recommendation 5. Provide Team Members with a Variety of Communication Tools

GVTs, who often lack the ability to meet face to face or meet less frequently than traditional teams, must communicate through technology mediated tools. Often, this is cited as a disadvantage or challenge to GVTs team process. However, with continual technological advancements and increased usage, these tools may actually represent an advantage (Maynard et al., 2012).

Research shows that performance on complex tasks is highest when a variety of media is used (Dennis et al., 2008). As previously discussed, the mode of communication can vary in regards to the degree of synchronicity (Kirkman & Mathieu, 2005). Asynchronous communication (e.g., email, discussion boards) enables teams that are not collocated to send and receive messages at a time that is convenient with individual schedules. These tools allow conversation to be carried out over an extended period of time and enables members to easily share resources (e.g., documents). Therefore, they may facilitate the flow of information when GVT members span different times zones.

Synchronous communication (e.g., video-conferencing, chat), on the other hand, enables information exchange in real time and provides the opportunity for immediate feedback. It is often viewed as richer and allows inclusion of relevant social and nonverbal cues, thereby alleviating misunderstanding in GVTs. The different modes of communication each add unique value, and GVT members should have access to various tools when carrying out interdependent team tasks in order to be successful.

Furthermore, training should include the benefits and drawbacks of each type of communication mode, and clearly articulate the circumstances where each might be most beneficial.

Recommendation 6. Overcome Psychosocial Boundaries

As previously discussed, the nature of a GVT often impedes the development of affective states (i.e., trust, cohesion) that have proven to be valuable in traditional face-to-face teams. Lack of face-to-face contact, lack of prior history together or unfamiliarity among teammates, as well as reduced social interactions are all potential reasons for this issue. Fortunately, evidence suggests that, although GVTs may start with lower levels of trust toward teammates, this trust can increase over time to a level comparable to traditional teams (Wilson, Straus, & McEvily, 2006). Specifically, encouraging positive open communication behaviors between members may mitigate the negative effects of physical dispersion and foster the development of trust. Jarvenpaa and Leidner (1999) suggest that after the initial formation of a dispersed team, social communication should be encouraged. In addition, in order for communication to be effective, it must also be predictable, substantive, and timely. Therefore, leaders should encourage teams to set up communication rules and norms among members and avoid prolonged absences or delays of communication. Rules should include specifics on the content of the message as well as the expected pattern of exchange (Greenberg, Greenberg, & Antonucci, 2007). As virtual teams tend to provide more unique, task-related information than open communication (Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2011), open communication among team members needs to be encouraged to increase the amount of socialization in the GVT.

Social cohesion is formed on the basis of interpersonal interaction, and therefore suffers in GVTs as well. In order to overcome this challenge, GVTs should schedule regular team meetings and utilize information-rich media sources, such as video-conference software. This enables team members to see one another and therefore increase the presence of social context clues and nonverbal communication. During these meetings, team members should be encouraged to share personal information and have open communication in order to establish interpersonal relationships and build rapport.

Recommendation 7. Provide Tools that Foster Longitudinal Team Development

Team training programs are developed to enhance the onset of teamwork process and aid in team development. As previously stated, these training programs improve upon

a variety of training outcomes (e.g., Salas et al., 2008); however, it is important to provide trainees with job aids that will foster training transfer and enhance long-term team development. Particularly in GVTs, it is important to encourage team members to foster an environment supportive of the training content such that transfer and team development occur more naturally. Techniques such as feedback, debriefs (after-action reviews), and coaching should all be incorporated to reinforce the transfer of training to the GVT. Feedback can be delivered formally through debriefs or similar techniques, or informally by message exchange from a member of leadership to team members. These should be conducted regularly and simultaneously, when possible, to encourage discussion and reduce the feelings of isolation that can occur in GVTs. In either case, feedback should be focused on team processes rather than outcomes, be team- and task-work oriented, include both positive and negative actions and behaviors, and delivered in punctual manner (Smith-Jentsch et al., 1998, 2008). Moreover, it is also recommended for feedback to be clear, concise, and constructive (Salas, Kosarzycki, Burke, Fiore, & Stone, 2002).

Because GVT members lack face-to-face contact and communicate asynchronously, feelings of isolation may develop. As a result, team members may be less inclined to ask one another questions in regards to team goals and objectives. Providing consistent feedback to all team members may help to resolve any confusion regarding tasks, goals, objectives, or roles and responsibilities. Debriefs reinforce the use of team- and task-work processes and provide team members a chance to receive constructive criticism regarding performance, both as a whole and individually, which is particularly important in GVTs considering their dispersed and virtual nature. In addition to utilizing debriefs during the team training program, GVTs should also be provided with the requisite information on conducting debriefs after training (Salas, Tannenbaum, Kraiger, & Smith-Jentsch, 2012). Debriefs will provide GVT members the opportunity to collectively review their performance and develop a shared vision for future tasking (Smith-Jentsch et al., 2008). Research also suggests debriefs aid in the enhancement of team mental models and performance (Smith-Jentsch et al., 2008), and are a particularly helpful benefit for GVTs as it is more difficult for GVTs to develop SMMs. Because SMMs allow team members to perform effectively without the use of overt communication, the establishment of SMMs is a bigger concern for GVTs than traditional teams. Moreover, when members of GVTs make a decision affecting the entire team, many team members may be absent. Thus, it is imperative that GVTs develop strong SMMs to increase the likelihood of all team members having the same information and understanding as one another.

Team leaders are important for GVT success as they set team goals and objectives, assign roles and responsibilities, and monitor team progress. It is their responsibility to encourage open communication, particularly as virtual teams tend to share primarily unique information, to boost the development of trust and team cohesion. During a team training program, it is also important that team leaders are provided with the tools, training, and support to increase their coaching skills. This type of training will help GVT leaders to provide effective feedback and debriefs, given the environment in which the team exists. In sum, a team training program for GVTs

should not only train the team members on successful teamwork practices specific to the challenges faced in GVTs, but provide trainees with tools and job-aids which increase long-term teamwork effectiveness.

Future Research

The rise of globalization has led to an increase in GVTs and research aimed at understanding the processes and emergent states that lead to their success. Most GVTs fall within two categories, which may not be mutually exclusive: culturally diverse and virtually composed (Zander et al., 2012). Furthermore, GVT research is intriguing because it largely encompasses two bodies of research: virtuality and cross-cultural research. Although there is a heavy amount of research on cross-cultural teams, a smaller amount of research has been done on virtuality within teams and we still do not fully understand the impact of cultural diversity on teams. Furthermore, diversity within work teams has been conceptualized as a double-edged sword; it can lead to innovation and improved performance while hindering cohesion (Webber & Donahue, 2001). Future research should continue to investigate diversity within teams, specifically looking at culturally distinct teams that interact virtually.

Researchers should also continue investigating the impact that virtuality has on team performance, specifically focusing on computer-mediated communication and how it impacts team development. Communication is a core team process (Cannon-Bowers, Tannenbaum, Salas, & Volpe, 1995), and with new technological advancements, the way in which teams communicate, specifically virtual teams, has altered. Virtual teams are forced to use computer-mediated communication strategies and this method of communication may create issues related to team development and performance. For example, the inability of virtual teams to recognize social context clues can lead to distorted mental models and, in turn, team conflict. It is also important for researchers to identify effective strategies that can assist with communication issues and other issues that virtual, culturally diverse teams face.

In this chapter we have identified several training strategies that can be used to improve performance within GVTs. Although a significant amount of research has been done on team training, much remains to be investigated. Specifically, research is lacking regarding the implementation of team training within eastern cultures (Salas et al., 1999, 2006), and the absence of research within this area, we believe, may stem from team training programs not being successfully adapted and applied to eastern cultures. The recommendations outlined within this chapter begin to address this issue and provide information on how to adapt team training programs to various cultures. In turn, we suggest scholars utilize these recommendations and conduct research on team training programs within Eastern cultures. In addition, team training programs have seen limited success within geographically diverse, virtually interactive teams. With the growing popularity of virtual teams and the unique challenges that these teams face, it is important for researchers to investigate strategies that will aid in the management of these issues.

Practical Implications

As the twenty-first century market becomes more competitive, companies are consistently searching for novel ideas and technological advancements in order to increase their performance and, ultimately, their profit. Consequently, GVTs are being looked at as an innovative way for organizations to operate because of the opportunity for diversity (functionally, geographically, and culturally) they offer and the amount of money that can be saved (Tannenbaum et al., 2012). In fact, some organizations are operating almost exclusively through the use of GVTs and their rate of use is increasing more quickly than the rate at which researchers are able to investigate them (Zander et al., 2012). The challenges that GVTs face in comparison to collocated teams have been identified; however, the best way to overcome these challenges has yet to be determined. In this chapter, we have suggested several team training strategies and recommendations that, if implemented correctly, may ameliorate the onset of these challenges.

Many of the issues that GVTs face are related to teamwork competencies (e.g., communication, trust, cohesion, collective identity), and these same KSAs are the focus of teamwork training programs (Salas et al., 2006). There has been little evidence of team training within GVTs and, because it addresses most of the key challenges that these teams face, we hypothesize that it will be highly successful if adapted correctly. In fact, implementing team training programs in GVT development has the potential to have groundbreaking results. As previously stated, organizations are continuously searching for innovative techniques that will increase their performance and, in turn, generate profit. Team training programs have proven to be successful within multiple domains and it is only a matter of time before it will prove to be effective in GVTs.

Conclusion

This chapter highlights the challenges of GVTs and outlines the potential advantages team training may provide for them. GVTs have begun to inundate organizations in order to increase diversity and decrease expenses (Tannenbaum et al., 2012). However, GVTs also bring a new set of challenges to the work force, including issues related to communication, trust, cohesion, SMMs, and other teamwork competencies. The goal of this chapter was to identify and describe team training strategies that may address these issues and provide recommendations as to how to utilize these methods within GVTs. Currently, additional research is needed on team training programs within culturally diverse and virtually functioning teams; however, there is enough current research to begin the process of training these teams to operate effectively.

Acknowledgement This work was partially supported by National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) Grant NNX09AK48G to the University of Central Florida.

References

- Adelman, L., Zirk, D. A., Lehner, O. E., Moffett, R. J., & Hall, R. (1986). Distributed tactical decision-making: Conceptual framework and empirical results. *IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics, SMC-16*, 794–805.
- Alge, B. J., Wiethoff, C., & Klein, H. J. (2003). When does the medium matter? Knowledge-building experiences and opportunities in decision-making teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 91*(1), 26–37.
- Antai-Otong, D. (1997). Team building in a health care setting. *The American Journal of Nursing, 97*(7), 48–51.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership, theory, research, and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: Free Press.
- Blickensderfer, E., Cannon-Bowers, J. A., & Salas, E. (1998). Cross-training and team performance. In J. A. Cannon-Bowers & E. Salas (Eds.), *Making decisions under stress: Implications for individual and team training* (pp. 299–311). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Burke, C. S., Stagl, K. C., Salas, E., Pierce, L., & Kendall, D. (2006). Understanding team adaptation: A conceptual analysis and model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(6), 1189.
- Caminiti, S. (1995). What team leaders need to know. *Fortune, 131*(3), 93–94.
- Cannon-Bowers, J. A., Tannenbaum, S. I., Salas, E., & Volpe, C. E. (1995). Defining competencies and establishing team training requirements. *Team Effectiveness and Decision Making in Organizations, 333*, p 380.
- Cannon-Bowers, J. A., & Salas, E. E. (1998). *Making decisions under stress: Implications for individual and team training*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Cannon-Bowers, J. A., & Salas, E. (2001). Team effectiveness and competencies. *International Encyclopedia of Ergonomics and Human Factors, 1383–1384*.
- Carless, S. A., & De Paola, C. (2000). The measurement of cohesion in work teams. *Small Group Research, 31*(1), 71–88.
- Cohen, D., & Alonso, A. (2013). Virtual teams: The How To's of making “Being Virtually There” successful. In E. Salas, S. Tannenbaum, D. Cohen, & G. Latham (Eds.), *Developing and enhancing high-performance teams: Evidence-based practices and recommendations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Costa, A. C. (2003). Work team trust and effectiveness. *Personnel Review, 32*(5), 605–622.
- Cummings, L. L., & Bromiley, P. (1996). The organizational trust inventory (OTI). *Trust in Organizations: Frontiers of Theory and Research, 302*, 330.
- Curseu, P. L. (2006). Need for cognition and rationality in decision-making. *Studia Psychologica, 48*(2), 141–156.
- Daft, R., & Lengel, R. (1986). Organizational information requirements, media richness, and structural design. *Management Science, 32*, 554–571.
- De Dreu, C. K. W., & Weingart, L. R. (2003). Task versus relationship conflict, team performance, and team member satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(4), 741–749.
- Dennis, A. R., Fuller, R. M., & Valacich, J. S. (2008). Media, tasks, and communication processes: A theory of media synchronicity. *MIS Quarterly, 32*(3), 575–600.
- Devine, D. J. (2002). A review and integration of classification systems relevant to teams in organizations. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 6*, 291–310.
- Dorfman, P., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., Dastmalchian, A., & House, R. (2012). Globe: A twenty year journey into the intriguing world of culture and leadership. *Journal of World Business, 47*(4), 504–518.
- Driskell, J. E., & Salas, E. (1992). Collective behavior and team performance. *Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society, 34*(3), 277–288.
- Driskell, J. E., & Salas, E. E. (1996). *Stress and human performance*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Duarte, D. L., & Snyder, N. T. (2011). *Mastering virtual teams: Strategies, tools, and techniques that succeed*. New York: Wiley.
- Dunning, J. H. (2002). *Regions, globalization, and the knowledge-based economy*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Dwyer, D. J., Oser, R. L., Salas, E., & Fowlkes, J. E. (1999). Performance measurement in distributed environments: Initial results and implications for training. *Military Psychology, 11*(2), 189–215.
- Earley, P. C. (1989). Social loafing and collectivism: A comparison of the United States and the People's Republic of China. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 34*, 565–581.
- Earley, P. C. (1999). Playing follow the leader: Status-determining traits in relation to collective efficacy across cultures. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 80*(3), 192–212.
- Ellis, A. P. J. (2006). System breakdown: The role of mental models and transactive memory in the relationship between acute stress and team performance. *Academy of Management Journal (3)*, 576–589.
- Fischer, M. (2013). Language choice as a potential source of Intercultural discord in English-Mandarin business encounters. *China New Media*.
- Fleishman, E. A., & Zaccaro, S. J. (1992). Toward a taxonomy of team performance functions. In R. W. Swezey & E. Salas (Eds.), *Teams: Their training and performance*. Stamford, CT: Ablex.
- Fowlkes, J. E., Lane, N. E., Salas, E., Franz, T., & Oser, R. (1994). Improving the measurement of team performance: *The targets methodology*. *Military Psychology, 6*(1), 47–61.
- Fowlkes, J., Dwyer, D. J., Oser, R. L., & Salas, E. (1998). Event-based approach to training (EBAT). *The International Journal of Aviation Psychology, 8*(3), 209–221.
- Gibbs, J. (2009). Dialectics in a global software team: Negotiating tensions across time, space, and culture. *Human Relations, 62*(6), 905–935.
- Gibson, C. B., & Zellmer-Bruhn, M. E. (2001). Metaphors and meaning: An intercultural analysis of the concept of teamwork. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 46*(2), 274–303.
- Glassop, L. I. (2002). The organizational benefits of teams. *Human Relations, 55*(2), 225–249.
- Gluesing, J. C., & Gibson, C. B. (2004). Designing and forming global teams. In H. W. Lane, M. Maznevski, M. Mendenhall, & J. McNett (Eds.), *The Blackwell handbook of global management: A guide to managing complexity* (pp. 199–226). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Goncalo, J. A., & Staw, B. M. (2006). Individualism-collectivism and group creativity. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 100*, 96–109.
- Govindarajan, V., & Gupta, A. K. (2001). Building an effective global business team. *MIT Sloan Management Review, 42*(4), 63–71.
- Greenberg, P.S., Greenberg, R.H., & Antonucci, Y.L. (2007). Creating and sustaining trust in virtual teams. *Business Horizons, 50*(4), 325–333.
- Gregorich, S. E., Helmreich, R. L., & Wilhelm, J. A. (1990). The structure of cockpit management attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*, 682–690.
- Gunawardena, C., & Zittle, F. (1997). Social presence as a predictor of satisfaction within a computer mediated conferencing environment. *American Journal of Distance Education, 11*(3), 8–26.
- Gundlach, M., Zivnuska, S., & Stoner, J. (2006). Understanding the relationship between individualism-collectivism and team performance through an integration of social identity theory and the social relations model. *Human Relations, 59*(12), 1603–1632.
- Guzzo, R. A., Yost, P. R., Campbell, R. J., & Shea, J. P. (1994). Potency in groups: Articulating the construct. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 32*, 87–106.
- Hackman, J. R. (1990). *Groups that work (and those that don't): Creating conditions for effective teamwork*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., Knoll, K., & Leidner, D. E. (1998). Is anybody out there? Antecedents of trust in global. *Journal of Management Information Systems/Spring, 4*(4), 29–64.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., & Leidner, D. E. (1999). Communication and trust in global virtual teams. *Organization Science, 10*(6), 791–815.
- Johnson, K. L., Carr, J. F., Day, M. S., & Kaashoek, M. F. (2001). The measured performance of content distribution networks. *Computer Communications, 24*(2), 202–206.

- Jung, D. I., & Avolio, B. J. (1999). Effects of leadership style and follower's cultural orientation on performance in group and individual task conditions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42(2), 208–218.
- Kirkman, B. L., Chen, G., Farh, J. L., Chen, Z. X., & Lowe, K. B. (2009). Individual power distance orientation and follower reactions to transformational leaders: A cross-level, cross-cultural examination. *Academy of Management*, 52(4), 744–764.
- Kirkman, B. L., & Mathieu, J. E. (2005). The dimensions and antecedents of team virtuality. *Journal of Management*, 31(5), 700–718.
- Kirkman, B. L., Rosen, B., Gibson, C. B., Tesluk, P. E., & McPherson, S. O. (2002). Five challenges to virtual team success: Lessons from Sabre, Inc. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 16(3), 67–79.
- Kleinman, D. L., & Serfaty, D. (1989, April). Team performance assessment in distributed decisionmaking. In *Proceedings of the Symposium on Interactive Networked Simulation for Training* (pp. 22–27). Orlando: University of Central Florida
- Klimoski, R., & Mohammed, S. (1994). Team mental model: Construct or metaphor? *Journal of Management*, 20(2), 403–437.
- Kozlowski, S. W., Gully, S. M., McHugh, P. P., Salas, E., & Cannon-Bowers, J. A. (1996). A dynamic theory of leadership and team effectiveness: Developmental and task contingent leader roles. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 14, 253–306.
- Lin, C., Standing, C., & Liu, Y. C. (2008). A model to develop effective virtual teams. *Decision Support Systems*, 45(4), 1031–1045.
- Lipnack, J., & Stamps, J. (1997). *Virtual teams: Reaching across space, time, and organizations with technology*. New York: Wiley.
- Marks, M. A., Sabella, M. J., Burke, C. S., & Zaccero, S. J. (2002). The impact of cross-training on team effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(1), 3.
- Mathieu, J. E., Heffner, T. S., Goodwin, G. F., Salas, E., & Cannon-Bowers, J. A. (2000). The influence of shared mental models on team process and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 273–283.
- Maynard, M.T., Mathieu, J.E., Rapp, T.L., & Gilson, L.L. (2012). Something(s) old and something(s) new: Modeling drivers of global virtual team effectiveness. *Journal of Organized Behavior*, 33(3), 342–365.
- McIntyre, R. M., & Salas, E. (1995). Measuring and managing for team performance: Emerging principles from complex environments. In R. A. Guzzo & E. Salas (Eds.), *Team effectiveness and decision making in organizations* (pp. 9–45). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mesmer-Magnus, J. R., DeChurch, L. A., Jimenez-Rodriguez, M., Wildman, J., & Shuffler, M. (2011). A meta-analytic investigation of virtuality and information sharing in teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 115(2), 214–225.
- Mullen, B., & Copper, C. (1994). The relation between group cohesiveness and performance: An integration. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115, 210–227.
- National Foreign Trade Council (2007). *The United States and global trade: A state legislator's guide to maximizing economic opportunity through trade* (pp. 1–28).
- Orasanu, J. (1994). Shared problem models and flight crew performance. In N. Johnston, N. McDonald, & R. Fuller (Eds.), *Aviation psychology in practice* (pp. 255–285). Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Oser, R. L., Gualtieri, J. W., Cannon-Bowers, J. A., & Salas, E. (1999). Training team problem solving skills: An event-based approach. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 15(3), 441–462.
- Oser, R. L., McCallum, G. A., Salas, E., & Morgan Jr, B. B. (1989). *Toward a definition of teamwork: An analysis of critical team behaviors*. (NTSC Technical Report No. 89-004). Orlando, FL: Naval Training Systems Center.
- Peterson, R. S., & Behfar, K. J. (2003). The dynamic relationship between performance feedback, trust, and conflict in groups: A longitudinal study. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 92(1), 102–112.
- Pillai, R., & Meindl, J. R. (1998). Context and charisma: A “meso” level examination of the relationship of organic structure, collectivism, and crisis to charismatic leadership. *Journal of Management*, 24(5), 643–671.

- Politis, J. D. (2003). The connection between trust and knowledge management: What are its implications for team performance. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 7(5), 55–66.
- Polletta, F., & Jasper, J. M. (2001). Collective identity and social movements. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 27, 283–305.
- Pratt, M. G. (2003). Disentangling collective identities. *Research on Managing Groups and Teams*, 5, 161–188.
- Prince, C. W., & Salas, E. (1993). Training and research for teamwork in the military aircrew. In E. Wiener, B. Kanki, & R. Helmreich (Eds.), *Cockpit resource management* (pp. 337–366). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Ray, R. G., Hines, J., & Wilcox, D. (1994). Training internal facilitators. *Training & Development*, 48(11), 45–48.
- Ridings, C. M., Gefen, D., & Arinze, B. (2002). Some antecedents and effects of trust in virtual communities. *The Journal of Strategic Information Systems*, 11(3), 271–295.
- Rouse, W. B., Cannon-Bowers, J. A., & Salas, E. (1992). The role of mental models in team performance in complex systems. *IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics*, 22(6), 1296–1308.
- Salas, E., Burke, C. S., & Cannon-Bowers, J. A. (2000). Teamwork: Emerging principles. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 2(4), 339–356.
- Salas, E., DiazGranados, D., Klein, C., Burke, C. S., Stagl, K. C., Goodwin, G. F., et al. (2008). Does team training improve team performance? A meta-analysis. *Human Factors*, 50(6), 903–933.
- Salas, E., Fowlkes, J. E., Stout, R. J., Milanovich, D. M., & Prince, C. (1999). Does CRM training improve teamwork skills in the cockpit?: Two evaluation studies. *Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society*, 41(2), 326–343.
- Salas, E., Kosarzycki, M. P., Burke, C. S., Fiore, S. M., & Stone, D. L. (2002). Emerging themes in distance learning research and practice: Some food for thought. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 4(2), 135–153.
- Salas, E., Nichols, D. R., & Driskell, J. E. (2007). Testing three team training strategies in intact teams a meta-analysis. *Small Group Research*, 38(4), 471–488.
- Salas, E., Tannenbaum, S. I., Kraiger, K., & Smith-Jentsch, K. A. (2012). The science of training and development in organizations: What matters in practice. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 13, 74–101.
- Salas, E., Wilson, K. A., Burke, C. S., & Wightman, D. C. (2006). Does crew resource management training work? An update, an extension, and some critical needs. *Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society*, 48(2), 392–412.
- Schaubroeck, J., Lam, S. S., & Cha, S. E. (2007). Embracing transformational leadership: Team values and the impact of leader behavior on team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4), 1020–1030.
- Sims, D. E., Salas, E., Burke, C. S., & Wheelan, S. A. (2005). Promoting effective team performance through training. In S. A. Wheelan (Ed.), *The handbook of group research and practice* (pp. 407–425). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Smith-Jentsch, K. A., Cannon-Bowers, J. A., Tannenbaum, S. I., & Salas, E. (2008). Guided team self-correction impacts on team mental models, processes, and effectiveness. *Small Group Research*, 39(3), 303–327.
- Smith-Jentsch, K. A., Salas, E., & Baker, D. P. (1996). Training team performance-related assertiveness. *Personnel Psychology*, 49(4), 909–936.
- Smith-Jentsch, K. A., Zeisig, R. L., Acton, B., & McPherson, J. A. (1998). Team dimensional training: A strategy for guided team self-correction. In J. A. Cannon-Bowers & E. Salas (Eds.), *Making decisions under stress: Implications for individual and team training*. Washington, DC: APA Press.
- Stagl, K. C., & Salas, E. (2001). Team effectiveness in organizations: Current research and practice. *International Encyclopedia of Ergonomics and Human Factors*, 2384–2389.
- Stout, R. J., Cannon-Bowers, J. A., Salas, E., & Milanovich, D. M. (1999). Planning, shared mental models, and coordinated performance: An empirical link is established. *Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society*, 41(1), 61–71.

- Stout, R. J., Salas, E., & Fowlkes, J. E. (1997). Enhancing teamwork in complex environments through team training. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 1(2), 169.
- Straus, S. G., & Olivera, F. (2001). Knowledge acquisition in virtual teams. *Research on Managing Groups and Teams*, 3, 257–282.
- Sullivan, J., Suzuki, T., & Kondo, Y. (1985). Managerial theories of the performance control process in Japanese and American work groups. *Academy of Management Proceedings* (00650668), pp. 98–102.
- Sundstrom, E., McIntyre, M., Halfhill, T., & Richards, H. (2000). Work groups: From the Hawthorne studies to work teams of the 1990s and beyond. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 4, 44–67.
- Tannenbaum, S. I., Mathieu, J. E., Salas, E., & Cohen, D. (2012). Teams are changing: Are research and practice evolving fast enough? *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 5(1), 2–24.
- Tannenbaum, S. I., Smith-Jentsch, K. A., & Behson, S. J. (1998). Training team leaders to facilitate team learning and performance. In J. A. Cannon-Bowers & E. Salas (Eds.), *Making decisions under stress: Implications for individual and team training* (pp. 247–270). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Tyran, K. L., Tyran, C. K., & Shepherd, M. (2003). Exploring emerging leadership in virtual teams. In C. B. Gibson & C. B. Cohen (Eds.), *Virtual teams that work: Creating conditions for virtual team effectiveness* (pp. 183–195). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Volpe, C. E., Cannon-Bowers, J. A., Salas, E., & Spector, P. E. (1996). The impact of cross-training on team functioning: An empirical investigation. *Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society*, 38(1), 87–100.
- Webber, S. S., & Donahue, L. M. (2001). Impact of highly and less job-related diversity on work group cohesion and performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Management*, 27(2), 141–162.
- Wildman, J. L., Thayer, A. L., Rosen, M. A., Salas, E., Mathieu, J. E., & Rayne, S. R. (2011). Task types and team-level attributes: Synthesis of team classification literature. *Human Resource Development Review*, 11, 97–129.
- Wilson, K. A., Burke, C. S., Priest, H. A., & Salas, E. (2005). Promoting health care safety through training high reliability teams. *Quality and Safety in Health Care*, 14(4), 303–309.
- Wilson, J. M., Straus, S. G., & McEvily, B. (2006). All in due time: The development of trust in computer-mediated and face-to-face teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 99(1), 16–33.
- Xiao, Y., Hunter, W. A., Mackenzie, C. F., Jefferies, N. J., & Horst, R. L. (1996). Task complexity in emergency medical care and its implications for team coordination. *Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society*, 38(4), 636–645.
- Yanson, R. (2013). The relationship between training design and trainee differences on training outcomes: An experimental investigation of the treatment of socialization and training content in the e-learning environment. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A*, 73.
- Zander, L., Mockaitis, A. I., & Butler, C. L. (2012). Leading global teams. *Journal of World Business*, 47(4), 592–603.
- Zhou, W., & Shi, X. (2011). Special Review Article: Culture in groups and teams: A review of three decades of research. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 11(1), 5–34.

Chapter 6

Developing Cross-Cultural Competencies Through Global Teams

Paula Caligiuri and Kyle Lundby

Developing employees' cross-cultural competencies is critical for multinational companies' (MNCs) success given that there is a current dearth of globally competent business professionals, and this talent shortage is negatively affecting organizations' ability to compete globally and execute their plans for strategic growth. Global CEOs from more than fifty countries named their associates ability to manage within diverse cultures as one of the top concerns threatening the competitive success of their organizations (PriceWaterhouseCoopers, 2007). This has led to a talent development need: "Addressing the global-leadership gap must be an urgent priority for companies expanding their geographic reach" (Ghemawat, 2012, p. 10). Specifically, organizations need more people in their organizations who can effectively manage the complexity of foreign environments, negotiate cultural challenges, and who understand potentially conflicting regulatory requirements and stakeholder demands in foreign countries (PriceWaterhouseCoopers, 2007). Success in these tasks requires managers and business leaders to possess *cross-cultural competencies* and organizations are actively designing developmental opportunities to efficiently build cross-cultural competencies into the workforce. For the purpose of this chapter, we are focusing on one such initiative: participation in global teams. When designed well, participation in global teams is a developmental opportunity (DeRue & Wellman, 2009; McCauley, Ruderman, Ohlott, & Morrow, 1994) that can help facilitate the development of cross-cultural competencies.

The use of global teams is ever present in contemporary MNCs. With advances in collaborative technologies and a greater need to source talent from around the world,

P. Caligiuri, Ph.D. (✉)

D'Amore-McKim School of Business, Northeastern University,
360 Huntington Avenue, Boston, MA 02115, USA
e-mail: p.caligiuri@neu.edu

K. Lundby, Ph.D.

Global Aspect Human Capital Advisors, 4201 Forest Edge Trail, Durham, NC 27705, USA
e-mail: klundby@globalaspect-hca.com

geographically distributed or global teams have become commonplace in organizations operating globally. Global teams are characterized by two or more members located in more than two countries. The team members share common goals and must depend on each other to accomplish them (Ilgen, 1999). Meta-analyses have demonstrated that global teams can increase creativity, thus increasing the exchange of diverse ideas and information and creating more novel decisions and solutions (Stahl, Maznevski, Voight, & Jonsen, 2010). At the individual level, global teams can also be highly developmental, helping team members build their professional networks and develop their cross-cultural competencies so critical for global leadership activities. This chapter will focus on how these cross-cultural competencies can be developed through the participation in global teams. We begin this chapter by first defining three major categories of cross-cultural competencies and describing the way in which these competencies are developed. Namely, we will discuss how attributes of the individual team members and the attributes of the developmental experience can affect the development of team members' cross-cultural competencies. The chapter concludes with the specific features of the global teams that, when present, should enhance the development of cross-cultural competencies among team members.

Cross-Cultural Competencies Defined

Research on those who work in a cross-cultural context, such as members of global teams in multinational corporations, suggests that individuals who are effective in cross-cultural settings share certain cross-cultural competencies enabling them to demonstrate good personal adjustment in multicultural situations, to foster interpersonal relationships with people who are culturally diverse, and to effectively accomplish goals in international and multicultural settings (Thomas et al., 2008). Thus, cross-cultural competencies enable professionals to perform well and have greater ease on job tasks performed internationally and interculturally, enable professionals to work comfortably and effectively in different countries and with people from diverse cultures. Bird (2013) identified over 160 cross-cultural competencies and organized them into three primary categories: self-management, managing relationships and teams, and managing business decisions. While a review of 160 competencies is beyond the scope of this chapter (and the conceptual overlap among them is high), we can consider the broad definition of each category and the sample cross-cultural competencies within each of the categories.

Self-Management. The first set of cross-cultural competencies organizations hope to develop through the participation in global teams (and other experiential opportunities) is in the category of self-management or the ability to manage one's own emotional and cognitive responses within the ambiguity of a cross-cultural context. Positively affecting individuals' psychological ease in cross-cultural settings, cross-cultural competencies such as tolerance of ambiguity and appropriate self-efficacy enable individuals to maintain their composure and adjust to the ambiguity of work-

ing in multicultural and intercultural environments (Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou, 2010; Caligiuri, 2012). Global professionals with a higher tolerance of ambiguity are more comfortable in situations that are unfamiliar or when people or cues cannot be readily understood or familiar cues are lacking. Having an appropriate self-efficacy enables global professionals to respond to those from different cultures with greater humility and lower ethnocentrism. Those with appropriate self-efficacy may not fully understand a new situation or culture but they possess the confidence that—in time—they can learn to operate effectively and in a culturally appropriate manner in the new environment.

The need for self-management to facilitate psychological ease in cross-cultural situations is especially apparent in the international context. This need is particularly strong in expatriates, those who are living and working internationally. Research has found that expatriates experience significant and negative physiological changes in their stress hormones, including increases in prolactin levels and decreases in testosterone levels when compared to individuals who are living in their home countries (Anderzen & Arnetz, 1999). Cross-cultural competencies such as tolerance of ambiguity and self-efficacy enable global team members, expatriates, short-term assignees, and others in culturally diverse environments to work effectively in different cultures and with people from different cultures. These competencies help mitigate this stress caused by the ambiguity of the foreign environment, help individuals become better adjusted, and manage their emotional and cognitive responses through more effective emotional recognition and regulation (Matsumoto et al., 2001, 2003; Yoo, Matsumoto, & LeRoux, 2006).

Managing Relationships. Moving beyond oneself, success in international and multicultural activities requires individuals to successfully foster relationships with coworkers, clients, teammates, and others who are culturally different from themselves. Effective relationship management is particularly important for individuals who work in global teams because individuals are embedded in a multicultural setting with people from different countries who do not necessarily have direct face-to-face contact with one another. The cultural diversity, coupled with the distance, requires a greater need for trust, collaboration, and coordination among team members. The cross-cultural competencies affecting cross-cultural interactions and relationships include perspective taking and valuing diversity. Perspective taking enables individuals to understand as valid, but not necessarily agree with, the attitudes, motivations, and values of others that are potentially different and possibly opposite from their own. Those who value diversity would take those same differences and believe that there is something to be gained from the variation in individuals' perspectives. These cross-cultural competencies positively affect individuals' multicultural and intercultural interactions and their ability to build strong dyadic relationships with people from different cultures (Bird et al., 2010; Caligiuri, 2012).

These relationship-oriented competencies were found to be particularly important across a variety of international and multicultural contexts. Among expatriates, for example, those who are people oriented were more successful and better adjusted to working internationally (Black, 1988; Caligiuri, 2000a, 2000b; Shaffer, Harrison,

Gregersen, Black, & Ferzandi, 2006). In a military context, researchers found that relationship-oriented cross-cultural competencies such as rapport building and perspective taking differentiated cross-culturally effective soldiers from those who are less effective by enabling individuals to develop relationships in different cultures and with people from different cultures (McCloskey, Behymer, Papautsky, Ross, & Abbe, 2010).

Managing Business Decisions. Another set of cross-cultural competencies are those affecting the business decisions individuals make in international and multicultural contexts. These cross-cultural competencies include willingness to adopt diverse ideas, ability to think outside the box, and operate with a deep understanding of international business. Individuals working with people from different cultures, such as those who work in global teams, need these competencies to integrate a wide range of dynamic factors from the organization and its subsidiaries, various members' perspectives, and the like. Collectively these cross-cultural competencies suggest a high level of cognitive complexity, which enables global professionals to understand and integrate broader bases of knowledge, and balance the demands of global integration with local responsiveness (Levy, Beechler, Taylor, & Boyacigiller, 2007). In the team context, these cross-cultural competencies enable global team members to work more effectively because they facilitate an enterprise-wide or project-based mind-set over a more narrow and local perspective (Bird et al., 2010; Caligiuri, 2012).

Developing Cross-Cultural Competencies

In this section of the chapter we will discuss each of the three factors affecting who will develop their cross-cultural competencies. First, we will discuss how certain people are able to more readily build their proficiency in cross-cultural competencies when they already possess the more basic immutable personality characteristics comprising cross-cultural competencies. Second, we will highlight how global teams can be designed with *developmental properties* to facilitate the greatest possible development of team members' cross-cultural competencies. Lastly, we discuss the *organizational climate* in which the global teams operate and how leaders' actions and priorities (i.e., their own behaviors and what they recognize and reward in others') will affect the team members' development of cross-cultural competencies.

Personality Characteristics to Foster the Development of Cross-Cultural Competencies

The challenge of developing cross-cultural competencies is embedded in the fact that each competency—and not just cross-cultural competencies—is composed of knowledge, skills, abilities, and other individual characteristics (KSAOs) and these KSAOs range on the extent to which they can develop and change. For competencies which are more knowledge based, at one extreme, training might suffice to promote

development of the competencies. At the other extreme, competencies which are more personality based, the probability of those changing exclusively through training is comparatively low. This is particularly noteworthy because each cross-cultural competency we have studied, namely, cultural flexibility, cultural humility, and tolerance of ambiguity, have a significant element of personality in their composition (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009, 2012).

There are three personality traits that can directly affect success in multicultural activities, such as working on international assignments and with teammates from different cultures. They are extraversion, openness, and emotional stability (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009, 2012; Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999; Shaffer et al., 2006). Let's consider each, in turn. Individuals who are higher in *extraversion* are comfortable in social settings and seek to form interpersonal relationships with colleagues from different cultures. Extroverts tend to effectively integrate various social cultures when collaborating with others from diverse cultures (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009, 2012; Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999; Shaffer et al., 2006). Individuals higher in *openness* are more likely to be receptive to and interested in integrating new and different ways of doing things and are more likely to be comfortable with the uncertainty inherent in cross-cultural situations when social cues are not fully understood (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009, 2012; Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999; Shaffer et al., 2006). Likewise, *emotional stability* increases individuals' psychological comfort when working with others from different cultures (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009, 2012; Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999; Shaffer et al., 2006).

While currently understood as predictors of success in multicultural environments, we believe that these same personality traits can also directly affect the acquisition of cross-cultural competencies. To illustrate this let's consider the example of "tolerance of ambiguity," the ability to manage ambiguous, new, different, and unpredictable situations. Individuals with a greater level of tolerance for ambiguity are more likely to effectively manage the stress of uncertain environments and to be more adaptive and receptive to change (Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999). Tolerance of ambiguity, as a competency, is partially comprised of the personality characteristic *emotional stability* (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009, 2012). Tolerance of ambiguity, however, is not exclusively personality based. It is also comprised of cultural understanding which is rooted in knowledge—and more likely to be gained through training and traditional developmental opportunities. Taken together, some portion of tolerance of ambiguity could be developed through cross-cultural training, some portion of it would require deeper developmental experience, such as participation on a global team, and some portion of it would be present in those who possess emotional stability. A person with the necessary personality traits (such as emotional stability in the present example) who has been given the appropriate training and developmental opportunities would be the most likely to gain this cross-cultural competency.

Given that these personality characteristics may be necessary for cross-cultural competency development to occur and that personality characteristics are not likely going to change from the typical training and development methods, we recommend the following:

1. If possible, select team members for cross-cultural competencies and their underlying personality characteristics using validated tests, structured interviews, and assessment centers.

2. When selection is not possible, use assessment of cross-cultural competencies and personality traits as the team is forming. Sharing results of the assessment will help build awareness of the team's strengths and weaknesses and enable targeted individual and team-level interventions. Through open dialog and consideration of these differences, team members can anticipate potential problem areas and create strategies to effectively leverage the differences.
3. When a team is already in place, use assessment to help team members diagnose challenges and target interventions such as cross-cultural training or coaching.

The Developmental Properties of Cross-Cultural Experiences

Participation in a global team could be considered a cross-cultural experiential opportunity. Cross-cultural experiential opportunities are any work experiences occurring in an international or multicultural global work context (Dragoni et al., 2012) that vary in terms of the duration, type, and developmental properties (Caligiuri & Dragoni, *in press*). Like muscles being trained through physical exercise, research has shown that cross-cultural experiential opportunities can build cross-cultural competencies by leveraging participants' existing cross-cultural competencies and knowledge absorption abilities, such as valuing different cultures, building relationships, listening and observing, coping with ambiguity, managing others, translating complex ideas, and taking action (Kayes, Kayes, & Yamazaki, 2005).

To extract developmental value from participation in global teams, it is important to understand the way in which cross-cultural experiences lead to the development of cross-cultural competencies through opportunities to work with colleagues from different cultures. Two theories provide the theoretical basis for understanding how the development of cross-cultural competencies can occur through global teams as team members interact with fellow team members from different cultures in significant, peer-level experiences. They are social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and the contact hypothesis (Allport, 1954).

Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) proposes that individuals learn and develop by engaging with their surroundings and the people therein. Applied to the development of cross-cultural competencies, learning occurs when team members can practice their newly learned behaviors in the intercultural or multicultural context, when they can receive feedback (e.g., from fellow team members or team leaders), and when the environment is professionally, psychologically, and emotionally safe to take risks, act authentically, and possibly make a mistake (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; Maznewski & DiStefano, 2000). Across developmental opportunities, access to feedback is critical when managers are engaged in challenging stretch assignments, such as participation in a global team (DeRue & Wellman, 2009).

From the perspective of development, the principles of the contact hypothesis lead to the same conclusion as the application of social learning theory—that high contact is critical for the development of cross-cultural competencies. The contact hypothesis suggests that the more peer-level interaction people have with others

from a given cultural group, the more positive their attitudes will be toward people from that culture (Amir, 1969). However, merely having contact with individuals from another culture is not enough. The contact experiences should offer meaningful peer-level interactions, opportunities to work together toward a common goal, and an environment that supports the interactions (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006).

Taken together and applied to participation in global teams, social learning theory and the contact hypothesis suggest that participation in global teams can be developmental when structured with an eye toward development. We recommend:

1. At the onset of the team formation, allow team members to engage in significant and meaningful interactions with fellow team members from different cultures to learn more about each other's culture and build trust. At this early stage, however, team members may not spontaneously or proactively probe for better understanding of cultural differences. For example, they may view such questions as too personal and therefore off limits or they simply may not be thinking in terms of cultural differences (particularly individuals who have limited experience in multicultural situations). If this is the case, a team leader or team member with strong facilitation skills can help set the stage by broaching the topic and making others feel safe to have such discussions.
2. While the team is working together, create a team-level mechanism to capture and disseminate knowledge such that each team member can identify, learn, and apply various approaches gleaned from their fellow team members.
3. Allow teams the time to consciously develop their own team-level social norms which integrate the multiple cultural norms and behaviors from the team members. Reflection on the group norms relative to the individual norms will help members appreciate which members are being asked to stretch their own cultural norms on behalf of the group.
4. Connecting this with the previous section, select team members for personality traits to accelerate the development of cross-cultural competencies during the participation in the global team by encouraging a greater number of meaningful interactions and facilitating greater openness and willingness to try new ways of collaborating.

Organizational Climate to Support the Development of Cross-Cultural Competencies

The two previous sections introduced the idea that the “right” person, when given the right cross-cultural development experience, would develop cross-cultural competencies. These practices, however, do not happen in a vacuum and apart from the organization's overarching norms and values (i.e., its “organizational” culture) and specific workgroup climate. Organizational culture and climate can facilitate development of cross-cultural competencies when leaders, supervisors, and work units reinforce the importance of these competencies and support the overarching

goal of their development with necessary resources, training, and the like. For example, team leaders can take the time to work through the cultural differences in communication and collaboration and to encourage a shared identity for the members of the global team. They can also demonstrate commitment to cross-cultural collaboration by investing in ways to facilitate collaboration with colleagues around the world or by investing in some trust-building face-time opportunities. Senior leaders can reinforce the importance of cross-cultural teamwork by investing time and resources (new technology, cross-cultural training, etc.) to facilitate global work and by communicating the importance of international and cross-cultural collaboration. Above all, the team leaders can be a source of critical feedback to team members, especially important for competency development from the more challenging global teams (DeRue & Wellman, 2009).

To identify the specific factors of organizational climate which affects the development of cross-cultural competencies, we conducted a global study of over 1,200 professionals using the Cultural Agility Climate Index (CACI; Lundby & Caligiuri, 2013a, 2013b). This index examined five dimensions of the climate to foster cross-cultural competencies: three dimensions of the CACI are people related, including work unit colleagues, direct supervisors, and organization leaders. The fourth dimension is the organization's effectiveness in providing the necessary tools and training to facilitate global work. The fifth dimension is the organization's overall global competitiveness, as rated by the global employees themselves. Relative weights analysis (Lundby & Johnson, 2006) revealed that senior leaders are the most important factor in promoting the perception of global effectiveness. Specifically, we found that employees need to have confidence in their senior leaders' abilities to lead globally, perceive that their leaders are open to diverse ways of thinking and behaving, and perceive their leaders to demonstrate the importance of globalization. The second most important factor for promoting a perception of global effectiveness among employees had to do with tools and training. Specifically, when employees felt that they had the necessary tools and cross-cultural training, they were significantly more positive about the global capabilities of their organization. Together, these suggest that global team leaders have an important role to ensure the team members understand the importance of cross-cultural competence and also to ensure that the team members have the tools and training necessary to collaborate and communicate effectively.

The findings from our climate study suggest a series of practical recommendations to increase the extent to which global teams will foster the development of cross-cultural competencies:

1. Organization and team leaders should establish the clear imperative for cross-cultural competencies by communicating the strategic need for such competencies in the long-term goals of the firm and provide a vision for the team's global reach. Through reward and recognition, organizations can hold the individual leaders accountable for fostering a climate that supports the development of cross-cultural competencies.
2. Teams should be provided with the collaboration tools, cross-cultural training, and other resources to work across cultures and geographies. The visible investment

will reinforce the importance of effectively working across cultures and with people from different cultures in the organization.

3. The organization's climate should be monitored with a survey specifically focusing on the development of cross-cultural competencies (e.g., CACI). These surveys will identify where there may be gaps and where targeted interventions may be warranted. Progress over time can be monitored via pulse surveys to identify the interventions that have been particularly effective.

Developing Cross-Cultural Competencies Through Global Teams

Based on the backdrop for the development of cross-cultural competencies, global teams should have, at minimum, three key features: (1) participating in a global team should be a *stretch challenge*—an opportunity to apply one's knowledge, skills, and abilities in different cultural contexts and with colleagues from different cultures, (2) participating in a global team should include meaningful *peer-level collaborations* with team members from different cultures, and (3) participating in a global team should provide opportunities to receive *feedback and support* for team functioning and collaboration. Taken together, teams should be constructed with these three development principles in mind. Let's consider each more closely.

Cultural Stretch Challenges in Global Teams

In leadership development, stretch challenges for developmental purposes share certain features. For example, challenges where leaders are able to work across boundaries, have new and unfamiliar responsibilities, have a high level of responsibility, and are placed in a situation where they are creating change and managing diversity are especially developmental for building end-state competencies (DeRue & Wellman, 2009; Dragoni, Tesluk, Russell, & Oh, 2009; McCauley et al., 1994). In a parallel comparison with the experience of participating in a global team, a stretch challenge would be a developmental opportunity to apply one's knowledge, skills, and abilities in different cultural contexts and with team members who are from different cultures (i.e., when team members are working with other members whose norms, attitudes, and values might differ from one's own) and with a team working on a challenging and meaningful project. In the same way that individuals need to exercise a muscle in order to build strength and stamina, team members need to use their cross-cultural competencies, such as perspective taking and valuing diversity, in order to build higher levels of those cross-cultural competencies. The cultural stretch challenge needs to be somewhat beyond the team members' comfort level. For example, if team members were all from Anglo cultures and, as individuals, did not vary in their cultural norms, attitudes, and values, then the

opportunity for a cultural stretch would be limited. At the same time, if the team project provided no real challenge to any of the team members, the need to collaborate and share resources might be diminished.

Assuming the project is meaningful, participation in global teams has the potential to be a significant developmental opportunity because there are many cross-cultural differences that are manifest in global teamwork. It is in these experiences that individual team members might sense and feel differences in norms, attitudes, and values. Through the active understanding of these differences, cross-cultural competencies can be built. For example, team members' trust can be affected (positively or negatively) by a variety of cultural differences, such as members' tendency to trust those with whom they have a closer interpersonal relationship compared to others who might have the tendency to trust those with the best technical skills. Development occurs as team members are first able to acknowledge that they differ on a given dimension (such as the way they establish trust) and then use a wider variety of mechanisms to address the differences. In the case of building trust, a global team can use both social interactions (for the relationship-oriented members) and knowledge sharing (for the task-oriented members). Development occurs as the team members recognize the difference and change behaviors to accommodate the multiple perspectives. Thus, relationship-oriented members recognize the need to share their technical knowledge and skills while task-oriented members invest the time in building relationships.

Cross-cultural differences might also be manifest in the way team members communicate with each other. American anthropologist Hall (1976) described that in cultures where communication is high context, it is difficult to understand the meaning of what was said unless team members understand the contextual and cultural nuances around which the words were spoken (e.g., tone of voice, facial expressions, body language). High-context communicators are most comfortable among those from the same culture who can readily interpret what is said as well as what *is not* said. In other words, with those who have common experiences and a similar lens for interpreting meaning. Communication in these high context cultures, such as Asia, the Middle East, Latin Europe, and Latin America, is subtle and nuanced, and may seem difficult to interpret to an outsider. In cultures with a direct or low context communication style, as in the Anglo, Germanic, or Scandinavian cultures, whatever is said is meant, with little need for interpretation. In these cultures, team members observe more direct feedback being given and shorter written communications (e.g., e-mail and instant/text messages).

This cultural difference between indirect and direct communicators can be one of the more challenging aspects for global team members to work through and, therefore, has the greatest opportunity for development when addressed. As with the previous example, team members would need to first be able to understand the variance within their team on the preference for direct versus indirect communications. Then they would need to exercise their cross-cultural competencies and learn to interpret communications through a different lens. Team members from high context communication cultures would need to practice interpreting only the direct meaning of a communiqué and ask for clarity on interpretations offered beyond the

direct communication. At the same time, team members from low context cultures will need to consider more nuanced meaning to the context of communication and then test their understanding of the intended message. In both cases, global team members are building their repertoire of cultural understandings.

Another way global teams can be developmental is through the way they manage their team functioning. For example, deadlines and deliverables are needed in global teams but the team members might also differ on how they view time. Some team members might believe that time should be strictly monitored and controlled, treating time as a commodity to be bought, spent, and wasted. Other team members might view time more fluidly, placing a greater emphasis on how work is accomplished, as opposed to meeting and keeping deadlines. Team members also differ on the extent to which they are collective oriented or individual oriented. In the highly collectivist cultures there is a strong group orientation or a desire to maintain harmony. In the more individualist cultures one's personal goals would supersede the collective goals. In cultures valuing the group's interest, being a member of a successful team is highly rewarding. In societies valuing the individuals' interests, people expect to be personally rewarded and recognized for their unique contributions. The value of a team—and what it means to be a part of it—will vary greatly depending on a society's orientation on this dimension. In these cultural examples, the participation in global teams can be developmental because team members would need to first acknowledge that differences exist and then reconcile how they as a team will interpret deadlines, acknowledge individual contribution, communicate with one another, and the like. Both understanding of differences and the subsequent creation of team norms enable team members to stretch and grow their cross-cultural competencies.

As the previous paragraphs suggest, the act of identifying cultural differences is not, on its own, developmental. Development occurs when team members have the opportunity to integrate the cultural differences of the members and come to agreement on how they will operate in the future. In addition to being developmental, research has found that these multicultural teams functioned better over time when they had created a hybrid team culture—their own team-level norms for interactions, communications, goal setting, and the like (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000). Based on this research, Earley and Mosakowski (2000) advise that teams should work to create their own rules for interpersonal and task-related interactions, performance expectations, communication, and conflict management. In working through the team members' cultural differences to create team norms and a team identity, development of cross-cultural competencies can occur.

Peer-Level Collaboration Among Global Team Members

The idea of peer-level collaboration seems the most straightforward of the factors affecting development of cross-cultural competencies from global teams. With the tremendous amount of communication, conferencing, and collaborative technology

available for interactions of geographically distributed teams, the possibility of having meaningful peer-level collaborations among team members should be high. However, when multicultural team members are not colocated at any point in their team's life-cycle, their ability to establish trust and rapport, and to have meaningful ongoing interactions can be diminished.

The issue at hand is whether technology will limit the potential for development. The use of project management and knowledge management systems to facilitate the mechanics of geographically distributed global teams is pervasive. When almost 4,000 managers from all around the world were surveyed on their organizations' use of unified communications and collaboration technology, nearly 40 % of them reported that their organizations will increase spending on these tools. Of the organizations that have not yet deployed communication and collaboration tools, more than 80 % plan to deploy them in the next 2–3 years. While the use of project management and knowledge management systems can help facilitate the mechanics of geographically distributed global teams, their use might obfuscate the need for meaningful in-person interactions.

Technology can, of course, reduce travel costs, improve the speed of collaboration among geographically dispersed team members, and can create a virtual meeting space where the team's work can be done. With a focus on development of cross-cultural competencies, however, the limits of their use should be understood. Gibson and Gibbs (2006) found that the greater the cross-national teams' reliance on electronic communications, the *less* innovative they were. Interpersonal relationships, and not technology, yielded the most innovative results of these global teams. The teams which had created a psychologically safe communication climate were the ones with the highest product innovation. Specifically, among those teams with a high use of electronic communications, having a psychologically safe communication climate produced a roughly 20 % increase in the project teams' innovation ratings over those in a climate the members did not consider psychologically safe. In a psychologically safe climate, team members trusted each other and believed they could express their ideas, talk through the problems they encountered, and be assertive about their thoughts and feelings. Building trust and having comfortable methods for meaningful interactions and collaboration enabled these global professionals to succeed—and develop—collectively.

Using collaborative technology does not fully vanquish cultural differences any more than the use of English as a common business language does. When people use communication and collaboration technology, they still bring to the *virtual* table their cultural norms for sharing of information, for communicating with peers, their preferences for collaboration, and their preferences for technology. In other words, technology can help bring people together virtually but it does not strip away the cultural nuances that are deeply ingrained in every individual. This was evident in a study conducted by Shachaf (2008) in which geographically distributed, technology-laden team members' cultural and language differences resulted in miscommunication, which, in turn, negatively affected trust, cohesion, and team identity. It would be difficult to create psychologically safe communications with colleagues from different countries when the basic elements of trust and cohesion are missing.

Peer-level collaboration of team members is fundamental for the development of cross-cultural competencies. The interactions involved in creating psychologically safe team communications, trust, and cohesion with team members from different cultures have the potential to be a highly developmental process; members would learn the pressure points or places where they need to be sensitive to each other's differences, they would learn to accommodate each other, and to integrate their preferences in a comfortable way for team members to collaborate effectively.

Feedback and Support for Global Team Functioning

The last feature of global teams that would make them particularly developmental is through the feedback and support function. Organizations can facilitate the developmental properties of global teams by providing strong team leadership and the resources needed to create trust and cohesion. Global team leaders can encourage sensitivity to those issues directly related to the cultural differences and encourage the creation of team-level ground rules. Global team leaders can work to break-up or prevent members' natural tendencies to favor those from their own culture (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000; Gibbs, 2006; Gibson & Vermeulen, 2003). Global team leaders can also be the cultural guides to help the team members create their own team-level norms and identity and also help facilitate credibility and trust building.

Team leaders can assist with the process of the team to balance the influence, rewards, and workload among team members to ensure that all members are treated fairly. They can provide team-level ground rules that apply equally to and are reinforced among all members on tangible aspects of team processes, such as frequency of emails, expectations for communications, and the like. The global team leaders can also create ways to increase information flows through interactions by making some team members "boundary spanners," especially in circumstances when face-to-face interaction among all members is not possible. Research found that information within global teams flow through a few boundary spanning individuals (Joshi, LaBianca, & Caligiuri, 2002). These boundary spanning team members are central to the team's network for the flow of both information and trust. Often better traveled than other members and with a broader network, boundary spanning team members would likely also experience the greatest developmental gains from their participation in the global team.

Team leaders can also be integral in facilitating cross-cultural competency development of the team members. Global team leaders can proactively address issues potentially exacerbated by cross-cultural differences among team members. For example, cultures will vary in their patterns of speaking and listening—especially the use of silence; how this will affect conference calls and what ground rule will be established to address it, is the type of issue a team leader could address. Global team leaders can play the role of cultural coach by providing individual members with feedback on the way their behaviors might be interpreted through the eyes of other members—and how they can shape their behaviors in the future. In this sense,

they can also proactively anticipate conflict and miscommunications and mentor members to help them build their perspective taking of other members. These global team leaders will be in a position to monitor team members' competency development.

Recommendations

Based on the three key features to facilitate development through participation in global teams (a cultural stretch challenge, peer-level collaborations, and feedback and support), we make the following recommendations:

1. Organizations should provide a nonthreatening way for team members to learn about the cultural differences within the team, such as a face-to-face cross-cultural training session. The discussion should be facilitated such that team members can have an open discussion of the differences and similarities among team members. This training should allow team members to understand, without judgment, the ways in which members might differ and how those cultural differences could affect the team's effectiveness.
2. As a group, team members should collectively decide how they will manage those differences, ideally in a manner that is equally (un)comfortable for all team members. This activity should be facilitated by someone who understands the various cultural styles and can anticipate resistance as the team (with varying levels of members' cross-cultural competencies) work through their differences.
3. Team leaders should understand their role in facilitating cross-cultural competency development. Once team processes have been established, team leaders can provide clarity and coaching on process and outcomes of the teams, such as reinforcing deadlines and deliverables. Team leaders can also ensure the highest level of psychological safety is offered to all team members by reinforcing behaviors—even virtually—that adhere to development-enhancing climate.

Conclusion

Developing employees' cross-cultural competencies is critical for MNCs' success. Global CEOs echo this sentiment, indicating that inability to work effectively in a global environment is a serious impediment to their future success. Key to overcoming this challenge are teams of employees who can manage in foreign environments, negotiate cultural challenges (with one another as well as with other teams), and adapt to new and unfamiliar situations. Success in these tasks requires cross-cultural competencies and as we have argued in this chapter, when designed well, global teams can help facilitate the development of cross-cultural competencies.

The cross-cultural competencies that research and practical experience suggest are particularly important include self-management (ability to manage one's own emotions and behaviors in ambiguous situations), relationship management (creating and sustaining positive cross-cultural relationships), and business decision management (deep understanding and appreciation of the global business context). Individuals who possess these competencies, as we have shown, are better suited to operate in a global and ambiguous environment. Once organizations recognize these key competencies for international effectiveness, they can then be systematic about assessing team members (e.g., assessing for the "right" personality traits), providing developmental opportunities (e.g., stretch assignments for teams), and creating a climate for global effectiveness.

As anyone who has traveled or worked internationally can attest, there is no one best way to anticipate and navigate all the complexities and nuances of international and cross-cultural work. However, if organizations pay attention to select individuals with the right mind-set and personality traits for successful global work, if they provide developmental opportunities to prepare teams to work effectively in a global environment, and if they create a climate that appreciates and reinforces these values, we believe that will go a long way toward resolving the concerns that were expressed by so many CEOs.

References

- Allport, G. (1954). *The nature of prejudice*. Cambridge, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Amir, Y. (1969). Contact hypothesis in ethnic relations. *Psychological Bulletin*, 71, 319–342.
- Anderzen, I., & Arnetz, B. B. (1999). Psychophysiological reactions to international adjustment: results from a controlled, longitudinal study. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics*, 68, 67–75.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bird, A. (2013). Mapping the content domain of global leadership competencies. In M. E. Mendenhall, J. S. Osland, A. Bird, G. R. Oddou, M. L. Maznevski, M. J. Stevens, & G. K. Stahl (Eds.), *Global leadership: Research, practice, and development* (2nd ed., pp. 80–96). New York: Routledge.
- Bird, A., Mendenhall, M., Stevens, M. J., & Oddou, G. (2010). Defining the content domain of intercultural competence for global leaders. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25(8), 810–828.
- Black, J. S. (1988). Work role transitions: A study of American expatriate managers in Japan. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19(2), 277–294.
- Caligiuri, P. M. (2000a). The big five personality characteristics as predictors of expatriate's desire to terminate the assignment and supervisor-rated performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 53(1), 67–88.
- Caligiuri, P. M. (2000b). Selecting expatriates for personality characteristics: A moderating effect of personality on the relationship between host national contact and cross-cultural adjustment. *Management International Review*, 40(1), 61–80.
- Caligiuri, P. (2012). *Cultural agility: Building a pipeline of successful global professionals*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Caligiuri, P.M., & Dragoni, L. (in press). Global leadership development. Invited chapter for D. Collings, G. Wood, & P. Caligiuri (Eds.). *Companion to International Human Resource Management* (Routledge).

- Caligiuri, P., & Tarique, I. (2012). Dynamic cross-cultural competencies and global leadership effectiveness. *Journal of World Business, 47*(4), 612–622.
- Caligiuri, P., & Tarique, I. (2009). Predicting effectiveness in global leadership activities. *Journal of World Business, 44*, 336–346.
- DeRue, S. D., & Wellman, N. (2009). Developing leaders via experience: The role of developmental challenge, learning orientation, and feedback availability. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(4), 859–875.
- Dragoni, L., Oh, I.-S., Moore, O., Vankatwyk, P., Hazucha, J., & Tesluk, P. (2012). *Global work experience: Does it make leaders more effective?* Wharton Conference, University of Pennsylvania.
- Dragoni, L., Tesluk, P. E., Russell, J. E., & Oh, I.-S. (2009). Understanding managerial development: integrating developmental assignments, learning orientation, and access to developmental opportunities in predicting managerial competencies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 52*(4), 731–743.
- Earley, P. C., & Mosakowski, E. (2000). Creating hybrid team cultures: An empirical test of transnational team functioning. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*(1), 26–49.
- Ghemawat, P. (2012). Developing global leaders. *McKinsey Quarterly*, pp. 1–10.
- Gibbs, J. L. (2006). Decoupling and coupling in global teams: Implications for human resource management. In G. K. Stahl & I. Bjorkman (Eds.), *Handbook of research in international human resource management* (pp. 347–363). Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar.
- Gibson, C. B., & Gibbs, J. L. (2006). Unpacking the concept of virtuality: The effects of geographic dispersion, electronic dependence, dynamic structure, and national diversity on team innovation. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 51*, 451–495.
- Gibson, C., & Vermeulen, F. (2003). A healthy divide: Subgroups as a stimulus for team learning behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 48*, 202–239.
- Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond culture*. Garden City, NY: Anchor.
- Ilgen, D. R. (1999). Teams in organizations: Some implications. *American Psychologist, 54*, 129–139.
- Joshi, A., LaBianca, G., & Caligiuri, P. M. (2002). Getting along long distance: Understanding conflict in a multinational team through network analysis. *Journal of World Business, 37*(4), 277–292.
- Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Pucik, V., & Welbourne, T. M. (1999). Managerial coping with organizational change: A dispositional perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*, 107–122.
- Kayes, D. C., Kayes, A. B., & Yamazaki, Y. (2005). Essential competencies for cross-cultural knowledge absorption. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 20*(7), 578–589.
- Leiba-O'Sullivan, S. (1999). The distinction between stable and dynamic cross-cultural competencies: Implications for expatriate trainability. *Journal of International Business Studies, 30*, 709–726.
- Levy, O., Beechler, S., Taylor, S., & Boyacigiller, N. (2007). What we talk about when we talk about global mindset: Managerial cognition in multinational corporations. *Journal of International Business Studies, 38*, 231–258.
- Lundby, K.M., & Caligiuri, P. (2013, February). *Cultural agility climate: What organizations and their leaders need to know about functioning effectively in a global environment*. Presented at 3M Corporation's Innovation Center, Saint Paul, MN.
- Lundby, K. M., & Caligiuri, P. (2013). Leveraging organizational climate to understand cultural agility and foster effective global leadership. *People & Strategy, 36*, 28–32.
- Lundby, K. M., & Johnson, J. W. (2006). Relative weights of predictors: What is important when many forces are operating. In K. Kraut, A. H. Church, & J. Waclawski (Eds.), *Getting action from organizational surveys*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Matsumoto, D., LeRoux, J. A., Iwamoto, M., Choi, J. W., Rogers, D., Tatani, H., et al. (2003). The robustness of the intercultural adjustment potential scale (ICAPS): The search for a universal psychological engine of adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 27*, 543–562.
- Matsumoto, D., LeRoux, J., Ratzlaff, C., Tatani, H., Uchida, H., Kim, C., et al. (2001). Development and validation of a measure of intercultural adjustment potential in Japanese sojourners:

- The intercultural adjustment potential scale (ICAPS). *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 25, 483–510.
- Maznewski, M. L., & DiStefano, J. J. (2000). Global leaders are team players: Developing global leaders through membership on global teams. *Human Resource Management*, 39, 195–208.
- McCaughey, C. D., Ruderman, M. N., Ohlott, P. J., & Morrow, J. E. (1994). Assessing the developmental components of managerial jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 544–560.
- McCloskey, M., Behymer, K., Papautsky, E. L., Ross, K., & Abbe, A. (2010). *A developmental model of cross-cultural competence at the tactical level*. Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Pettigrew, T. F., & Tropp, L. R. (2006). A meta-analytic test of intergroup contact theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 90(5), 751–783.
- PriceWaterhouseCoopers. (2007). *10th annual global CEO survey*. New York: PriceWaterhouseCoopers.
- Shachaf, P. (2008). Cultural diversity in information and communication technology impacts on global virtual teams: An exploratory study. *Information and Management*, 45, 131–142.
- Shaffer, M. A., Harrison, D. A., Gregersen, H., Black, J. S., & Ferzandi, L. A. (2006). You can take it with you: Individual differences and expatriate effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(1), 109–125. doi:[10.1037/0021-9010.91.1.109](https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.1.109).
- Stahl, G., Maznevski, M., Voight, A., & Jonsen, K. (2010). Unraveling the effects of cultural diversity in teams: A meta-analysis of research on multicultural work groups. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 41, 690–709.
- Thomas, D. C., Elron, E., Stahl, G., Ekelund, B. Z., Ravelin, E. C., Cerdin, J.-L., et al. (2008). Cultural intelligence: Domain and assessment. *International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management*, 8, 123–143.
- Yoo, S. H., Matsumoto, D., & LeRoux, J. A. (2006). The influence of emotion recognition and emotion regulation on intercultural adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 30, 345–363.

Chapter 7

Coaching Global Teams and Global Team Leaders

Curtis D. Curry

The torrid pace of globalization is challenging businesses worldwide to adjust to the rapidly evolving competitive landscape. According to McKinsey Global (2014), the total value of cross-border trade in goods, services, and financial flows in 1990 accounted for an impressive \$5 trillion in value or a total of about 23 % of global GDP; by 2012, the number had leaped to \$26 trillion, the equivalent of an astounding 36 % of global GDP. An Ernst and Young (2013) study estimated that a billion new middle-class consumers from India, Brazil, Mexico, China, and other developing countries would be added to the world marketplace by the end of the current decade. The same study projected that two-thirds of the world's entire middle class will reside in the Asia-Pacific region by 2030. These trends, coupled with rapidly graying populations in the developed world, represent a major shift away from slow growth United States–Western Europe–Japan as the global economic center of gravity. Rather, the world economy is increasingly driven by rapidly growing emerging markets.

Globalization creates both opportunities and challenges for businesses (Hill, 2011). The rising middle class in emerging markets has created new demand for products and services. Regulatory burdens have generally decreased worldwide (Hill, 2011) and digital technologies have created opportunities for ever-smaller companies to engage in cross-border trade (McKinsey Global, 2014). At the same time, numerous challenges confront businesses working in a global environment. Challenges include developing and launching new products (Barczak, McDonough, & Athanassiou, 2006), dealing with language differences (Berg & Holtbrügge, 2010; British Council, Booz, & Hamilton, 2013; Gundling, Hogan, & Cvitkovich, 2011), addressing team conflicts that result from time differences and communication delays (Kankanhalli, Tan, & Zwok-Kee, 2006; Montoya-Weiss, Massey, & Song, 2001; Schlenkrich & Upfold, 2009), and responding to cultural differences (Handin &

C.D. Curry (✉)

Quality Learning International, 1050 Hollow Brook Lane, Malabar, FL 32950, USA
e-mail: curtis@globalqli.com

Steinwedel, 2006; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Peterson, 2007; White & Shullman, 2012).

Maznevski and Chui (2013) asserted that teams accomplish most of the work done by organizations today. Virtual teams are increasingly being used to enhance cooperation required in partnering and joint ventures and to provide increased flexibility and innovation in service delivery and product development (Yukl, 2006). As globalization proceeds apace, teams that are global in reach are increasingly tasked with a variety of missions including innovation (Tjosvold & Wong, 2004), developing and launching new products (Barczak et al., 2006), achieving competitive advantage (Hagen & Aguilar, 2012), and improving coordination of value-chain activities (Berg & Holtbrügge, 2010).

Leader-provided coaching for team members has become a central responsibility for leaders and executive coaching has seen a precipitous increase in use over the past 15 years. Coaching can be provided by a leader of an individual or team (which will be referred to in this paper as leader coaching) or an internal or external executive coach. Very little empirical research has been conducted on coaching effectiveness,¹ and even less on coaching across cultures. This chapter provides an overview of the literature on coaching with the caveat that most of the extant literature has been written by practicing professional coaches. Despite the drawback of limited generalizability, practicing leader coaches and executive coaches can provide real-world lessons as the empirical work on the field of coaching continues to grow.

This chapter will first provide a brief overview of the world of coaching, discussing differences and similarities between executive coaching and leader coaching. Since modern coaching practices were developed largely in the west, particularly in the United States, this section will also focus on identifying potential dangers of applying unmodified western practices in a global environment. The second section will focus on global teams. Global teams are often comprised of individuals from different professions, different national cultures, and different organizations, and these individuals accomplish much of their work together virtually (Briscoe, Randall, & Tarique, 2012). When team members are geographically dispersed and they utilize extensive use of information technologies such as teleconferencing or web-based technologies, the team is referred to as a global virtual team (GVT).

The focus of the third section of this chapter is effective global team leadership practices identified in the literature. While global leadership has received some attention recently, there is little research focusing specifically on global team leadership. Team leaders exert a major influence on a team's effectiveness by setting goals, monitoring work, providing feedback, coaching, and influencing (Joshi & Lazarova, 2005). The fourth section will provide an overview of global and cross-cultural coaching, focusing both on executive coaching and leader coaching. The section will present a synthesis of the global leadership and coaching literature as it relates to coaching global teams and global team leaders. The penultimate section will provide tentative suggestions for coaching global leaders. A brief closing section will include suggestions for future research.

¹Most scientific work in this area is drawn from case studies.

Overview of Coaching

While one often thinks of coaching as a modern phenomenon, its western roots stretch back at least to Socrates' rejection of the sophists' narrow focus on persuasive rhetoric in favor of the search for wisdom and the good life. Plato's teaching, delivered in a style recognizable by coaches today, had a profound impact on Aristotle, who would in turn tutor one of the most famous leaders in western history, Alexander the Great. In the east, Buddha and Confucius also instructed followers on how best to lead their lives. Both philosophers had a lasting impact on eastern thought. Like its philosophical forebears, modern coaching involves the facilitation of learning (Hamlin, Ellinger, & Beattie, 2006; Rosinski, 2009; Stober & Grant, 2006; Ting & Scisco, 2006) but is generally directed toward a specific end such as developing skills (Yukl, 2006) or achieving goals (Gundling et al., 2011; Rosinski and Abbott 2006; Spence & Oades, 2011).

Both leader coaching and executive coaching have become ubiquitous in organizations. There has been a marked increase in the use of formal coaching programs. Handin and Steinwedel (2006) found that nearly 40 % of Fortune 500 firms were integrating coaching into their development programs, and the American Management Association (2008) placed the figure at just over one-half the organizations they had surveyed. According to Gentry, Manning, Wolf, Hernez-Broome, and Allen (2013), just five years later the number had risen to over 70 % of organizations.

Coaching is a core activity of leaders. Effective leader coaching has been shown to improve performance and productivity (Yu, 2007), manager–employee relationships (Hagen & Aguilar, 2012), and effective coaches have been shown to improve learning and skills in teams (Hagen & Aguilar, 2012). Despite the increasing popularity of executive coaching, empirical research on its effectiveness is scarce (Sherman & Freas, 2004). Nonetheless, the research that exists indicates that executive coaching may be effective (De Haan, Duckworth, Birch, & Jones, 2013; McGovern et al., 2001), particularly when paired with multirater feedback (Luthans & Peterson, 2003; Thach, 2002). Tangible results such as improved productivity, improved quality, and reduced turnover as well as intangible results such as improved stakeholder and direct report relationships, improved teamwork, improved job satisfaction, and reduced conflict were reported by McGovern et al. (2001). The American Management Association (2008) found that companies that reported utilizing coaching more than in the past were more likely to see increased revenue growth, greater market share, higher profitability, and better customer satisfaction.

Leader Coaching and Culture

Individuals and organizations have overwhelmingly embraced leader coaching. Coaching is viewed as a core function of management (Hagen & Aguilar, 2012) and is critical for developing organizational talent. In the *CCL handbook of coaching*,

Ting and Scisco (2006) define a coach as “anyone who is formally or informally engaged in a coaching relationship with individuals and aspires to improve his or her leadership and in so doing improve the leadership capacity in an organizational context...” (p. 10). Hagen and Aguilar (2012) define manager coaching as “the process by which a manager, through guided discussion and activity, helps a member of his/her staff to solve a problem or carry out a task more efficiently and/or effectively” (p. 367).

Leader-provided coaching has been shown to have a positive impact on group processes, team and individual learning, self-management, and perceptions of levels of empowerment (Hagen & Gavrilova Aguilar, 2012). Ting and Scisco (2006) integrated coaching research and practice from the Center for Creative Leadership (CCL), and provided a practical framework for coaching, as well as specific tools and techniques.

The CCL leader coaching approach consists of three foci. The first of these is relationship, the context in which the coaching occurs. The second focus includes CCL’s leadership development model: assessment, challenge, and support (ACS). The final focus is on results, both tangible and intangible, that are being targeted (Ting & Riddle, 2006). The relationship focus is the interpersonal connection between coach and the individual being coached. Relationship includes rapport, commitment, and collaboration, of both the coach and the person being coached working together as equals to explore challenges and develop solutions. A focus on relationships is obviously a critical element in effective coaching, but assumptions of what constitutes a good relationship and how to develop effective relationships vary across cultures. A number of cultural factors complicate the intercultural relationship between coach and protégé. In an intercultural context, culture impacts how relationships are formed and maintained as well as how power is viewed and exercised. Even the assumption of working together as “equals” has cultural overtones.

CCL’s assumption of equality in the relationship, while admittedly an important factor in low power-distance cultures such as the US, the Netherlands, or the UK may be problematic in higher power-distance cultures. Working together “as equals” presumes there is little or no difference in hierarchy between the coach and person being coached. However, in higher power-distance cultures, the person being coached will have different expectations of his or her leader than in lower power-distance cultures. Such cultural differences will be broached more fully in the later discussion on global team leadership.

Nangalia and Nangalia (2010) argued that western assumptions, such as equality, must be scrutinized: “Given the fact that most Asian civilizations (especially Chinese and Indian) have traditions ranging back to a few thousand years, it is difficult to accept that management practices, including the conventional understanding of coaching, could be applied in an Asian ethos without adaptation” (p. 54). This admonition extends to leader coaches who are obviously also viewed as authority figures. Jenkins (2006) related an instructive anecdote from an Asian coach: “Asians, particularly those from countries with a Confucian heritage, such as China, Japan, Korea, and even Singapore, are taught to listen to and show respect for their elders and superiors—particularly to teachers or ‘experts.’ Coaches therefore have to

beware of being cast in that role. This can lead to the coachee saying, ‘Tell me what to do and I will do it.’” (p. 24).

This anecdotal evidence is supported by Nangalia and Nangalia’s (2010) exploratory study involving 10 executive coaches from India, Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Japan, and Taiwan who worked with clients from Asia and also with clients from the US and Australia. The authors found that “The coach in Asia is not seen as an equal. He or she is seen as a respected elder or teacher...” (p. 56). The authors argued that this stems from the understanding that “status is ascribed from the social hierarchy present in Asian society” (Nangalia and Nangalias, 2010). Coaches in Asia are viewed as trusted advisors who share their wisdom, offer guidance and insight, and provide direction by giving advice and teaching. The executive coaches in this study also noted that establishing trust takes longer in collectivist Asian cultures than in the west. The coaches noted the contrast between western and Asian approaches to the first several coaching sessions: most often the first three to four sessions with Asian clients focus on establishing a trusting relationship well before any feedback is discussed or offered, while feedback is more commonly discussed and analyzed in the United States during the first couple of sessions. Establishing trust and rapport with the client is important in any cultural setting, but is established in different ways and in different time frames.

Assessment, challenge, and support (ACS) comprised the second focus area in CCL’s approach. Assessment includes acquiring data about the person and the performance context in which the coaching takes place; challenge refers to plans and actions designed to create disequilibrium that can spur the individual to stretch, change, and grow. Support includes determining and acquiring resources, celebrating wins, dealing with setbacks, maintaining momentum, and focusing on results (Ting & Riddle, 2006). I will address the impact of culture on the ACS component of the model in turn.

First, culture can impact assessment. Delay and Dalton (2006) underscored that cultural values play a critical role in how assessment is conducted and how the feedback from assessment is related to the person being coached. The coach must realize that tools such as 360° multirater feedback are more popular in the United States as a result of a preference for quantification, objective measurement, empirical data (Hoppe, 1998; Delay & Dalton, 2006), and low-context, explicit communication (Hoppe, 1998). Hoppe contrasted the preference of US Americans for quantification to French and German preferences for theory rather than “isolated” data. Hoppe also contrasted US cultural preferences for quantifiable data to Japanese and Chinese cultures where there is a preference for “relational, synchronic, and metaphorical thinking that pays less attention to isolated, linear, analytical data and instead emphasizes the broader context of human relationships and events to provide meaning” (p. 351).

In terms of challenge, the types of learning activities that are likely to be effective in individual cases also will be influenced by cultural preferences. Hoppe (1998) argued that tolerance for uncertainty, referred to in the cultural literature as uncertainty avoidance, should play a role in determining the best learning activities for developing individuals. Uncertainty avoidance is “the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations”

(Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, p. 191). Hoppe contrasted lower uncertainty avoidance cultures such as the US, Britain, Australia, and Sweden to higher uncertainty avoidance cultures France, Germany, Turkey, and Japan, arguing that individuals from the former cultures would be less likely to be motivated to accept assignments “in novel, ill-defined, and potentially conflictual situations that push them beyond their comfort zone... as a consequence, leadership development in these countries tends to be more planful, functional, incremental, and tied to organizational needs” (Hoppe, pp. 369–370).

The cultural dimensions of individualism–collectivism, power-distance, and uncertainty avoidance may also influence an individual’s preferences for level of leader support. ‘Rugged individualists’ from the US reel at the thought of ‘micro-management’, and generally measure their own achievement in individual terms. In dozens of leadership workshops with American and Canadian leaders I have conducted over the past 20 years, micromanagement has never failed to make the list of poor leader behaviors. Fostering employee self-reliance is seen as a major function of the leader. In collectivist cultures, with a greater focus on the group, the level of support viewed as effective is generally greater. As Hoppe (1998) noted, “managers in China, Mexico, Japan, Indonesia and Singapore consider it their duty to guide and counsel their employees... Similarly, the workgroup believes itself responsible for helping each member’s professional development” (Hoppe, 1998, p. 373).

Such cultural differences have important implications for coaches as well. A coach who avoids being too directive and leads clients to higher levels of self-awareness through the skillful use of questioning skills may be viewed as highly effective in a Canadian or US context. In contrast, in Latin America and Asia, advice, insights, and greater direction are more likely to be expected. One Thai coach wrote, “my Thai clients have a tendency to have the coach give them an answer to their problems, so I “share” a lot of information and that is appreciated... In Asian cultures clients appreciate a coach sharing his knowledge, so that the coach would spend more time doing the talking” (Nangalia & Nangalia, 2010, p. 58). Asking probing questions and sharing observations are important tools for coaches regardless of culture, but how much of each behavior is expected varies across cultures.

Finally, culture may impact the interpretation and value of results. DeLay and Dalton (2006) argued that more collectivist cultures focus on achieving group results while more individualistic cultures focus on achieving individual results, and linking those to organizational results. A global leader coach must seek to understand what results are critical from the perspective of the organization, team and individuals being coached, and provide coaching directed more toward group results or individual results depending on the context.

Executive Coaching and Culture

Executive coaching has become big business. The International Coach Federation (ICF, 2012) estimated that the industry generated around \$2 billion in annual revenue and counted some 47,500 coaches globally. The ICF’s own membership had

increased from 11,000 in 2006 to 19,000 by the end of 2011 (ICF, 2012). Gentry et al. (2013) noted that Asia was increasingly using coaches and that there were estimated to be between 16,000 and 18,000 coaches in Europe.

The Worldwide Association of Business Coaches Website (2014) defines a professional business coach as one who “engages in meaningful communication with individuals in businesses, organizations, institutions or governments, with the goal of promoting success at all levels of the organization by affecting the actions of those individuals” (WABC, 2014). Sherman and Freas (2004) noted that there are many different types of professional coaching offered including “life planning, career counseling, health and nutritional advice, New Age aura readings, and training in skills from public speaking to flirtation” (p. 85). This chapter focuses more narrowly on executive coaching, designed to help individuals and organizations align professional development with organizational goals to maximize performance (Handin & Steinwedel, 2006).

There is a ‘triangle relationship’ between coach, coachee, and the contracting organization, with specific roles, responsibilities, and goals clarified before the coaching begins (Rosinski, 2009). Typically, specific discussions in coaching sessions are expected to remain confidential between the coach and the person being coached, while the coach usually has the obligation to inform the organization of the general progress being made. Once contracted, executive coaches begin the coaching process by gathering data about the organization, including its line of business, vision, values, and strategic goals. They then gather information about the person being coached from his or her leader, peers, HR, and sometimes, employees. Frequently, data is acquired by administering psychometric instruments including personality assessments such as 16PF or MBTI, behavioral assessments such as DiSC or FIRO-B, thinking style assessments like HBDI, and most frequently, 360° multirater feedback instruments. Effective questioning skills are critical for effective coaches and are employed to help increase self-awareness of the person being coached. Handin and Steinwedel (2006) concisely described the executive coaching process: “Using self-awareness and reflection, coaching expands the way an executive observes, relates to, and engages the world by challenging the underlying beliefs and assumptions that are responsible for his or her actions and behaviors” (p. 20). The person receiving the coaching is generally encouraged to share goals and progress with her leader, as well as with her team. Coaching usually has a fixed length, the majority of engagements lasting between three months and one year (American Management Association, 2008).

Stober and Grant (2006) provided an overview of several evidence-based approaches to executive coaching. According to the authors, evidence-based coaching that draws from social science and empirical research allows qualified coaches to translate research into practice in order to maximize coaching outcomes (Stober & Grant, 2006). The authors stated that many theoretical perspectives inform various coaching approaches, including humanistic, behavioral, adult learning, cognitive, positive psychology, action learning, and psychoanalytic. Abbott and Rosinski (2007) suggested that several of these approaches could be employed in a global coaching context and presented a case study illustrating how evidence-based approaches might be used.

Added to these approaches are the eclectic methods brought to the coaching field by business professionals who have ample business experience but limited coaching or social science training. The use of such widely varying approaches makes it difficult to evaluate the quality and effectiveness of coaching, or to choose a single approach as being superior to all others. It is beyond the scope of this chapter to discuss these approaches in detail, but the book itself is testament to the wide variety of approaches taken by professional business or executive coaches.

Despite the explosion in the use of executive coaching, there have been criticisms of the western bias perceived in its approaches. Nangalia and Nangalia (2010), for example, argued that coaching schools and associations teach models and approaches based on “a Western cultural ethos” (p. 52). The International Coaching Federation (ICF) website, for example, defines coaching as “partnering with clients in a thought-provoking and creative process that inspires them to maximize their personal and professional potential” (ICF, 2014). Nangalia and Nangalia argued that this definition makes several western cultural assumptions including, “(i) coaching is a relationship of equals; (ii) the coach must not give advice or tell the client what to do; (iii) a coaching conversation can focus on the client’s agenda without the necessity for a deep coach-client relationship being established first; (iv) a client is an independent agent responsible for his or her own destiny and actions” (p. 52). Cultural differences affect not only the relationship between coach and the global leader he or she is coaching, but more broadly impact the team environment where the leader is leading, which can be particularly challenging when the team is global.

Effective Global Teams

Teams, small groups of individuals who have interdependent roles and complementary skills and are tasked with accomplishing a common purpose (Yukl, 2006), are frequently used by organizations to accomplish organizational goals (Maznevski & Chui, 2013). A global team is a team whose members come from different national backgrounds and/or whose work spans national boundaries (Maznevski & Chui, 2013).

Briscoe et al. (2012) note that a complicating factor in reviewing the literature on teams operating across borders is that different names are used to describe them, including global teams, multinational teams, multicultural teams, transnational teams, transcultural teams, and geographically dispersed teams. Other names include cross-border teams, virtual and GVTs, culturally diverse teams, intercultural teams, and virtual intercultural teams. This chapter utilizes the more common term global team and will identify exceptions in cases where important differences indicate the use of one of the alternate names.

One feature of many global teams is their geographically dispersed nature. Such teams, generally referred to as GVTs, not only face the challenge of bridging cultural differences, but they also must grapple with time zone and distance barriers (Kankanhalli et al., 2006; Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000; Montoya-Weiss et al., 2001; Schlenkrich & Upfold, 2009).

Table 7.1 Global team challenges identified in the literature

Global team challenge	Authors
Cultural differences	Hinds, Liu, and Lyon (2011), Kankanhalli et al. (2006), Maznevski and Chui (2013), Maznevski and Chuboda (2000), Maznevski and Zander (2001), Montoya-Weiss et al. (2001), Moosmüller et al. (2001), Mukherjee, Hanlon, Kedia, & Srivastava (2012), Tjosvold and Wong (2004)
Process loss as a result of increased diversity	Stumpf and Zeuschel (2001)
Language differences	Berg and Holtbrügge (2010)
The ability to create and maintain a shared direction	Gundling et al. (2011)

While many global teams are geographically dispersed, this is not the case for all such teams. For instance, I have coached leaders from the Latin American headquarters of a Fortune 500 company in south Florida whose leadership team was comprised of a US-American with extensive experience in Central America, two Colombians, a Chilean, a Puerto Rican, and a Venezuelan. While not geographically dispersed, this example fits the definition of global teams used in the chapter. For large global corporations, it is becoming more common to see top executive leadership teams that are also comprised of leaders from different countries. A good example is Renault–Nissan Alliance’s executive team led by multilingual Brazilian Carlos Ghosn. This team is comprised of 20 executives who among them hold French, Japanese, Brazilian, Belgian, German, and American nationalities.²

Research has shown that diverse teams offer many benefits to organizations. A McKinsey study of 180 publicly traded companies in the United States, France, and the United Kingdom found that companies whose executive board was ranked in the top quartile in terms of national and gender diversity achieved return on equity (ROE) 53 % higher than those in the bottom quartile and earnings before interest and taxes (EBIT) was 50 % higher (Barta, Kleiner, & Neumann, 2012). Other potential benefits to organizations include: more perspectives and ideas (Stumpf & Zeuschel, 2001), increased creativity and innovation (Maznevski & Chui, 2013), quicker customer response times and 24-h customer service (Kankanhalli et al., 2006), reduced potential for groupthink (Moosmüller, Spieß, & Podsiadlowski, 2001), and increased effectiveness at accomplishing complex tasks than individuals (Tjosvold & Wong, 2004).

While teams offer organizations many potential benefits, global teams face a number of hurdles that can reduce their performance. Language differences, an increased likelihood of conflict, and miscommunication resulting from cultural differences can adversely impact team performance. Critical challenges to global and GVT performance identified in the literature are listed in Tables 7.1 and 7.2.

Much of the research in the area of global teams has focused on GVTs. Heavy reliance on technology-assisted communication such as e-mail, phone, and even video conferencing is less rich than face-to-face communication and leads to the loss of contextual cues communicated via body language and tone (Maznevski &

²From the Renault–Nissan Alliance blog.

Table 7.2 Global virtual team challenges identified in the literature

Global virtual team challenges	Authors
Culture	Kankanhalli et al. (2006), Maznevski and Chuboda (2000), Montoya-Weiss et al. (2001), Mukherjee et al. (2012), Paul, Samarah, Seetharaman, and Mykytyn (2005), Schlenkrich and Upfold (2009), and Tjosvold and Wong (2004)
Asynchronous communication	Kankanhalli et al. (2006), Maznevski and Chui (2013), Mukherjee et al. (2012), Paul et al. (2005)
Use of communication technology	Maznevski and Chui (2013), Schlenkrich and Upfold (2009)
Time differences	Kankanhalli et al. (2006), Montoya-Weiss et al. (2001), Mukherjee et al. (2012), Schlenkrich and Upfold (2009)

Chui, 2013; Montoya-Weiss et al., 2001). The loss of face-to-face communication also negatively impacts the ability to share tacit knowledge (Maznevski & Chui, 2013). Time delays in providing feedback brought about by greater reliance on virtual communication and time differences have also been shown to increase conflict (Schlenkrich & Upfold, 2009).

In their review of effective global teams, Maznevski and Chui (2013) argued that many of the characteristics of effective teams, regardless of their make-up, are the same. Characteristics of effective global teams include clearly defined tasks, objectives, and common goals; team composition/right skills; clear roles; and effective processes. Successful GVTs set up effective communication protocols, make sure feedback is timely, and utilize effective scheduling practices (Kankanhalli et al., 2006; Montoya-Weiss et al., 2001; Schlenkrich & Upfold, 2009). Other characteristics of effective global teams include the ability of the team to manage conflict productively and the development of norms for positive interaction (Montoya-Weiss et al., 2001; Schlenkrich & Upfold, 2009; Tjosvold & Wong, 2004).

One of the most frequently cited characteristics of high performing teams was trust (Berg & Holtbrügge, 2010; Maznevski & Chui, 2013; Mukherjee et al., 2012; Paul et al., 2005; and Tjosvold & Wong, 2004). Maznevski and Chui (2013) defined trust as “a positive attitude about other team members, specifically a belief that a team member would make decisions, even in the absence of other team members, that optimize the team’s interests” (p. 146). Trust is a critical dynamic because it increases commitment, leads to greater efficiency, and helps create conditions that can generate innovation (Maznevski & Chui, 2013). In a review of recent literature on cross-national collaboration, Hinds et al. (2011) summarized their findings: “Taken together, these studies suggest that teams with a shared identity, aligned interests, and congruent practices might have more fruitful cross-national collaboration and fewer coordination costs” (p. 155).

Coaching, Culture, and Effective Global Team Leadership

While few studies have focused specifically on effective global team leadership, a number of books addressing global leadership have appeared over the past decade. These include works by Dalton, Ernst, Deal, and Leslie (2002), Gundling et al.

(2011), House et al. (2004), McCall and Hollenbeck (2002), Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, and Maznevski (2013), Mendenhall, Kühlmann, and Stahl (2001), and Rosen, Digh, Singer, and Phillips (2000). Since global team leaders represent a subset of global leaders, a general understanding of successful characteristics of global leaders can add to our understanding.

Beechler and Javidan (2007) define global leadership as “the process of influencing individuals, groups, and organizations (inside and outside the boundaries of the global organization) representing diverse cultural/political/institutional systems to contribute toward the achievement of the global organization’s goals” (p. 140). Mendenhall et al. (2013) define global leaders as “individuals who effect significant positive change in organizations by building communities through the development of trust and the arrangement of organizational structures and processes in a context involving multiple cross-boundary stakeholders, multiple sources of external cross-boundary authority, and multiple cultures under conditions of temporal, geographical, and cultural complexity” (p. 20). From these definitions, it is clear that global leaders work in a highly complex environment in which they must interact and build trusting relationships with a wide variety of stakeholders while working to achieve organizational goals. This has important implications for effective global coaches, both leader coaches and executive coaches. In order to provide coaching that can enhance team performance, global coaches must understand the multifaceted work of global leaders and the significant challenges inherent in managing relationships across borders and building trust across cultures.

The largest of the recent academic studies on global leadership was the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) study of 62 different countries and more than 17,000 managers in 951 organizations (House et al., 2004). One of the primary goals of the GLOBE researchers (over 160 academics around the world participated in the study) was to determine leadership characteristics that might be universally viewed as positive across all cultures. Rather than define global leadership per se, project GLOBE researchers from 38 countries developed a working definition of organizational leadership as “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members” (House et al., p. 56). The study contributors did not seek to discover the characteristics of effective global leaders, but rather sought to understand how effective leadership was viewed in different national and regional contexts.

A major contribution of the GLOBE study was to identify a number of characteristics that were widely viewed as positive across all regions, those universally viewed as negative, and those that varied by cultural context. Universally positive characteristics included the descriptors trustworthy, just, honest, encouraging, positive, motivational, dependable, administrative skilled, coordinator, and team builder. Loner, asocial, noncooperative, irritable, egocentric, ruthless, and dictatorial were universally viewed as negative. Finally, a number of characteristics were viewed as contributing to outstanding leadership in some cultures but not in others. These included autonomous, cautious, evasive, individualistic, status conscious, risk taker, enthusiastic, intragroup conflict avoider, and subdued among others.

One of the most difficult challenges of global team leaders is grappling with issues arising from cultural differences among team members. Maznevski and Zander (2001) argued that successful global team leaders should lead team members in a way that is consistent with the team member's cultural expectations. The idea of adapting to meet team members' cultural expectations is consistent with the GLOBE finding that individuals from different cultures have different expectations of leaders. Effective team leaders must be able to recognize when such cultural differences are impacting team communication, understand the different team member perspectives, and facilitate problem-solving by effectively flexing their behavior to bridge cultural differences. In teams that have representatives from many different cultures, a distinctive team agreement or charter that incorporates a hybrid form of managing teamwork may be needed.

Effective global coaches, whether they are leaders who are coaching teams or executive coaches who are coaching leaders, must also be able to discern when cultural differences may be playing a role in team communication and problem-solving. An effective global leader coach must develop the ability to flex his coaching behavior to understand different team member expectations. A global executive coach must also be able to discern potential cultural influences impacting the coaching relationship as well as cultural influences that may be at play in the client's global environment. He or she must also be able to help the client distinguish cultural influences impacting performance from other influences such as personality, attitude, the work environment, or other situational factors.

While the GLOBE study offers useful information for global leaders in terms of recognizing that there are universally viewed perceptions of leader behavior and understanding that other behaviors may be viewed as positive or negative contingent on the culture, there are *cultural* influences in the interpretation of how even the positive characteristics should translate into behaviors so that they are seen as positive. Such differences in perceptions have important implications for both global leaders in terms of their coaching effectiveness and for global executive coaches.

The universally positive traits of 'trustworthy' and 'honest' may have culturally distinct meanings. A US American or German leader may build trust with her team by encouraging open, honest, and direct feedback, both positive and constructive, understanding that her team members value such a forthright approach. Viewed as honest communication, direct assessments of the team's strengths and shortcomings, combined with specific praise and direct 'unvarnished' feedback may be seen by leader and team members alike as helping the team accomplish its mission. Such timely, direct feedback on mission progress in this cultural context can help establish trustworthiness.

In contrast, a Honduran team member may interpret direct feedback as blunt personal criticism, especially if the leader has not laid the groundwork to demonstrate care for his employees and his loyalty to the team. Especially if delivered in a public setting, such direct feedback may not only fail to establish leader trustworthiness, but instead be interpreted as demonstrating how little the leader cares for the employee. The leader's direct approach, so successful with his team in the United States and Germany may in fact *reduce* trust in a Honduran context. An effective

leader coach must take care to learn such cultural differences and adjust his or her behavior when coaching global team members. A global executive coach must also understand how differences in values, norms, and behaviors can impact leader effectiveness.

The cultural anthropologist Hall (1998) contributed the construct of high- and low-context cultures, a concept that is instructive in this case. High-context communication is that “in which most of the information is already in the person, while very little is in the coded, explicit, transmitted part of the message. A low-context (LC) communication is just the opposite, that is, the mass of the information is vested in the explicit code” (Hall, p. 61). Lower context cultures, such as the US, Germany, Holland, and Australia, communicate largely through words in a very specific manner and are more direct and explicit (i.e., tell me exactly what you want). Higher context cultures like Japan, China, Malaysia, or Colombia communicate less directly and depend on situational and verbal cues, as well as information communicated by status and acknowledged roles. Direct specific feedback can be interpreted as a behavior promoting individual performance in individualistic, low-context cultures; in more collectivistic, high-context cultures, feedback considering the individual’s role and delivered in a more indirect, diplomatic, “read between the lines” style that preserves group harmony may be preferred (Milliman, Taylor, & Czaplewski, 2002).

While high- and low-context communication can be found in all cultures, the predominance of one preference over the other in different cultures can easily lead to a breakdown in communication in a global team environment. A global leader from a relatively high-context culture coaching team members from lower context cultures may come to find that his team members are becoming frustrated by his lack of specificity and detail. In contrast, a global leader from a relatively low-context culture may see her effectiveness diminished as a result of missing key subtle cues from her higher context team members.

I have seen each of these missteps in my past role as a leader coach coaching global team leaders as well as in my more recent executive coaching experience. While managing a new US American leader on a global project team in Latin America, I casually dropped in on her several times a week to chat and see how her work was coming along over the course of the first 3 weeks after she had come on board. This was common behavior for Latin American leaders working on the project, and along with our weekly formal staff meeting, considered an effective way to show support for team members while keeping abreast of progress on important projects. Occasional informal visits beginning with conversations about family and personal interests replaced frequent formal meetings more common in the US. Finally, the new manager suggested that holding a structured meeting with me once a week to catch up on project details (low context) might be more efficient than our informal chats. Perceiving the manager’s mounting frustration, I realized that I had been communicating the cultural importance of frequent informal visits with employees by using the high-context medium of demonstrating the behavior, rather than explicitly coaching her on this critical cultural difference. Realizing how my management style had disrupted her carefully planned workflow, I was able to change course, and in a low-context manner describe the differences in leadership

behaviors with the goal of helping her lead her teams in a more culturally accessible, higher context manner.

High- and low-context communication may impact how coaching tools are deployed as well. Multirater 360° feedback, used extensively by executive coaches, is a very low-context tool. While there is empirical evidence of growing acceptance and use of 360-feedback tools in Asia (Gentry et al., 2013), culture likely plays a role in how they might be deployed to obtain optimal results. In Arab countries, for example, receptivity to feedback can be influenced by tribal membership, kinship, and friendships and direct feedback may even be taken as an attack (Peterson, 2007).

Peterson (2007) noted that from a desire to maintain face, direct feedback has traditionally been seen as inappropriate in Japan. A few years ago, after a one-day training session where aggregate 360° feedback data was shared with the senior leadership team to kick off a major culture change initiative, I was tasked with delivering the individual 360-feedback results to each leader. One of the senior Japanese leaders who had never experienced 360° feedback questioned the purpose of the instrument during our individual session. I spent time culturally translating how 360° feedback worked in the US, describing how it was developed to help leaders understand what their peers, employees, and their leaders viewed as his strengths and developmental opportunities. The goal of the feedback was to identify areas where he could leverage his existing skills and continue to develop new skills to help the company and his team to achieve the new strategic goals. While 360° feedback has become one of the top ten best practice leadership development tools worldwide (Curry, 2012), it is important to realize that the practice has a US pedigree. When used as a coaching tool, culture needs to be taken into account.

Hoppe (1998) cited a study that showed negative feedback motivated US managers, but failed to increase organizational commitment from the Japanese, Mexican, South Korean, and Taiwanese participants, while positive feedback increased organizational commitment in all five management groups. Referring to feedback intervention theory, Coultas, Bedwell, Burke, and Salas (2011) suggested that the most effective way to deliver feedback in feedback-averse cultures would be to place a positive focus on what skills might be further developed rather than weaknesses: “This suggests that the tenets of feedback intervention theory are likely even more salient in these cultures since inappropriate feedback is more likely to be perceived as personally offensive rather than generally instructive” (p. 155). When working with Japanese professionals, both Hoppe and Peterson mention the tried and true method of more direct feedback through *tsuikiai*, the after work drinking ritual in Japan where employees can give more direct feedback after several drinks, and apologize the next day.

Another challenging cultural difference cited in the literature is individualism–collectivism. More individualistic cultures prioritize the interests and goals of the individual above those of the group and are more motivated by individual achievement and rewards, while collectivist cultures prioritize group goals above individual ones (Hofstede et al., 2010). Tjosvold and Wong (2004) offered the example of Asian team members who tend to be collectivists and whose identities are strongly linked to their personal relationships. The authors noted that Asian team members

are likely to be more concerned about not losing social face in their interactions with others than are many other cultures. The authors also demonstrated that despite cultural differences, diverse teams with Asian members could incorporate elements from each culture to create third way productive team norms and processes that were accepted and shared by all members in a manner that confirmed social face. They suggested a cooperative 'holistic' approach to managing conflict in global teams similar to other communication strategies proffered by Gundling et al. (2011), Osland (2013), and Maznevski and Chui (2013). The approach consisted of learning and understanding the motives, norms, and cultural styles of team members; developing a holistic perspective; and working to strengthen relationships and communicate across differences. This approach is consistent with Hinds et al.'s (2011) finding that creating a hybrid shared culture and identity was a hallmark of effective cross-border collaboration.

One particularly useful piece of advice from Tjosvold and Wong (2004) was for team members to reflect on and learn from each intercultural encounter. They suggested that a good team leader should be able to facilitate the process by providing mentoring and coaching. While such experimentation through trial and error may lead to effective problem-solving, Hinds et al. (2011) note that the evolution of a culture capable of using such a sense making approach may be slow. Moreover, as a result of the psychological energy required to code shift from one culture to another, the hybrid team identity may be difficult to sustain (Hinds et al., 2011).

Another cultural challenge involves differing team member expectations in terms of power and hierarchy (Maznevski & Chui, 2013; Maznevski & Zander, 2001; Milliman et al., 2002). Hofstede's dimension of power-distance refers to how cultures deal with hierarchy and inequality: "In small-power-distance countries, there is limited dependence of subordinates on bosses, and there is a preference for consultation (that is, interdependence among boss and subordinate). The emotional distance between them is relatively small: subordinates will rather easily approach and contradict their boss" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 61). In contrast, in high-power-distance countries, "there is considerable dependence of subordinates on bosses...subordinates are unlikely to approach and contradict their bosses directly" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 61). In higher power-distance countries, individuals accept and expect a hierarchical distribution of power. A team leader from a relatively high-power-distance South American culture that I was coaching felt disrespected by two of his 'insubordinate' global team members from two lower power-distance cultures. In turn, these team members felt they were being micromanaged, were not adequately involved in team decision-making, and were 'talked-down' to. Different interpretations of the role of the leader based on power-distance preferences undoubtedly played a role in this conflict. Understanding how the dimension of power-distance might be impacting relationships between leaders and their global team members is essential for global coaches.

Finally, uncertainty avoidance impacts global teams (Mukherjee et al., 2012). Uncertainty avoidance (UA) is defined as "the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations" (Hofstede et al., 2010). While all individuals seek to reduce uncertainty in their lives (Mukherjee et al., 2012),

higher rankings on UA are manifested in a strong dislike for ambiguity, a need for predictability and rules, and anxiety produced by a lack of rules (Hofstede et al., 2010). Greece, Belgium, Russia, France, Argentina, and Costa Rica rank higher in UA while Singapore, Denmark, Sweden, China, Malaysia, Great Britain, and the US rank lower. Mukherjee et al. (2012) noted that individuals who are high in UA may experience more detachment from the team as a result of the dispersed nature of virtual global teams and associated time, distance, reliance on communication technology, and attendant challenges of enforcing rules and norms. When working with leaders and teams, global leader coaches and executive coaches should be aware of how this dimension may be impacting leader–team member dynamics as well as team dynamics in general.

Maznevski and Zander (2001) recommended that the following actions be taken by global team leaders to manage cultural challenges presented by working with global teams more effectively. They suggest spending face time with members, especially early in the project, in order to learn about team member preferences and facilitate communication; being vigilant and responsive to differences in team member expectations of hierarchy, decision-making and power; and, serving as a ‘cultural interpreter’ when necessary to help team members understand one another. Finally, seeing cultural differences as assets rather than liabilities can help create synergy that leads to increased performance.

A useful tool cited by Gundling et al. (2011) provides a practical model that can be used to withhold judgment, reflect on the situation, and then develop a strategy to bridge differences. BRICC is the acronym the authors chose: (1) bracket one’s own ideas/approach and withhold judgment; (2) relate with individuals involved in the process to create trust to bridge cultural differences; (3) inquire what one knows and does not know about the problem—explore possible changes in approach; (4) cocreate solutions by involving others, learn, and consider how to contribute; (5) commit, confirming buy-in and ensuring that one has leveraged local, functional, and global resources. This approach is similar to Osland’s (2013) ‘effectiveness model’ that she created with Allan Bird. Three steps define the effectiveness model: (1) perceive, analyze, and diagnose the situation; (2) identify effective action to take based on global knowledge, experience, and situational factors, and; (3) put the cognitive and behavioral skills together to act on the understanding. Both models provide useful guidance to global coaches as well as global team leaders for helping them withhold judgment as they decipher complex behaviors across cultures.

Citing the diverse composition of teams and the virtual nature of most communication, Gundling et al. (2011) argued that creating and sustaining a common vision and direction was the most significant challenge that global leaders face in working with global teams. They suggested that although all ten behaviors are important for leader effectiveness, the three most critical behaviors for global team leaders are inviting the unexpected, frame shifting, and leading across boundaries.

Inviting the unexpected included several specific leader actions such as establishing strong relationships with team members. This could be accomplished by kicking off the team effort with a face-to-face retreat to help identify and work with ‘unexpected’ differences in work styles, functional area, and culture. Barczak et al. (2006)

and Maznevski and DiStefano (2000) also strongly advocated kicking off the team face to face and investing time in learning about cultural differences of team members.

The second behavior identified was frame-shifting communication style, leadership style, and strategy. Depending on the context presenting itself, global team leaders should be able to shift focus from tactical to strategic, local control to central control, facilitative style to directive style, and technical focus to visionary focus. The authors recommend using a frame-shifting tool that starts with identifying the ‘what,’ or the local cultural differences that impact interactions. The next step is to ask ‘so what,’ the impact on the leader and team effort, not impact to the leader and team effort. The final step is to ask ‘now what,’ developing a strategy to minimize the cultural differences/leverage differences to achieve results.

The final behavior Gundling et al. (2011) cited is to influence across boundaries. Conducting a stakeholder analysis is the heart of this behavior. This includes an analysis of all stakeholder needs and goals, including executives in the country where the team is operating. Similarly, Barczak et al. (2006) argued that it is important to assess the team member differences and similarities, languages, and national distribution. Maznevski and DiStefano (2000) and Maznevski and Chui (2013) advocated a similar approach. They suggested that each team member map out their similarities and differences from one another in terms of culture, function, and business unit perspectives. Maznevski and Chui (2013) also suggested using cultural instruments and personality assessments in an effort to ferret out differences and similarities, focusing on creating alignment around definition of tasks and objectives, and determining how diverse members could contribute differently. Once team member differences are mapped, the team should work together to bridge the differences using effective communication.

In cases where leaders are encountering cultural challenges in their teams, global coaches can inquire whether the leader has mapped out differences and similarities. A chartering process, where team members meet together face to face, can help team leaders clarify the team’s purpose, goals, values, and decision-making process in its formative stage. Combined with teambuilding activities designed to help members get to know each other as human beings rather than Chinese, American, Indian, or Colombian team members can also help improve the team’s chances for success. In the case of GVTs, Maznevski and Chui (2013) also cited research that showed periodic, scheduled face-to-face meetings focusing on strengthening relationships was more effective and more cost effective than ad hoc meetings scheduled to solve specific problems.

A number of competencies for global team leaders have been identified. Working with team leaders from a Fortune 500 software and hardware company, Joshi and Lazarova (2005) interviewed 89 team members and 50 team leaders from the US, France, Germany, India, UK/Ireland, China, Australia, and Eastern Europe/Russia. From extensive interviews, they developed a list of competencies. Lerner (2008) conducted extensive interviews with 41 software team members from Hungary, the US, and India. Both studies identified communication, providing direction, goal setting, and scheduling/coordination as critical leadership success factors. Additionally, Joshi and Lazarova (2005) identified the following as key competencies:

facilitating teamwork (resolving conflicts and ensuring ownership of team goals), motivating and inspiring, managing cultural diversity (understanding, respecting, and responding to differences), empowering (making sure all team members contribute and have the ability to influence team decisions), boundary spanning (championing the team with headquarters, being aware of political changes outside the team, identifying and maintaining communications with upper management), staffing, and mentoring and coaching.

Coaching Global Teams and Team Leaders: Suggestions for Effective Coaching

It should be clear from the preceding overview that both global executive coaches and global leader coaches need take into account their own culture as well as the culture of the person being coached, and adapt their coaching approaches to the individual's needs. Cross-cultural coaching approaches developed to address cultural issues are just beginning to emerge. Philippe Rosinski's (2009) Coaching Orientations Framework (COF) is the most frequently cited cross-cultural coaching model in the literature.

Rosinski and Abbott (2006) refer to global coaching as a type of "pragmatic humanism" designed to help clients develop effective solutions to challenges they face. The COF model adapts cultural dimensions from Hofstede, Schwartz, Hall, Trompenaars and others into seven categories and 17 different dimensions. When used in conjunction with other information such as personality preferences and behavioral data, the model can be used to map preferences and abilities of coaches, protégés, and team members to help understand similarities and differences that may impact relationships and performance. The model is especially useful for executive coaches who expect to work extensively with global leaders, and the dimensions will be immediately recognizable to individuals working in the field of cross-cultural communication. For a leader coach, the model sacrifices parsimony for comprehensiveness: learning and attending to 17 dimensions and seven categories present a challenging array of cognitive concepts to integrate into a leader's approach.

Both Rosinski (2009) and Handin and Steinwedel (2006) used the Bennett developmental model of intercultural sensitivity (DMIS) to frame their own cross-cultural coaching models (see Fig. 7.1).

Rosinski (2009) incorporated Bennett's stages into his model of cross-cultural coaching, arguing that the first three stages in the model represented ethnocentric



Fig. 7.1 Bennett's developmental model of intercultural sensitivity, adapted from Bennett, M.J. (1998)

coaching, and the last three ethnorelative stages represented cross-cultural and global coaching. Bennett defined ethnocentric as “using one’s own set of standards to judge all people, often unconsciously” (Bennett, p. 26). Ethnorelative referred to “being comfortable with many standards and customs and to having an ability to adapt behaviors and judgments to a variety of intercultural situations” (p. 26). Individuals who are in the denial stage are not aware of cultural differences and may make sweeping generalizations about a culture based on limited knowledge. Defense is marked by an increased awareness of cultural differences and seeing the other culture in “a denigrated ‘them’ versus a superior ‘us’ (p. 27). Minimization is a stage where individuals minimize cultural differences, believing that people, in essence, are all the same despite superficial cultural differences. The ethnorelative stages include acceptance, where individuals are aware of cultural differences including their own culture, and adaptation, where individuals can “intentionally shift into a different cultural frames of reference” (p. 28). People at the integration stage are “inclined to interpret and evaluate behavior from a variety of cultural frame of reference, so that there is never a single right or wrong answer” (p. 29–30). Rosinski (2009) believed that global coaches must operate from the ethnorelative stages, and his Cultural Orientations Framework (COF) for coaching across cultures added an additional stage of ‘leveraging differences’ to the Bennett model.

Handin and Steinwedel’s (2006) three core behaviors of effective global coaches—curiosity, cultivation, and collaboration—are also framed as ethnorelative behaviors. The authors included more specific competencies under each of these high-level ethnorelative behaviors. Curiosity incorporated inquiry and listening skills, self-awareness, self-development, and discernment. Cultivation included understanding others’ needs, customs, values, patience, and optimism. Collaboration encompassed relationship building, agility, motivating others, and personal disclosure. Handin and Steinwedel’s model also underscores the importance of knowledge of self; one’s own culture and other cultures; values such as learning, knowledge, achievement, and developing relationships; and the qualities of respect, humility, and appreciation. The Bennett model is a useful heuristic for helping coaches understand that learning about cultural dimensions is only the beginning of the process of developing intercultural competence, and that changes in attitude and behaviors to enable intercultural effectiveness are a process rather than a simple skill that must be learned. It is a simple model that can be used to explore the learning journey rather than a set-in-stone “this is how people develop” blueprint, and used as such can aid both coaches and global leaders in their development of intercultural sensitivity and empathy.

Best practice models in executive coaching have focused primarily on the United States (Gentry et al., 2013). A recent qualitative study of 19 executive coaches working in Europe and 12 in Asia was undertaken by Gentry et al. (2013) to determine best coaching practices in those regions. Three best practice strategies common to both regions included the use of assessments (such as 360° feedback), focusing on the client (relationship building, listening, providing a sense of safety, and building a connection with the client), and cultural awareness. All three of these subjects were discussed earlier. Additional Asia-specific priorities included challenging the protégé to move outside his/her ‘comfort zone’; structuring the coaching

intervention by having a schedule, agenda, and plan; using mental models; focusing on results by developing objectives, goals, and follow-up; and providing support, advice, and tools. While both Asian and European cultures focused on relationship building and cultural issues, Asian coaches seemed to pay special attention to task elements of their interventions related to results (Gentry et al., 2013), stressing the importance of preparation, using an agenda, and focusing on results. An important best practice in Europe not mentioned frequently by Asian coaches included coach learning and development, particularly through client feedback. Learning and development is an important factor in the US as the large number of coaching schools can attest.

While recognizing that cultural differences are important, DeLay and Dalton (2006), Coultas et al. (2011), Rosinski and Abbott (2006) all cautioned that a coach must be careful not to overgeneralize based on culture. Coultas et al. (2011) urged coaches to avoid the ecological fallacy of making the assumption that everyone from a country will act in a specific way. In coaching across cultures, it is important to respect the person's individuality, regardless of whether he or she is from a more individualistic or collectivistic culture: individuals are not national cultures. Abbott & Rosinski (2007) deprecated the use of sophisticated stereotyping. Coaches must seek out a fuller understanding of the context of the individual being coached, including his or her personality, the organization, the practical job-related factors, skills levels, and individual and team motivations. Additional factors include the individual's education and religion, and any political or economic factors that may influence the 'mental models' driving the behavior of the individual who is being coached (DeLay & Dalton, 2006). With this important caveat in mind, the penultimate section that follows provides tentative suggestions for effective global leader and executive coaching practice.

Suggested Practices for Effective Global Coaching

Suggestions for leader and executive coaches:

- Increase personal self-awareness. Understand your own cultural identity, thinking preferences, personality preferences, and other salient sources of your identity and how those differ from other individuals in general, and from your clients/protégés in particular.
- Do not underestimate the difficulty of adapting coaching strategies effectively across cultural differences. Leaders do not find it easy to flex their behaviors when working globally (St.-Claire-Ostwald, 2007), and coaches will also find flexing their coaching behaviors across cultures challenging. At a minimum, learn about the cultural dimensions individualism–collectivism, power-distance, uncertainty avoidance, and high–low context and explore how these dimensions may be impacting your clients/protégés.
- Paradoxically, avoid committing the ecological fallacy, assuming that individuals will behave a certain way because of their culture. Such sophisticated stereotyping

can lead to ignoring other relevant factors such as personality, individual goals, biographical and behavioral data, and information drawn from history and religion. For example, Nangalia and Nangalia (2010) argued that Hinduism and Confucianism have exerted a profound influence on Asia. In a comparative study of Saudi–US leader coaching behaviors, Noer, Leupold, and Valle (2007) argued that Islamic values, Bedouin tribal and family factors, and even the legacy of Ottoman governance were likely to influence Saudi preferences in coaching.

- Take time to develop rapport with the client/protégé/employee. As described earlier, differences in preferences for collectivism–individualism should be used to inform the coach’s approach. Creating a safe space for dialog is critical for coaching success (Plaister-Ten, 2009).
- Learn how conceptualizations of effective leadership differ across cultures and how similar conceptualizations of effective leadership may require adaptation (recall the discussion of trustworthiness and the GLOBE findings earlier).
- Cultivate mindfulness. Mindfulness is the ability to be aware of one’s own emotional and habitual responses and assumptions while recognizing others’ cognitions and emotions (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001). Heightened awareness of one’s culture, personality, behavioral preferences, and other situational factors are important for developing this skill. See the last chapter in this book for a detailed discussion.
- Important interpersonal skills include listening, empathy, questioning skills, giving and receiving feedback, being attentive to both high- and low-context forms of communication, displaying personal warmth, awareness of cultural differences in emotional expressiveness, silence, and proxemics, and the ability to flex behaviors to create a safe environment for coaching. Additionally, follow up and planning and organizing are important competencies for working with team members/team leaders for planning sessions, goal setting, building on successes, offering redirects, and celebrating successes.
- Model openness to feedback. Effective global coaches learn from mistakes and continue to hone their skills (Plaister-Ten, 2009). The ability to learn quickly in unfamiliar settings is also important.
- Use assessments such as personality profiles and 360° feedback, but employ them with an eye to adjusting for cultural differences. Do not rush the assessment process when working in a global environment (DeLay & Dalton, 2006). As much as possible, use instruments validated in the target cultures and that are administered in native languages (Hoppe, 1998). Confirm expectations of confidentiality with clients beforehand since different cultures place different priorities on confidentiality.
- An appreciation of the different client/protégé cultures that the coach is working with and personal experience adapting to a different culture are also important (Abbott, Stening, Atkins, & Grant, 2006).
- Be prepared for differing expectations of you as a coach and a plan for working across those differences. As discussed earlier, protégés/team members from some cultures may expect more direct counsel, advice, and prescriptive behavior while others prefer a Socratic process that facilitates self-discovery.
- Cultivate humility. The world counts more than 3,000 languages and over 20,000 cultures; expect surprises.

Additional Suggestions for Executive Coaches for Coaching Global Team Leaders:

- Do advance research to understand the client/protégé's professional and organizational environment. This includes finding out about the protégé's company's products and services, organizational goals, mission, and values.
- Since many global business coaches come from the world of psychology, intercultural studies, or education, I recommend focusing on the issues most salient to our business clients. While we encourage our customers to learn more about human behavior, motivation, and culture, coaches should take time to learn about business and respect the business milieu of the client. Regardless of culture, business leaders are concerned with performance, meeting project milestones, budgets, focusing on project deliverables, customer service, and financial results. While many clients find cultural differences intriguing, culture per se in my experience is not their focus: resolving practical business-related task and people challenges is. Coaches, grounded in social science approaches, need to stretch from their professional cultures to work in business "culture."
- Help clients search for ways to bridge cultural differences between both the leader and team members and among their team members. It may be useful to explore third way approaches with your client such as those discussed earlier in the chapter.
- Find culturally effective ways of getting feedback from clients.

Additional Suggestions for Leader Coaches for Coaching their Team Members:

- Be especially attentive to power-distance as it impacts your leadership role and others' perception of your status.
- Cultivate your ability to perceive cultural differences.
- While learning about global team dynamics, seek to discover the leadership expectations of your team members. Asking team members about their expectations for leadership can be helpful, but with higher context and higher power-distance team members, low context "just tell me what you prefer" approaches may not work well. Reviewing the earlier discussion of leadership, the GLOBE results, and leadership in the context of high performance global teams is a good starting point. Use this knowledge to observe your own team and begin to understand the expectations of your team members.
- During kick-off, meet with your team in person and have members spend time getting to know each other. Consider mapping cultural differences among all the members of your team including yourself during your kick-off session, and include social, non-task-related activities to help members establish rapport. Create a team charter early on stating the team purpose, and work collaboratively with team members to clarify roles and responsibilities and develop team norms around communication, decision-making, and meeting protocols to be included in the charter.
- Look for opportunities to explore third way approaches with your team such as those discussed earlier in the chapter. Learn and encourage team members to

learn from cultural missteps and to apply that learning to build bridges of understanding.

- For GVTs, several authors recommend scheduling periodic face-to-face meetings. While travel costs can add up, team failures resulting from poor communication can be much more expensive.
- Make sure team members are trained to use virtual tools for ongoing communication. Schedule meetings in advance, distribute written agendas prior to meetings, and avoid using idiomatic expressions. If the common language of global team members is English, remember that a majority of the world's English speakers speak English as a foreign language.
- If you are in charge of a project team or working as a country manager, become very familiar with the labor code in the country in which you are operating or in the case of a large multinational, with local HR directors who know the labor code. When providing coaching for performance improvement, a solid knowledge of local labor law and practices is important as you move from coaching into discipline.
- Schedule periodic one-on-one meetings with team members. I work with many leaders who claim they have trouble finding time to coach their team members because they must attend to more urgent issues. Prioritization and better time management is often a big part of the answer. Since coaching is such a central and critical function of leaders, poor time management should not be used as an excuse for not providing needed coaching. Particularly in global settings, taking time to understand team members and provide direction and coaching is important for the team and organization's success.

Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of the empirical and best practice literature on effective global leader coaching and global executive coaching. I began by looking at the increasing popularity of coaching as a method for tackling organizational challenges, and reviewed research on effective global teams. Next, I presented information on coaching, culture, and effective global team leadership before proceeding to offer tentative suggestions for executive coaches working with global team leaders and leader coaches working with global teams.

Handin and Steinwedel (2006) argued that executive coaching could play a role in developing effective global leaders. They argued that organizations were not providing adequate preparation for leaders who were expected to work effectively in a global environment, noting that such work may require skills and behaviors that are "at odds with an individual's deeply held, and usually invisible, assumptions and beliefs, the products of living almost exclusively in one's own culture" (p. 19). Their contention that companies are not doing enough to prepare global leaders was echoed by a study by consulting firm Development Dimensions International. The study showed that only 39 % of the more than 13,000 global leaders and human

resources professionals ranked their current multinational leaders as good or excellent, and a majority of the multinational leaders themselves felt their preparation to work in a global environment was only fair or poor (Howard & Wellins, 2009). As globalization of business proceeds apace, it is likely that global coaching will continue to gain adherents.

References

- Abbott G. and Rosinski, P. (2007). Global coaching and evidence based coaching: Multiple perspectives operating in a process of pragmatic humanism. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, 5(1), 58–77.
- Abbott, G. N., Stening, B. W., Atkins, P. W. B., & Grant, A. M. (2006). Coaching expatriate managers for success: Adding value beyond training and mentoring. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 44(3), 295–317. doi:10.1177/1038411106069413.
- American Management Association. (2008). *Coaching: Global study of successful practices*. New York: American Management Association.
- Anderson, M. C., Anderson, D. L., & Mayo, W. D. (2008). Team coaching helps a leadership team drive cultural change at Caterpillar. *Global Business & Organizational Excellence*, 27(4), 40–50. doi:10.1002/joe.20212.
- Barczak, G., McDonough, E. F., & Athanassiou, N. (2006). So you want to be a global project leader? *Research Technology Management*, 49(3), 28–35. Retrieved January 10, 2014, from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/213803264?accountid=7313>.
- Barta, T., Kleiner, M. & Neumann, T. (2012). Is there a payoff from top-team diversity? *McKinsey Quarterly*, April 2012, pp. 1–3.
- Beechler, S., & Javidan, M. (2007). Leading with a global mindset. *Advances in Global Management*, 19, 131–169.
- Berg, N., & Holtbrügge, D. (2010). Global teams: A network analysis. *Team Performance Management*, 16(3–4), 187–211.
- Bhawuk, D. P. S. (2009). Intercultural training for the global workplace: Review, synthesis, and theoretical explorations. In R. S. Bhagat & R. M. Steers (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of culture, organizations, and work* (pp. 462–488). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Bingham, T., & Galagan, P. (2009). Learning is a powerful tool: Jim Owens, CEO, Caterpillar. *Best of Training and Development: What CEOs want*, pp. 46–53.
- Brett, J., Behfar, K., & Kern, M. C. (2006). Managing multicultural teams. *Harvard Business Review*, November, pp. 84–91.
- Briscoe, D., Randall, S., & Tarique, I. (2012). *International human resource management: Policies and practices for multinational enterprises*. New York: Routledge.
- British Council, Ipsos, & Booz, Allen, Hamilton. (2013). *Culture at work: The value of intercultural skills in the workplace*. Retrieved January 12, 2014, from <http://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/britishcouncil.uk2/files/culture-at-work-report.pdf>
- Caligiuri, P. (2013). *Cultural agility: Building a pipeline of successful global professionals*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Clutterbuck, D. (2013). Time to focus coaching on the team. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 45(1), 18–22. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00197851311296665>.
- Coultas, C. W., Bedwell, W. L., Burke, C. S., & Salas, E. (2011). Values sensitive coaching: The DELTA approach to coaching culturally diverse executives. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 63(3), 149–161. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0025603>.
- Coutu, D., Kauffman, C., Charan, R., Peterson, D. B., Maccoby, M., Scoular, P., et al. (2009). What can coaches do for you? *Harvard Business Review*, 87(1), 91–97.
- Curry, C. D. (2012). Best practices in leadership development. In Dr. G. M. (Bud) Benschoter (Ed.), *Human resource encyclopedia, Volume III*, (pp. 3–32). San Francisco: Pfeiffer.

- Dalton, M., Ernst, C., Deal, J., & Leslie, J. (2002). *Success for the new global manager: How to work across distances, countries, and cultures*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- De Haan, E., Duckworth, A., Birch, D., & Jones, C. (2013). Executive coaching outcome research: The contribution of common factors such as relationship, personality match, and self-efficacy. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 65(1), 40–57.
- DeLay, L. and Dalton, M. (2006). Coaching across cultures. In Ting, S. & Scisco, P. (Ed.) *The CCL handbook of coaching: A guide for the leader coach* (pp. 122–148). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Development Dimensions International and the Economist Economic Unit (2008). *Growing global executive talent: High priority, limited progress*.
- Dickson, M. W., Den Hartog, D. N., & Castaño, N. (2009). Understanding leadership across cultures. In R. S. Bhagat & R. M. Steers (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of culture, organizations, and work* (pp. 219–244). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Earnst & Young, (2013). *Hitting the sweet spot: The growth of the middle class in emerging markets*. Downloaded from: [http://www.ey.com/Publication/vwLUAssets/Hitting_the_sweet_spot/\\$File/Hitting_the_sweet_spot.pdf](http://www.ey.com/Publication/vwLUAssets/Hitting_the_sweet_spot/$File/Hitting_the_sweet_spot.pdf)
- Finkelman, J., & Lopez, P. D. (2012). Global consulting in a culturally diverse world: Ethical and legal implications. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 64(4), 307–324. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0031675>.
- Gentry, W. A., Manning, L., Wolf, A., Hernez-Broome, G., & Allen, L. (2013). What coaches believe are best practices for coaching: A qualitative study of interviews from coaches residing in Asia and Europe. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 7(2), 18–31. doi:10.1002/jls.21285.
- Grant, A., Curtayne, L., & Burton, G. (2009). Executive coaching enhances goal attainment, resilience, and workplace well-being: A randomized controlled study. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 4(5), 396–407.
- Gundling, E., Hogan, T., & Cvitkovich, K. (2011). *What is global leadership?: 10 key behaviors that define great global leaders*. Boston: Nicholas Brealey.
- Hackman, J., & Wageman, R. (2005). A theory of team coaching. *Academy of Management Review*, 30(2), 269–287. doi:10.5465/AMR.2005.16387885.
- Hagen, M., & Gavrilova Aguilar, M. (2012). The impact of managerial coaching on learning outcomes within the team context: An analysis. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 23(3), 363–388.
- Hall, E.T. (1998). The power of hidden differences. In M.J. Bennett (Ed.), *Basic concepts of intercultural communications: Selected readings* (pp. 53–67). Yarmouth, Maine: Intercultural Press.
- Hamlin, R. G., Ellinger, A. D., & Beattie, R. S. (2006). Coaching at the heart of managerial effectiveness: A cross-cultural study of managerial behaviours. *Human Resource Development International*, 9(3), 305–331. doi:10.1080/13678860600893524.
- Handin, K., & Steinwedel, J. S. (2006). Developing global leaders: Executive coaching targets cross-cultural competencies. *Global Business & Organizational Excellence*, 26(1), 18–28. doi:10.1002/joe.20118.
- Hill, C. W. L. (2011). *Global business today*. New York: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Hinds, P., Liu, L., & Lyon, J. (2011). Putting the global in global work: An intercultural lens on the practice of cross-national collaboration. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 5(1), 135–188.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.
- Hoppe, M.H. (1998). Cross-cultural issues in leadership development. In McCauley, C. D., Moxley, R. S. and Van Velsor, E. (Eds.) *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development* (pp. 336–378). Greensboro, NC: Jossey-Bass.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. London: Sage.
- Howard, A., & Wellins, R. S. (2009). *Global leadership forecast 2008–2009: Overcoming the shortfalls in developing leaders*. Pittsburgh, PA: Development Dimensions International.
- International Coach Federation & Pricewaterhouse Coopers (2012). *2012 ICF global coaching study: Executive summary*. Retrieved January 10, 2014, from <http://icf.files.cms-plus.com/includes/media/docs/2012ICFGlobalCoachingStudy-ExecutiveSummary.pdf>

- Jacobs, D. (2005). In search of future leaders: Managing the global talent pipeline. *Ivey Business Journal Online*, Mar/Apr, pp. 1–5.
- Jenkins, J. (2006). Coaching meets the cross-cultural challenge. *Leadership in Action*, 26(5), 23–24.
- Joshi, A., & Lazarova, M. (2005). Do global teams need “global” leaders? Identifying leadership competencies in multinational teams. *Managing Multinational Teams: Global Perspectives Advances in International Management*, 18, 281–302.
- Kankanhalli, A., Tan, B. Y., & Zwok-Kee, W. (2006). Conflict and performance in global virtual teams. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 23(3), 237–274.
- Kets de Vries, M. R. (2005). Leadership group coaching in action: The Zen of creating high performance teams. *Academy of Management Executive*, 19(1), 61–76. doi:10.5465/AME.2005.15841953.
- Kets de Vries, M. R. (2014). The group coaching conundrum. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 12(1), 79–91.
- Lerner, S. M. (2008). Leadership best practices that enhanced the perceived effectiveness of global distributed hybrid teams. PHD—look up citation specs, UMI 3313176.
- Liu, C. Y., Pirolo-Merlo, A., Yang, C. A., & Huang, C. (2009). Disseminating the functions of team coaching regarding research and development effectiveness: Evidence from high tech industries in Taiwan. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37(1), 41–58.
- Lowman, R. L. (2007). Coaching and consulting in multicultural contexts: Integrating themes and issues. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 59(4), 296–303. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/1065-9293.59.4.296.
- Luthans, F., & Peterson, S. (2003). 360-degree feedback with systematic coaching: Empirical evidence suggests a winning combination. *Human Resource Management*, 42(3), 243–246.
- Mangion, K. (2013). Global coaching: An integrated approach for long-lasting results. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, 11(2), 124–126.
- Maznevski, M. L., & Chuboda, K. M. (2000). Bridging space over time: Global virtual team dynamics and effectiveness. *Organization Science*, 11(5), 473–492.
- Maznevski, M. L., & Chui, C. (2013). Leading global teams. In M. E. Mendenhall, J. Osland, A. Bird, G. Oddou, & M. Maznevski (Eds.), *Global leadership: Research, practice and development* (pp. 141–162). London: Routledge.
- Maznevski, M. L., & DiStefano, J. J. (2000). Global leaders are team players: Developing global leaders through membership on global teams. *Human Resources Management*, 39(2 & 3), 195–208.
- Maznevski, M. L., & Zander, L. (2001). Leading global teams: Overcoming the challenge of the power paradox. In M. E. Mendenhall, T. M. Kühlman, & G. K. Stahl (Eds.), *Developing global business leaders* (pp. 157–174). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- McCall, M. W., Jr., & Hollenbeck, G. P. (2002). *Developing global executives: The lessons of international experience*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- McGovern, J., Lindemann, M., Vergara, M., Murphy, S., Barker, L., & Warrenfelz, R. (2001). Maximizing the impact of executive coaching: Behavioral change, organizational outcomes, and return on investment. *The Manchester Review*, 6(1), 1–9.
- McKinsey Global Institute (2014). *Global flows in a digital age: How trade, finance, people and data connect the world economy*. McKinsey & Company, April, 2014.
- Mendenhall, M. E. (2006). The elusive, yet critical challenge of developing global leaders. *European Management Journal*, 24(6), 422–429.
- Mendenhall, M. E., Kühlmann, T. M., & Stahl, G. K. (2001). *Developing global leaders: Policies, processes, and innovations*. Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Mendenhall, M. E., Osland, J., Bird, A., Oddou, G., & Maznevski, M. (2013). *Global leadership: Research, practice and development* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Meyer, E. (2014). Navigating the cultural minefield. *Harvard Business Review*, May, pp. 119–123.
- Milliman, J., Taylor, S., & Czaplewski, A. J. (2002). Cross-cultural performance feedback in multinational enterprises: Opportunity for organizational learning. *Human Resource Planning*, 25(3), 29–43.

- Milner, J., Ostmeier, E., & Franke, R. (2013). Critical incidents in cross-cultural coaching: The view from German coaches. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, 11(2), 19–32.
- Montoya-Weiss, M. M., Massey, A. P., & Song, M. (2001). Getting it together: Temporal coordination and conflict in global virtual teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(6), 1251–1262.
- Moosmüller, A., Spieß, E., & Podsiadlowski, A. (2001). International team building: Issues in training multinational work groups. In M. E. Mendenhall, T. M. Kühlmann, & G. K. Stahl (Eds.), *Developing global leaders: Policies, processes, and innovations*. Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Mukherjee, D., Hanlon, S. C., Kedia, B. L., & Srivastava, P. (2012). Organizational identification among global virtual team members: The role of individualism-collectivism and uncertainty avoidance. *Cross Cultural Management*, 19(4), 526–545.
- Nangalia, L., & Nangalia, A. (2010). The Coach in Asian Society: Impact of social hierarchy on the coaching relationship. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, 8(1), 51–66.
- Noer, D. M., Leupold, C. R., & Valle, M. (2007). An analysis of Saudi Arabian and U.S. managerial coaching behaviors. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 19(2), 271–287, 159. Retrieved from, <http://ezproxy.barry.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/194165174?accountid=27715>. OJO Rosinski article?
- Osland, J. S. (2001). The quest for transformation: The process of global leadership development. In M. E. Mendenhall, T. M. Kühlmann, & G. K. Stahl (Eds.), *Developing global business leaders: Policies, processes, and innovations* (pp. 137–156). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Osland, J. S. (2013). An overview of the global leadership literature. In M. E. Mendenhall, J. Osland, A. Bird, G. Oddou, & M. Maznevski (Eds.), *Global leadership: Research, practice and development* (2nd ed., pp. 40–79). London: Routledge.
- Osland, J. S., Taylor, S., & Mendenhall, M. E. (2009). Global leadership: Progress and challenges. In R. S. Bhagat & R. M. Steers (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of culture, organizations, and work* (pp. 245–271). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Paul, S., Samarah, M. M., Seetharaman, P., & Mykytyn, P. P. (2005). An empirical investigation of collaborative conflict management style in group support system-based global virtual teams. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 21(3), 185–222.
- Peterson, D. B. (2007). Executive coaching in a cross-cultural context. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 59(4), 261–271. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/1065-9293.59.4.261>.
- Phillips, T. (2011). Creating a coaching culture across a global sales force. *Strategic HR Review*, 10(4), 5–10. doi:10.1108/147543911111140945.
- Plaister-Ten, J. (2009). Towards greater cultural understanding in coaching. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, Special Issue No. 3*, pp. 64–81.
- Project Management Institute (2013). *PMI's Pulse of the profession in-depth report*. Retrieved January 10, 2014, from <http://www.pmi.org/Knowledge-Center/~media/PDF/Business-Solutions/The-High-Cost-Low-Performance-The-Essential-Role-of-Communications.aspx>
- Rabotin, M. (2009). Reading the world: Acquiring cultural synergetic intelligence in today's global economy in *Training and development. Global learning: The best of global human resource development 2008–2011*, pp. 16–19.
- Renault-Nissan Alliance Blog. Executives, <http://blog.alliance-renault-nissan.com/users/all>
- Renner, J. C. (2007). Coaching abroad: Insights about assets. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 59(4), 272–285. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/1065-9293.59.4.272>.
- Rosen, R., Digh, P., Singer, M., & Phillips, C. (2000). *Global literacies: Lessons on business leadership and national cultures*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Rosinski, P. (2009). *Coaching across cultures*. London: Nicholas Brealey.
- Rosinski, P. & Abbott, G.N. (2006). Coaching from a cultural perspective. In Stober, N. & Grant, A.M. (Eds.) *Evidence based coaching handbook: Putting best practices to work for clients* (pp. 255–275). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Schlenkrich, L., & Upfold, C. (2009). A guideline for virtual team managers: The key to effective social interaction and communication. *The Electronic Journal Information System Evaluation*, 12(1), 109–118.

- Sherman, S., & Freas, A. (2004). The wild west of executive coaching. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(11), 82–90.
- Sinha, J. B. P., Sinha, T. N., Verma, J., & Sinha, R. B. N. (2001). Collectivism coexisting with individualism: An Indian scenario. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 4(2), 271–287. Retrieved from <http://search.ebscohost.com.ezproxy.barry.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=a9h&AN=4891444&site=ehost-live>.
- Spence, G. B., & Oades, L. G. (2011). Coaching with self-determination in mind: Using theory to advance evidence-based coaching practice. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, 9(2), 37–55.
- Stanko, T. L., & Gibson, C. B. (2009). The role of cultural elements in virtual teams. In R. S. Bhagat & R. M. Steers (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of culture, organizations, and work* (pp. 272–304). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- St. Claire-Ostwald, B. (2007). Carrying cultural baggage: The contribution of anthropology to cross-cultural coaching. *International Journal of Evidence-Based Coaching* 5(2), 45–52.
- Stober, D. R. (2006). Coaching from the humanistic perspective. In D. R. Stober & A. Grant (Eds.), *Evidence based coaching handbook: Putting best practices to work for clients* (pp. 17–50). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Stober, D. R., & Grant, A. (2006). *Evidence based coaching handbook: Putting best practices to work for clients*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Stumpf, S., & Zeuschel, U. (2001). Synergy effects in multinational groups: What we know and what we don't know. In M. E. Mendenhall, T. M. Kühlman, & G. K. Stahl (Eds.), *Developing global business leaders* (pp. 175–194). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Thach, E. (2002). The impact of executive coaching and 360 feedback on leadership effectiveness. *Leadership and Development Journal*, 23(4), 205–214.
- Thomas, D., & Inkson, K. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: People skills for global business*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
- Ting, S. (2006). Our view of coaching for leadership development. In S. Ting & P. Scisco (Eds.), *The CCL handbook of coaching: A guide for the leader coach* (pp. 15–33). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Ting, S., & Riddle, D. (2006). A framework for leadership development coaching. In S. Ting & P. Scisco (Eds.), *The CCL handbook of coaching: A guide for the leader coach* (pp. 34–62). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Ting, S., & Scisco, P. (2006). *The CCL handbook of coaching: A guide for the leader coach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Ting-Toomey, S., & Oetzel, J. G. (2001). *Managing intercultural conflict effectively*. London: Sage.
- Tjosvold, D., & Wong, A. S. H. (2004). Innovating across boundaries: Applying conflict theory to develop a common approach. *International Negotiation*, 9, 291–313.
- Wasylyshyn, K. M., Gronsky, B., & Haas, J. W. (2006). Tigers, stripes, and behavior change: Survey results of a commissioned coaching program. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 58(2), 65–81. doi:10.1037/1065-9293.58.2.65.
- White, R. P., & Shullman, S. L. (2012). Thirty years of global leadership training: A cross-cultural odyssey. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 64(4), 268–278. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0031654>.
- Wilson, W. (2013). Coaching with a global mindset. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, 11(2), 33–52.
- Wise, P.S., & Voss, L. S. (2001). *The case for executive coaching*. Research Report. Lore Research Institute.
- Worldwide Association of Business Coaches Website, *FAQ's*. Retrieved January 10, 2014, from <http://www.wabcoaches.com/faqs.htm>
- Yu, L. (2007). The benefits of a coaching culture. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 48(2), 6. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/224958946?accountid=27313>.
- Yukl, G. (2006). *Leadership in organizations*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Zenger, J., & Stinnett, K. (2012). Bringing science to the art of coaching. Zenger-Folkman Website. Retrieved January 19, 2014, from <http://zengerfolkman.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/05/ZFA-Science-Art-of-Coaching.pdf>

Chapter 8

Navigating Multicultural Teams: A Road Map to Feedback Across Cultures

Rana Moukarzel and Lisa A. Steelman

Brad¹ is an American consultant working for a company in Colombia. “Every time I ask for feedback from my manager, he avoids giving me any information or superficially tells me ‘Oh yeah, everything is fine.’ One day, as I was working on an account for a client from Argentina, the client outright and bluntly said, in front of my manager, that I was not doing something he had requested, and rightly so. Without the feedback from my manager I had little direction regarding what I should have been doing. In this situation, however, my manager actually covered for me. I’m pretty sure he was trying to preserve my reputation.” Culture plays a major role in the way people exchange information (Triandis, 1994). In this situation, cultural preferences impacted the way each of the participants communicated and how they viewed feedback. Brad expected his manager to provide constructive feedback on his performance at work. While Brad’s manager, influenced by a cultural need to maintain harmony in relationships, was uncomfortable communicating critical or negative feedback to Brad and even stepped in to save Brad’s face when his performance was openly criticized by a client. Feedback—a process rooted in communication—is therefore best understood within a cultural framework.

Organizational phenomena are experienced differently by people of different cultures (Gelfand, Nishii, & Raver, 2006). Leaders who are effective working across cultures understand when, how, and what type of feedback employees want and need. They provide appropriate feedback and correctly interpret the motivations of someone asking for feedback. For example, Lillian attended a meeting hosted by

¹Examples are real; however names have been changed to protect individual confidentiality.

R. Moukarzel, Ph.D. (✉)
Publix Super Markets, 3300 Airport Road, Lakeland, FL 33811, USA
e-mail: rana.moukarzel@gmail.com

L.A. Steelman, Ph.D.
School of Psychology, Florida Institute of Technology,
150 West University Boulevard, Melbourne, FL 32901, USA
e-mail: lsteelma@fit.edu

a North American company for its European customers; this particular company had performed poorly and business was bad. She recalls, “A very progressive company, they openly admitted fault and the President of Sales asked for input from the stakeholders on how they could improve the next year. He included the caveat that anybody could see him privately to discuss their input if they preferred. This was a well done effort to make everybody comfortable sharing their thoughts and feedback on what the problems are and how to improve.”

The challenge in effectively managing international organizations or multicultural teams is to recognize underlying cultural norms related to the communication of job performance information and to leverage those in ways that foster an environment conducive to effective and useful feedback that is mindful of individuals’ cultural preferences. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the role of cultural norms on the feedback process at both the individual and organizational levels. In this chapter, we develop and discuss a taxonomy of cultural characteristics most relevant for work-related feedback processes. We consider what the phenomena of feedback means to people with different cultural backgrounds as a way to help predict their reactions to feedback and their feedback-related behaviors. Through cross-level theory building we link our taxonomy to individual and organizational feedback processes and discuss the empirical evidence supporting these linkages. We also discuss evidence-based recommendations for leaders tasked with managing international organizations or global teams.

Exploring Cultural Differences: A Framework for Feedback Processes

Feedback is an indicator of how well employees are meeting their work-related goals and the expectations of superiors. Typical Western notions of feedback suggest that it is job performance information that is universally welcomed and that employees will actively seek it out if it is not readily provided (Ashford & Cummings, 1985). The feedback process is driven by the norms, beliefs, and assumptions of the feedback sender and the feedback recipient, and the work context within which it is embedded (Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979). These factors impact the recipient’s perception of feedback, whether feedback is viewed as an accurate reflection of performance and what, if anything, the recipient intends to do with the information. However, there is general agreement that typical Western notions might not be appropriate in other cultures (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007) and that feedback processes might differ in different cultural contexts (Sully De Luque & Sommer, 2000). The nature of the feedback process is based on various values and assumptions that might not be equally shared across cultures. In fact, the Conference Board notes there is some evidence that feedback and feedback processes are culturally based (Kramer, 2005). To successfully lead across cultures and/or manage international work teams, leaders need to understand what feedback means to people who have different cultural norms and values, as well as how it will be received and

internalized. This knowledge will enable global leaders to adapt the entire feedback process including deciding what type of feedback to provide, how to convey feedback information, and how to interpret requests for feedback. Adopting a cultural framework will permit leaders to manage how individuals will react to and interpret different types of feedback and ultimately, foresee whether or not they will internalize and mindfully process feedback.

Culture is conceptualized as a system of practices and public meanings agreed upon by the individuals, groups, or organizations of a nation that influences the psychological processes driving individual behavior (Berry, 1997). People tend to assume that differences across individuals from diverse backgrounds are simply due to being brought up in and exposed to a certain culture. However, the influence of culture on individuals and their behavior occurs through specific intervening processes and at many different levels (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). A number of theories explain why and how culture can impact individual behaviors across levels. For example, Triandis (1994) suggested that individuals' behaviors are derived from their perceptions of the strength of norms and constraints of culture and that people consciously and unconsciously align their behaviors with cultural expectations. Berry's (1997) ecocultural model suggests that the cultural context can impact individual behaviors through proximal processes such as individuals' cognitive processing and schemas. Based on this reasoning, the extent to which individuals have internalized the norms and expectations of their culture will impact their feedback-related behaviors.

In the sections that follow, we explore how the nature and strength of various cultural norms associated with the communication process shape individuals' view of feedback and organizational feedback practices. Specifically, we focus on how cultural norms impact key factors in the feedback process, including the source of information, the quality of the interaction, the focus of the message, the expected use of the message, and the clarity and directness of the message.

Several cultural value systems exist and have proliferated in the cross-cultural literature (Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007). We reviewed a comprehensive body of literature in the fields of cross-cultural management and psychology to identify specific cultural norms that can affect each of the key parts of the feedback process. From this review, three consolidated categories emerged: (1) *Relationships Among People* which refers to prescribed norms for effective interactions including attention to hierarchy and harmony; (2) *Strategy* which refers to prescribed norms for goal-directed behavior regarding how to manage achievement motives and uncertainty reduction; and (3) *Relation to the Broad Environment* which refers to prescribed norms for effective interaction with the environment and the extent to which communication is embedded within or distinct from the environment. Table 8.1 provides a summary of the norms included in each category and links them to other popularly cited terminology and literature. Together, these categories represent a taxonomy that was synthesized from the wide-ranging and diverse culture literature. The purpose of synthesizing the literature to create this taxonomy was to consolidate the different cultural frameworks into a parsimonious categorization usable for interpreting the results of the literature on feedback processes across cultures and

Table 8.1 Linking cultural value-based dimensions to previous cultural frameworks

Norm-based category	Description	Matched framework
Relationships among people	Encompasses prescribed norms for effective relationships among people within a specific culture. Norms relate to the degree to which hierarchy and authority, individuality, and need for harmony are valued.	Relationships among people (Maznevski, Gomez, DiStefano, Noorderhaven, & Wu, 2002)
		High vs. low status identity (Sully De Luque & Sommer, 2000)
		Power distance (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede et al., 1998; Schwartz, 1992)
		Individualism vs. collectivism (Hofstede, 1980; Sully De Luque & Sommer, 2000; Triandis, 1994; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998)
		Hierarchy vs. egalitarianism (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002)
		Individualism vs. communitarianism (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998)
		Face (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998)
		Confucian dynamism/long-term orientation (Hofstede, 1991)
		Humane orientation (House et al., 2002)
Strategy	Encompasses prescribed norms for the underlying motive of individuals' behaviors within a specific society. Norms relate to the degree to which achievement and uncertainty reduction are valued.	Masculinity vs. femininity and uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1980)
		Doing/thinking/being (Maznevski et al., 2002)
		Neutral vs. emotional (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998)
Relation to the broad environment	Encompasses prescribed norms for effective interaction with the broad environment within a specific culture. Norms relate to the degree to which interdependence or interrelatedness is valued.	Specific vs. holistic (Sully De Luque & Sommer, 2000)
		Internal vs. external (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998)

provide recommendations for leaders tasked with managing diverse groups or teams. Through this lens, we provide global leaders with information about how employees with different cultural backgrounds view feedback, why they view feedback in this way, and recommendations for how to manage the feedback process in different cultural contexts.

The Impact of Cultural Norms on Individual Feedback Processes

Individuals receive and acquire information regarding their performance via direct or indirect interactions with others. Whether they acquire or receive this information through effective or ineffective means is determined by the consensual norms and scripts agreed upon by the specific culture within which they work. Leaders operating in an international context may find that people interpret the same behavior differently, depending on the cultural norms to which they adhere. For example, what constitutes concern about disrespect for authority or superiors losing face (e.g., deference to authority and need for harmony) in one culture may be viewed as a lack of motivation (e.g., reticence for feedback) in another culture. Also, what may be perceived as interest in self-improvement in one culture (e.g., feedback seeking) may be perceived as a sign of incompetence in another culture. Thus, understanding how various cultural norms impact and mold the feedback process in a culture is critical to any leader attempting to manage international organizations or multicultural teams.

Relationships Among People

The Relationships Among People category encompasses culturally prescribed values and norms for effective social interactions and relationships. This category refers to the extent to which a culture perceives relationships to (a) be based on a hierarchical position of power and status, (b) give primacy to the goals and welfare of a collective vs. the individual, and (c) preserve harmony and avoid conflict between parties.

Hierarchy and Authority. Previous literature has explored the norm of hierarchy and authority under a variety of terms such as: power distance, hierarchy vs. egalitarianism, achievement ascription, and status identity (e.g., Hofstede, 1980, 1991; Hofstede et al., 1998; House et al., 2002; Schwartz, 1992; Triandis, 1994; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Hierarchy and authority differences between cultures are reflected in the norms surrounding the distribution of information among individuals.

In a culture where hierarchy and authority is highly regarded, information is distributed unequally among individuals; with those in higher power–status positions having more privileged access to information not afforded to the less powerful (Triandis, 1994). As a result, superiors are considered the best source for valued information. Because of the salience of inequality across levels of power and status, constraints surround information sharing (Sully De Luque & Sommer, 2000). Individuals believe that communicating and interacting with others across different levels of power and status is a nuisance (for the privileged) or a struggle (for the less powerful). In hierarchical cultures, job performance feedback is often provided top-down, from supervisor to subordinate, at the supervisor’s discretion. In this context

seeking feedback from a supervisor is highly effortful, detrimental to the supervisor–subordinate relationship, and fraught with self-presentational costs (Ashford, Blatt, & Van de Walle, 2003). Consequently, when job performance feedback is received from a superior, it may be given more deference than it deserves. Leaders need to be aware that in cultures with high status and authority norms, their feedback may be given great weight and off-the-cuff comments not meant to be feedback may be interpreted as feedback. Employees are likely to be hesitant about or refrain from requesting job performance feedback from superiors so they are not viewed as potentially compromising the restrictive nature of relationships. This may also drive subordinates to engage in other feedback-seeking strategies such as monitoring their superiors' behaviors or more lateral feedback seeking as an attempt to receive what may be lower quality, yet more accessible, feedback (Sully De Luque & Sommer, 2000). For example, Ji-hun, a senior engineer working in Korea, shared with us the intricacies of feedback seeking in a culture where hierarchy and authority is valued. "Managers are busy and it is always hard to talk to them; asking them for information is almost impossible outside of team or division meetings. Managers are seen as powerful and all knowledgeable. They are intimidating to the extent that employees barely dare to ask them for feedback, and if they do, it would be regarding the quality of their work and their performance. Employees will be more likely to ask their coworkers or others they are more comfortable interacting with, whether they are doing what is expected of them."

In contrast, a culture where egalitarianism is highly regarded fosters cooperation and the fair distribution and sharing of information (Sully De Luque & Sommer, 2000; Triandis, 1994). Communicating and sharing job performance information vertically and laterally across levels of the organization is viewed as both appropriate and easy and is not restricted. Individuals operating in such a culture perceive little emotional distance between themselves and valued sources of feedback and show less concern about engaging in behaviors that could be viewed as disrespectful to those at other hierarchical levels (Sully De Luque & Sommer, 2000). Thus, employees will perceive little effort or self-presentational cost associated with inquiring about their performance and should be willing to seek feedback if it is not readily available or shared with them. Moreover, employees don't feel constrained to defer to a specific source for valued information. Instead, they will accept feedback from people at all organizational levels, focusing on the credibility of the source for the particular information required. Consequently, the perceived value of the feedback is not tied to the hierarchical level of the feedback source. Sara, a management consultant working in Sweden, shared with us her view of expected communication in a culture where hierarchical structures are absent. "I am generally interested in different views other than mine and want to make sure that I am gauging the opinion of those involved in my work. Given that project information is openly shared with everyone on the team, it is very easy for me to approach my colleagues and my boss alike with questions regarding my performance and the next steps I should take."

Research has demonstrated that contexts in which relationships are bound by deference to authority and hierarchy attenuate individuals' likelihood to solicit information and advice from superiors. In a study examining newcomer's frequency

of feedback seeking, Morrison, Chen, and Salgado (2004) demonstrated that individuals operating in a low power distance culture (i.e., egalitarian) were more likely to actively inquire about their performance, while individuals operating in a high power distance culture were less likely to inquire about their performance and were hesitant to confront superiors with a request for input or advice. Furthermore, Rivera and Steelman (2008) reported that individuals with stronger power distance values were less likely to seek feedback from their supervisor than were individuals with weaker power distance values. They also reported that people with stronger power distance values were more likely to be concerned about protecting their public image, presumably to avoid the appearance of questioning those in positions of authority.

In Summary. Individuals operating in a society where relationships among people are based on the acceptance of power–status inequality and deference to authority will avoid directly requesting performance information from their superiors, although they view supervisors as a valued source of feedback because of their status and position. Instead, employees might rely on indirect means of gathering feedback, for example, monitoring their superiors’ behavior for hints. A leader shaped by a less hierarchical culture may view this reticence for feedback as lack of motivation when it is really driven by deference to power–status inequalities. More importantly, leaders should be aware that when individuals do receive feedback from a superior, it is likely to be valued and used regardless of its quality. Therefore, leaders should make sure that they provide feedback that has informational value and carefully construct the feedback communication to ensure the correct message is heard.

On the other hand, individuals shaped by a society where relationships among people are based on egalitarianism perceive little distance between themselves and others, view others as more approachable, and are more likely to actively solicit information and advice from supervisors and others within their work context. Take, for example, Ji-hun’s experience during a recent expatriate assignment to the United States. “Although my direct supervisor had an open door policy and was available to provide everyone on the team with feedback, I was still concerned that approaching him with questions regarding my tasks would imply that he did not do a good job explaining to me some aspects of the project. Rather, I would focus on tracking his reaction to my work when he was around.” During a team meeting, Ji-hun admitted to one of his coworkers that he would really like to ask his manager for feedback but that compared to his teammates he holds high cultural beliefs in being respectful to authority and not doubting their credibility and ability. The coworker took it upon herself to discuss the situation with the manager. Following that, the manager asked to privately meet with Ji-hun. “He explained to me that he values when employees ask him questions. He added that he did not feel threatened and that like any other person he sometimes makes mistakes and might forget to explain something clearly. This is why he encourages everyone on the team to approach him with any question they might have as well as tries to foster an environment where all team members are made aware of all challenges and issues affecting any piece of the project.” In other words, the manager was able to foster an environment where employees felt a sense of involvement in decisions and perceived less distance between themselves

and a superior. The supervisor's conversation was effective; 3 days later Ji-hun walked into his manager office with a question. "I was nervous at first and it still felt intimidating. By having a positive and friendly attitude, my manager was able to reinforce my behavior and I became more comfortable with asking for his opinion or expectations."

Individuality. In managing relationships with others, people not only take into account hierarchy and authority norms, but also their culture's view on the relation of the individual to the collective (Triandis, Chan, Bhawuk, Iwao, & Sinha, 1995). Previous literature has explored individuality under terms such as individualism–collectivism and individualism vs. communitarianism (e.g., Hofstede, 1991; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998).

In a culture where individuality is highly regarded, people hold an independent self-view and the norms for behavior focus on individual growth and development (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1994). Feedback that satisfies individual self-enhancement needs will be valued and sought out, whereas feedback that does not provide any personal or individual value will be disregarded. For example, Joseph who works in Norway described communication expectations in his country: "In most cases, people prefer receiving updates about their performance on a project. They tend to tune out any evaluation that is not relevant to them or their task. Unless our project manager specifically states that his comments are relevant to all involved parties in the project, people will only focus on what was directed to them as improvement areas." In these situations, leaders should frame team-related feedback in a way that all individuals feel involved and accountable.

In contrast, in a culture where communal relationships are highly regarded, interactions among individuals are typically focused on the group. Individuals shaped by these cultural norms prioritize and value the advancement, growth, and accomplishment of the collective to which they belong, a view characteristic of a collectivist social identity or interdependent self-view (Erez & Earley, 1993; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Pepitone & Triandis, 1988). Individuals tend to distinguish between members of their "in-group" (e.g., family, friends, and spouse) and "out-group" (e.g., acquaintances) and are more likely to identify with the goals and needs of their in-group. As a result, job performance information is expected to focus on and benefit the group, and information will be attended to or perceived as beneficial only if it relates directly to collective goal attainment. Feedback regarding one member of the collective may still be valued if it is clear that the ultimate beneficiary is the group and its success. Therefore, leaders should frame individual feedback as also beneficial for the attainment of collective goals and success. For example, Ji-hun the senior engineer working in Korea shared that "employees are unwilling to seek or receive information that would be considered as boasting their ego or to manage their impression. But, if this information can be used to help their co-workers and friends and keep good overall performance in the team then they might actually do that."

There is some empirical research demonstrating the role of feedback in independent vs. interdependent cultures. Morrison et al. (2004) reported that self-assertiveness, one characteristic of individualism, was related to newcomer feedback inquiry.

Earley, Gibson, and Chen (1999) reported that individuals operating in a culture that values personal development and advancement focused more on individual-based feedback whereas individuals operating in a culture that values collective development and advancement focused on both individual- and group-based performance feedback. Kung and Steelman (2003) found that workers shaped by communal norms had more interest in knowing feedback related to their group performance, whereas workers shaped by individualist norms had more interest in receiving feedback on their individual performance. Finally, individuals reporting an independent self-construal reported seeking more feedback at work than did individuals with an interdependent self-construal (Kung, 2008).

In Summary. In a society where social interactions are primarily seen as a gateway to achieving personal goals, individuals attach value and are open to information that satisfies such goals. As a result, individuals expect, seek out, and are more accepting of personally relevant individual-level performance information. In a society where relationships among people are primarily based on the precedence of the collective over the person, individuals attach value and are open to information that is relevant to the advancement and development of the collective. These people may feel uncomfortable actively requesting or receiving personally relevant feedback information, if it does not directly benefit the group. Joseph recalls the time when his Norwegian manager had to coordinate a team composed of two Norwegians, an Indian, and a Swede. Typically, the manager focused on giving individual feedback to his Norwegian employees. For example, he commented on Joseph's work stating "I really enjoyed reading your section of the report. Your work has been exemplary and reflects great improvement on your part." When sharing a similar feedback with the Indian team member, the Indian, shaped by more collective norms asked if this feedback meant that the whole team did a good job. Joseph noted "My Indian teammate was obviously uncomfortable hearing feedback directed to him only but instead wanted to divert the attention to the performance of the group." The manager reframed his feedback to the Indian team member stating that "Combined with the effort of all other members of the team, your work was a valuable addition to the overall report. It clearly illustrates overall improvement in team collaboration and capitalizing on each members' strengths."

Need for Harmony. Cultures differ in the extent to which they focus on preserving harmonious interpersonal relationships and avoid conflict as evidenced by norms surrounding face saving (Hodgins, Liebeskind, & Schwartz, 1996). Face is defined as the reputation and the credibility one has earned in a social network (Ho, 1976). Face saving has been regarded as one of the central elements of interpersonal relations and is one of most examined cultural norms in the feedback literature (Hwang, Francesco, & Kessler, 2003; Sully De Luque & Sommer, 2000). In a culture that stresses the need to maintain harmony, people are more likely to characterize their social interactions based on their ability to meet the needs of others and save face (others and their own) and will avoid interactions if they suspect the interaction will cause a loss of face for them or the other person. The feedback process in cultures with a strong need for harmony also prioritizes saving face and decreasing potential

face loss (Sully De Luque & Sommer, 2000). If any of the parties involved in the feedback process believe that they have been treated disrespectfully, the interaction as a whole could turn into a failure or be perceived as a personal attack, and the feedback itself will be disregarded. Brad, the American working in Colombia, shared this incident: "I once made the mistake of calling attention to my key Colombian contact's problem with managing or even completing paperwork. After up to 17 requests for some important and necessary documentation, I put all the outstanding issues in an email and sent it directly to her while copying her supervisor and the company owner. While not the best way to handle it in any situation, I took this very aggressive action, embarrassing her pretty badly. She refused to speak with me for almost 2 weeks and I almost cost her the job." The feedback recipient reacted to and interpreted the feedback as a personal attack, felt that she lost face, and ultimately became defensive. Interpersonal harmony was damaged and took a great deal of time to rebuild.

In contrast, in a culture less focused on maintaining harmony, norms surrounding face saving are less pronounced. In such a culture, individuals strive for distinctiveness and understand the need for evaluation and diagnosis to achieve success (Suls & Wills, 1991). Feedback information is not expected to have personal consequences for the parties beyond its job relevance. For example, Paula who works at a retail store in Germany described the following incident. "On our first day on the job, our supervisor rounded us up and made it clear that although some of us might not be comfortable with asking for help and advice, we should evaluate whether the help we are asking for is beneficial to resolving the problem or satisfying the customer. She urged us to focus on the overall benefit of asking questions for the business rather than worry about what others might say if we asked for help." In this case, serving the customer takes priority over interpersonal needs for harmony in the workplace.

Although there is extensive discussion of "face" in social interactions, little research exists regarding face saving or the maintenance of harmony in the feedback process. In one of the few studies conducted, MacDonald, Sulsky, and Brown (2013) demonstrated that for individuals shaped by a high need for harmony, direct inquiry of performance feedback was characterized by a greater perceived risk of face loss, as compared to individuals shaped by a low need for harmony. Individuals operating in a high need for harmony culture were less likely to see benefit in seeking feedback given the high concern for face loss associated with the behavior.

In Summary. Individuals shaped by a high need for harmony actively manage interactions with others in order to maintain everyone's reputation or face, regardless of their status or relationship. Similarly, they expect others to interact with them in ways that would preserve their personal image. It is important that all parties involved in the feedback process believe that they have been treated respectfully. Given that feedback information is often evaluative information, people operating in high need for harmony cultures are likely to avoid requesting feedback that could either (a) distinguish them from their peers and disrupt the status quo or (b) potentially portray them as incompetent. In contrast, individuals operating in a low need

for harmony culture perceive feedback as less threatening and there is less concern for face loss. In these cultures, feedback is regarded as job-relevant information and less likely to be viewed as representative of someone's value or worth. Individuals are therefore more likely to approach others, peers, and supervisors alike, with requests for feedback.

Strategy

Scholars agree that cultures embrace different norms regarding the primary driving force behind individual-level goal-directed behavior. The Strategy category comprises cultural norms relevant to the degree to which a culture promotes performance and achievement of success as opposed to avoidance and reduction of uncertainty. Achievement and competition are characterized as Masculine in Hofstede's values framework and are typically accompanied by acceptance of uncertainty and ambiguity (Hofstede, 1980). On the other hand, some cultures are less tolerant of ambiguity and strive for certainty in their work and interactions. These cultures are characterized as high on Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede et al., 1998).

In a culture where personal achievement is a primary motivator people are likely to view self-improvement as possible and will prioritize behaviors that satisfy their need for advancement, growth, and accomplishment. They will pursue challenge and excitement and accept change and innovation (Heine et al., 2001). Individuals shaped by this type of cultural norm tend to be accepting of a wider range of standards, embrace a positive attitude toward errors, are comfortable taking risks, and are more likely to value behaviors that would support or maximize their pursuit of change and innovation. In achievement oriented cultures, feedback is expected to revolve around enhancing performance and promoting development for future success. In this way, feedback is viewed as instrumental to goal achievement. For example, Monica, a linguist based in the Netherlands reflected that "People are typically looking to constantly improve or supplement their skills and abilities. It is very common to hear about the effort that organizations put to provide their employees with training and developmental opportunities. Employees also actively request information about their performance, considering that it would provide them with additional insights and areas for improvement they might not have noticed themselves."

In contrast, in a culture emphasizing avoidance of uncertainty, behaviors associated with reducing ambiguity become the norm and people value control, certainty, and regularity (Heine et al., 2001). Employees often view self-development initiatives as having little benefit, instead they are more likely to value behaviors that support or maximize positive judgments of their ability and minimize negative judgments (Heine et al., 2001). In this way people maintain a clear sense of self and avoid challenges where failure is a possibility. They often avoid negative feedback because it may increase uncertainty or negatively impact their standing in the work group. Therefore, favorable feedback will be valued over critical or unfavorable feedback because it is an indication of the stability of one's ability and performance attributes.

James a senior developer working in Singapore provides an example. “At the end of a debrief meeting, one of the engineers on the team approached me asking if I could reiterate my thoughts on her performance. She expressed that she had a positive feeling about her work but needed more assurance. This surprised me because I had earlier stated that I believed no additional improvement was needed for her part of the project.” The engineer, shaped by an uncertainty avoidance culture, viewed additional feedback as necessary for her need for self-verification and managing uncertainty. Repetitive positive feedback, although requested by the engineer, may be viewed by others as shallow and meaningless. To avoid this problem James could encourage his team members to set project goals and coach them to self-evaluate their performance relative to their goals. In other words, people can be critical of their own performance by objectively comparing it to the goals they set for themselves and James can provide meaningful positive feedback at appropriate times.

Empirical research provides support for these notions. Motivational drives based on a need for achievement and reducing uncertainty are pivotal catalysts for feedback and feedback seeking. In fact, research has demonstrated that cultural norms surrounding achievement-based motives guide the feedback process and influence the perception of feedback’s instrumentality in the development and growth of the individual. Alternatively, cultural norms surrounding uncertainty reduction-based motives lead to a concern for maintaining a stable and positive ego and preserving high self-control. Hamamura, Meijer, Heine, Kamaya, and Hori (2009) reported that individuals exposed to a culture that values self-improvement were more attentive and willing to accept approach-oriented information, given that their main concern was presumably to succeed. In contrast, those exposed to a culture that attached importance to avoidance strategies (for example, a drive toward reducing uncertainty) were more attentive to avoidance-oriented information to satisfy their concern for eluding an unpleasant experience. Additionally, MacDonald et al. (2013) reported that individuals shaped by a concern for self-regulation and a desire to achieve performance goals (i.e., high need for achievement) had a greater desire for evaluative performance feedback compared to individuals shaped more by entity-type beliefs. People operating in a high need for achievement culture were more likely to see value in seeking and attending to feedback given the benefit for attaining individually based goals and regulating behavior.

In Summary. In a culture attaching high importance to successfully attaining personal goals and growth, people will seek out and be more accepting of performance information. In a society where self-control and regularity are valued, individuals are motivated to engage in behaviors that provide support to or maximize existing ability and reduce uncertainty. Leaders of multicultural teams should recognize that people shaped by achievement and personal development needs will seek out and value constructive feedback. However, personal growth and improvement are seen as unlikely by people shaped by a lower tolerance for ambiguity. As a result, they will not value or request constructive feedback, but rather value favorable feedback for its role in reinforcing self-conceptions and providing a positive indication of whether or not their performance is meeting expectations.

Relation to Broad Environment

The last category distinguishes cultures based on the degree to which interrelatedness with or independence from the broad environment impacts interpretation of context and communication. Cultures that value interdependence and interrelatedness view the individual and environment as blended together rather than as separate entities (Sully De Luque & Sommer, 2000). Additionally, the environment is regarded as controlling individuals who must work with it in order to achieve goals (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). On the other hand, cultures that value independence and isolation view the individual and environment as separate entities that do not overlap (Sully De Luque & Sommer, 2000). Moreover, such cultures believe that people can control their environment to achieve goals (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998).

At the heart of this category is the focus on norms surrounding the manner in which individuals cognitively and contextually process information, as well as how they conceptualize their relationship with the environment around them. Such normative differences highlight culturally distinct perceptions of effective interaction with the broad environment expressed in specific cultural patterns of communication and information processing.

In a culture where context is viewed as a blended feature of the individual and environment (i.e., interdependent culture), communication is expected to occur indirectly, implicitly, and be embedded within a host of nonverbal and contextual features (Hall, 1976). Indirect communication is the agreed upon norm. Individuals operating in such a system have acquired enhanced skills to cognitively process implicit information and make use of tacit knowledge that enables effective interaction and interpretation of the message being communicated. For example, Brandon a UK-based journalist describes his yearlong internship experience in Ethiopia. “It took me a while to understand the hints and cues that my colleagues would try to communicate to me, regarding the way I tried to interview residents. I knew that during the first week or two I was doing a terrible job and that I might have offended a couple of people while attempting to film them. Rather than telling me that was the case, my producer and colleagues kept saying I was doing a ‘good enough’ job for someone who’s not from here. They sounded sincere and would smile at me while saying that. It wasn’t until I almost got kicked out of someone’s store that one of the cameramen on set with me that day felt bad and explained that it’s common for people to “sugar coat” their opinions so as to not hurt others. He added that I should’ve figured it out, however, since they kept smiling and giving each other looks, as they gave me feedback.” People operating in these types of contexts are comfortable interpreting feedback messages that extend beyond the spoken or written words. They understand that to glean the full meaning of the feedback message they must “read into it” and interpret the meaning behind the various contextual and nonverbal cues that accompany the message.

On the other hand, in a culture where context is viewed as separate from the individual (i.e., independent culture), communication is expected to occur directly,

explicitly, and be instrumental (Hall, 1976). In other words, information is carried through words rather than implicit messages and nonverbals, and communication is based on the expectation of directness. The message is transmitted in a straightforward manner without being purposely embellished with contextual cues. People operating in such a system will expect feedback to be straightforward, requiring little to no effort to process and interpret. Brandon contrasts his experience in Ethiopia with his experience working in the UK. "I couldn't but notice the difference between the ways people communicated their opinion back at the office. I observed one of our new interns giving a presentation about her work. Everyone in the room provided blunt and very direct feedback. The areas that needed improvement were clearly highlighted to her. It was all straightforward and to the point." However, this kind of direct feedback communication could negatively impact the recipient's ego or self-esteem. Therefore, people operating within this type of context prefer feedback to be direct and constructive but not personally damaging or destructive.

There has been little research examining the cultural norms associated with Relationship to Broad Environment and feedback processes. In one of the few studies, Kung and Steelman (2003) demonstrated that both high context communication patterns (i.e., interdependent cultures) and low context communication patterns (i.e., independent cultures) are costly in terms of the effort required to obtain and interpret the information. However, these costs were perceived as stronger in the interdependent culture as compared to independent culture. Rivera and Steelman (2008) reported that those shaped by high context communication had greater instrumental motives for feedback. Such results support our contention that those who are used to communicating within high contexts are also used to deriving a great deal of information from the feedback communication, beyond the words stated.

In Summary. In cultures focusing on high context communication patterns, individuals expect indirect feedback and are better at interpreting implicit and indirect message than those operating in cultures with a more direct communication pattern. Leaders providing straightforward feedback to employees comfortable with high context communication might find those employees overinterpreting the message or trying to find a hidden meaning that does not exist. In addition, high context communicators may be surprised and distracted by the blunt nature of low context communication. On the other hand, individuals shaped by a low context culture might find themselves unable to interpret, or even misinterpret, the cues provided to them by a high context leader.

The Impact of Cultural Tightness and Looseness

Modern societies vary considerably in the strength with which they hold the cultural norms covered in our taxonomy and the tolerance they have for individuals deviating from such norms (Gelfand et al., 2006; Triandis, 1994). Variability in the

tightness and looseness of norms exists within all cultures and is dependent on the extent to which a culture can be described as homogenous vs. heterogeneous. To the extent that everyone within a culture shares and has strongly internalized the culture's norms, a culture can be described as strong or tight. A weak or loose culture is one within which high variability in cultural beliefs and norms exists (Gelfand et al., 2006).

Tight societies are characterized by strong norms and monitoring, low range variation of behaviors among individuals, and high shared cognitions. In cultures with tight values, formal sanctioning and socialization systems are incorporated into the societal structure to reduce ambiguity and deviant behavior. Order, efficiency, and conformity are expected and deviation from the norms is met with resistance and often punitive action which brings the behavior back in line and maintains order. For example, a culture that holds strong beliefs in the value of hierarchy and authority will foster individual normative behaviors related to a strong deference to authority and react negatively when people do not properly adhere to the hierarchy. The tighter a culture the harder it is for a leader holding different norms to challenge or change behaviors. Ji-hun, the senior engineer working in Korea, lamented about a recent multicultural team experience he had. "As part of my development plan, I was expected to participate in a training program in Europe. The training consisted of working as part of a leaderless team. Many times I found myself deferring to higher-status teammates for advice, direction, and answers. Other teammates started questioning my standing which felt like a personal affront to my stature and humiliated me." In this instance, Ji-hun who was used to working in a tight hierarchical culture found himself frustrated when working in a looser culture. His teammates misinterpreted his behavior which led to conflict and miscommunication.

In contrast, loose societies are characterized by weak social norms and monitoring, wide range variation of permissible behaviors, and high tolerance of deviant behavior (Gelfand et al., 2006). Individuals in loose societies tend to be comfortable challenging rules and procedures and are viewed as more open to change. Moreover, socialization systems in loose societies tend to be less structured and more fluid. Individuals shaped by a loose culture have more varied and idiosyncratic experiences, and thus individual attributes and behaviors are more likely to diverge from expected norms. People operating within a loose culture may hold different norms and beliefs of what makes an effective feedback process. This implies that people shaped by a loose culture may be more accepting of different types of feedback communication and more likely to change when needed.

In summary, the extent to which people are shaped by a tight or loose culture will impact the strength or degree to which they hold all the cultural norms discussed in this chapter. Leaders need to be aware that divergent behavior in a tight culture is viewed as less acceptable than divergent behavior in a loose culture. This will impact feedback processes in that people used to a looser culture should be more accepting of different styles of feedback while people used to a tighter culture may not be as adaptable to different cultural styles.

The Impact of Cultural Dimensions on Organizational Feedback Processes

On-going feedback and targeted performance appraisal feedback occurs within a social context (Pulakos & O'Leary, 2011). Western literature has referred to the climate or context associated with feedback as the feedback environment. The feedback environment refers to the context in which informal feedback is given and received on a day-to-day basis. It is comprised of seven facets: source credibility (source's expertise and trustworthiness), feedback quality (informational value of the feedback message), feedback delivery (extent to which feedback delivery is tactful and considerate), favorable feedback (the provision of praise or success feedback), unfavorable feedback (the provision of diagnostic critical feedback), source availability (extent to which feedback sources are accessible), and promotes feedback seeking (level of support for feedback seeking) (Steelman, Levy, & Snell, 2004). The extent to which a supervisor facilitates the environment through these different facets defines the favorability of the feedback environment derived by that supervisor. A strong, positive feedback environment is one where employees consistently receive feedback and are encouraged to solicit and use feedback to improve job performance. In a favorable feedback environment performance, feedback received by employees is constructive (i.e., both positive and negative), specific, accurate, and readily available. On the other hand, an unfavorable feedback environment is associated with a perception of feedback as less useful, provided thoughtlessly, with low levels of consideration and empathy, and little support for the use of feedback as a basis for personal development and growth or performance improvements.

Preferences for feedback are impacted by cultural norms and there is some evidence that leaders will promote a feedback environment that is consistent with their own personal needs for feedback (Levy & Thompson, 2010). This means that leaders shaped by the cultural norms discussed in this chapter will provide feedback in accordance with their values and norms. For instance, leaders influenced by an interdependent relation to the broad environment may rely on the features of the context to provide more subtle and less obvious feedback than leaders shaped by an independent relation to the broad environment. Leaders affected by norms supporting power–status differentials may be more comfortable giving feedback to subordinates but less comfortable giving feedback to superiors. Leaders shaped by a concern for maintaining harmony within relationships may be less comfortable discussing their success with peers or giving their team negative feedback that would reflect badly on them personally or reflect badly on the team. The extent to which leaders foster a consistent feedback environment based on their cultural norms is determined by the tightness of the culture in which they were shaped. That is, the tighter a culture the harder it is for a leader given their internalized cultural norms (e.g., formalization and structure) to foster and facilitate a feedback environment that encompasses different norms (e.g., informality and loose structure). In a looser culture, leaders' expectations and tendency to foster a specific feedback environment will be a factor of personal idiosyncrasies and more likely to be flexible

given different experiences. Consequently, leaders should be aware not only of their team members' cultural flexibility but also of their own cultural flexibility which can have an impact on the success of the feedback environment they facilitate in a multicultural team context.

Although cultural norms impact how people view and value feedback, there is some evidence that perceptions of the feedback environment are equivalent across cultures. The feedback environment has been examined in Belgium (Anseel & Lievens, 2007), Taiwan (Peng, Tseng, & Lee, 2011), and Puerto Rico (Rivera & Steelman, 2008), in addition to the United States. A favorable feedback environment is associated with several important individual and organizational outcomes including: role clarity and job performance (Whitaker, Dahling, & Levy, 2007), job satisfaction (Anseel & Lievens, 2007), organizational citizenship behaviors (Norris-Watts & Levy, 2004), a reduction in perceptions of workplace politics and greater employee morale (Rosen, Levy, & Hall, 2006), and increased feedback-seeking behaviors and intent to improve (Steelman et al., 2004). Based on the evidence published thus far, we encourage leaders—regardless of their culturally established norms for feedback communication—to promote a favorable feedback environment both in general and when leading multicultural teams. Having this type of environment associated with feedback should allow leaders enough flexibility to deal with individual and cultural differences in the need for and value of feedback. Certainly, we encourage research examining the interaction between the feedback environment dimensions and cultural norms discussed in this chapter and its impact on individual and organizational outcomes. Until research identifies cultural boundaries to the effectiveness of a favorable feedback environment, we offer the recommendations in Table 8.2 for establishing a favorable feedback environment.

Unfolding the Implications of Culture on Feedback Processes: A Practical Guide for Leaders

Managing performance and providing feedback to team members can be a challenge even when everyone shares similar cultural values and norms. This challenge multiplies in a global context; leaders of multicultural teams are faced with the pressure of understanding the preferences and motivations of the culturally diverse individuals that make up their team. Our goal in this chapter was to discuss how different cultural norms may impact how employees view feedback and make use of the feedback process. As we have discussed, cultural norms can impact employees' motives for seeking feedback, what types of feedback are valued, who talks to whom about job performance feedback, and the extent to which feedback is interpreted correctly and used to improve performance. By identifying three categories of cultural norms based on communication processes, we highlight the wide variety of assumptions, motives, and behaviors surrounding the feedback process across cultures. Individual feedback preferences and tendencies are the product of the

Table 8.2 Guidelines for establishing a favorable feedback environment

Feedback environment dimension	Recommendations
Source credibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be knowledgeable about the job and the feedback recipient's actual job performance • Provide feedback for the right reasons, establish trust • Identify subordinate performance level; provide appropriate feedback and consequences for high performers and low performers
Feedback quality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feedback should occur close in time to the behavior • Feedback should be specific and detailed • Avoid platitudes and generalizations • Focus on the task
Feedback delivery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be constructive • Be considerate • Provide feedback with empathy, putting yourself in the recipient's shoes
Favorable and unfavorable feedback	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Balance positive and negative feedback over time • Avoid the "feedback sandwich" (negative feedback that is embedded between positive feedback statements) • Give negative feedback when it is warranted • Don't forget to give positive feedback when it is warranted
Source availability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be accessible • Check in frequently • Use multiple modes of communication
Promotes feedback seeking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourage feedback seeking • Seek feedback yourself

cultural system within which a person is embedded. People are socialized to adhere to the local cultural norms; they will integrate similar values and beliefs and behave accordingly (Gelfand et al., 2011). We now turn to specific recommendations for leaders of global teams derived from our previous discussion.

First, global leaders need to be aware of their own preferences for feedback and consider how their cultural norms play a role. Leaders managing international organizations or multicultural teams not only base their feedback provision approaches on personal preference or the feedback environment inherent within the organization, but also rely on the cultural system to which they adhere. It is important for global leaders to acknowledge that their affinity for certain feedback delivery methods might not be well received by employees who do not share the same cultural approach to feedback. In fact, the tighter the cultural system in which individuals are embedded the more consistent and engrained are their preferences, attributes, and behaviors and the more resistant they will be to different approaches. Thus, the success of a global leader in shaping, developing, and managing a diverse/multicultural group of employees is highly dependent on the extent to which the feedback

strategies used match or are adapted to the group of individuals being managed. This is evident when we compare Brad's experience with his manager to Lillian's report on the President of Sales at her company. Brad's manager had clearly internalized high need for harmony values and norms, related to interpersonal interactions. Due to his lack of attention to cultural norms, Brad lost face in front of a client. On the other hand, the President of Sales showed higher flexibility in his approach to fostering a feedback environment that provided all employees with an opportunity to share their thoughts. In other words, he was able to create a psychologically safe environment where employees concerned with face loss could share their feedback privately while those with less concern had the choice of sharing it publicly without any potential interpersonal conflict arising.

Managing relationships among people underlies a number of cultural norms. It is critical to observe the hierarchy of power and status in some cultures. In cultures where hierarchy of authority is important, employees expect feedback from their supervisors. We encourage leaders to provide downward feedback that is direct and constructive. Leaders should be aware that out of deference to authority, their subordinates in hierarchy-minded cultures may not seek out feedback. This should not be interpreted as a lack of motivation or engagement without other confirming evidence. Instead, provide feedback as needed and encourage feedback seeking, but don't expect it. Team members may not be comfortable giving upward feedback. Furthermore, team members might ask for and give feedback to their peers but this lateral feedback may not necessarily be constructive because of the competition that can emerge in hierarchical work environments. This may limit the utility of multi-rater feedback programs. As a leader, when you ask for upward feedback from employees be aware that you may or may not hear the full truth and team members may be very hesitant to discuss negative feedback with you. Always be on the lookout for more covert messages, particularly when those messages do not align with the communicated feedback.

When leading individuals with more egalitarian norms, open communication usually occurs upward, downward, and laterally. Expect employees to be direct with you and share their thoughts and feedback with you. They may not wait for you to give them feedback; they may proactively seek it out. This need not be viewed as circumventing the appropriate chain of command, but rather comfort communicating with different hierarchical levels. Finally, peer feedback can be utilized effectively with egalitarian-minded employees. We recommend that leaders foster a constructive and transparent communication climate to enhance these upward and lateral feedback processes.

In a culture where individuality is highly regarded, people hold an independent self-view and the norms for behavior focus on individual growth and development. These people will seek out and accept constructive feedback for self-enhancement and self-development. In general, they want feedback about their individual accomplishments and developmental opportunities. We recommend that leaders attend to employees' needs, act as a coach and mentor, keep the lines of communication open, and acknowledge individual contribution.

In contrast, in a culture where interdependence is prioritized and valued, employees tend to prefer feedback that enhances the group rather than any one individual. They want to hear how the group as a whole has performed and what the group as a whole can do better next time. If a leader needs to give individualized feedback, it is helpful to clarify how the proposed change in behavior will benefit the team, drawing on their sense of interdependent self. Balancing the provision of individual and team performance feedback will help increase team effectiveness as it highlights the importance of collaboration which capitalizes each member's strengths. Peer feedback programs may be difficult to implement with groups that primarily hold interdependent values because they may be reticent to give negative feedback to each other and draw attention to individuals above the group. Instead, leaders can encourage members to discuss team wide expectations of performance, similar to a team chartering process, and set up regular check-in meetings during which members revisit current team performance in relation to set expectations.

Need for harmony values also drive relationships among people and impact approaches to feedback. Team members with harmony values often manage feedback processes to maintain others' reputation or face. Negative feedback is avoided because it is viewed as harmful to the harmony. They may view feedback requests as a condemnation of the leader so they may not ask for as much feedback as those with lower need for harmony. We recommend leaders provide critical or constructive feedback in private and always demonstrate empathy, be tactful, and balance positive with negative feedback, because positive feedback is typically valued.

Team members with achievement-oriented goals seek and value feedback that will enhance their success. These team members are looking for constructive feedback that has instrumental value to their job performance and career development. Positive feedback is often not valued as much because it does not convey any new information. Alternatively, team members with uncertainty avoidance norms value feedback to reduce ambiguity. Critical feedback alone may increase ambiguity. Negative feedback should be accompanied by clear information and suggested developmental action steps on how to improve performance or correct problems.

Team members also differ on the extent to which they view their relationship to the environment as interrelated or independent. Those with interrelated norms view themselves as inseparable from the environment and they incorporate the environment into their communication patterns. Team members comfortable with this type of high context communication may not give direct feedback, the meaning in their feedback will need to be derived, and they may search for the concealed meaning in a leader's feedback communication. These team members will be good at interpreting hidden meaning when it is there, but they may also over interpret the meaning of feedback meaning even when concealed content is not present. Team members who view themselves as independent from the environment expect communication to be direct, called low context communication. These team members value direct communication and may be perceived as blunt by those comfortable with high context norms. Team members with low context communication norms may not be able to read between the lines and correctly interpret more subtle messages.

Conclusion

Maintaining relationships (hierarchy of authority, independence/interdependence, and need for harmony), personal strategy (achievement orientation, uncertainty avoidance), relationship to the broad environment, and cultural tightness and looseness all impact communication patterns and therefore feedback processes within global teams. These cultural norms and their implications were discussed, and the existing empirical evidence in each area was presented. A summary of recommendations for leaders can be found in Table 8.3. It is clear that there is limited empirical evidence in all areas. Future research should continue to address the impact of cultural norms on feedback processes. To what extent do cultural norms impact feedback-related motives and feedback seeking? Does positive and negative feedback seeking differ for people with different cultural norms? Do cultural norms impact the nature of the feedback environment?

Table 8.3 Managing performance feedback of culturally diverse individuals

Feedback environment dimension	Cultural challenges	Leader recommendations
<i>Source credibility</i> —demonstrate expertise and trustworthiness	<p><i>Relationships among people</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Concern with making leader look incompetent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Set expectations and objectives for performance feedback with the team early in the process Clearly express and illustrate that you do not feel threatened by employees' inquiries
<i>Source availability</i> —remain accessible	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perceive distance between employee and leader; view leader as unapproachable 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Demonstrate reliability and consistency by keeping your word Foster employees' sense of involvement in performance management decisions
<i>Feedback quality</i> —provide feedback that has informational value	<p><i>Relationships among people</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Individual considers group-based performance information as irrelevant to their own advancement and development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Match feedback to both team and individual goals Highlight how team success is relevant to the employee's personal success
<i>Feedback delivery</i> —provide feedback with tact and consideration	<p><i>Strategy</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Avoid feedback that is indicative of a need for improvement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encourage people to take responsibility for their work and set personal goals Coach people to reflect on personal performance compared to set goals

(continued)

Table 8.3 (continued)

Feedback environment dimension	Cultural challenges	Leader recommendations
<i>Favorable and unfavorable feedback</i> —balance positive and negative feedback messages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fear of negative evaluation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Schedule regular feedback meetings at critical points in the process so individuals and team can assess progress compared to benchmarks
	<i>Relation to broad environment</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perception of feedback as too blunt or direct • Inability to interpret high context nuances in a feedback message 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide both individual feedback and team-level feedback • Adopt team wide norms of communication that satisfies the effective and efficient delivery of feedback across team members • Set expectations for developmental and behavior-oriented feedback
<i>Promotes feedback seeking</i> —provide support for active requests for feedback	<i>Relationships among people</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitor and indirectly inquire about performance, rather than direct requests for feedback 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adapt expectations for information seeking to the cultural norms of the team members • Foster an environment where employees do not feel threatened to actively seek feedback but understand that not everyone will ask for feedback
	<i>Relation to broad environment</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only attend to or actively inquire for feedback when the environment is conducive and supportive of personal improvement and goal attainment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create a psychologically safe climate—people can share feedback without any potential interpersonal conflict arising.

If your company does business internationally, you're probably leading teams with members from diverse cultural backgrounds. Those differences can present obstacles to the successful management of multicultural teams. By understanding the cultural nuances associated with communication, global leaders will be able to facilitate a favorable feedback environment in a way that is mindful of individuals' cultural preferences.

References

- Anseel, F., & Lievens, F. (2007). The long-term impact on the feedback environment on job satisfaction: A field study in a Belgian context. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 56(2), 254–266.
- Ashford, S. J., Blatt, R., & Van de Walle, D. V. (2003). Reflections on the looking glass: A review of research on feedback-seeking behavior in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 29(6), 773–799.

- Ashford, S. J., & Cummings, L. L. (1985). Proactive feedback seeking: The instrumental use of the information environment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *58*(1), 67–79.
- Berry, J. W. (1997). Immigration, acculturation and adaptation. *Applied Psychology*, *46*, 5–68.
- Earley, C. P., Gibson, C. B., & Chen, C. C. (1999). “How did I do?” versus “How did we do?” Cultural contrasts of performance feedback use and self-efficacy. *Journal Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *30*(5), 594–619.
- Erez, M., & Earley, P. C. (1993). *Culture, Self-identity, and Work*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Gelfand, M. J., Erez, M., & Aycan, Z. (2007). Cross-cultural organizational behavior. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *58*, 479–514.
- Gelfand, M. J., Nishii, L. H., & Raver, J. L. (2006). On the nature and importance of cultural tightness-looseness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*, 1225–1244.
- Gelfand, M. J., Raver, J. L., Nishii, L., Leslie, L. M., Lun, J., Lim, B. C. C., et al. (2011). Differences between tight and loose cultures: A 33-nation study. *Science*, *332*, 1100–1104.
- Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond culture*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday.
- Hamamura, T., Meijer, Z., Heine, S. J., Kamaya, K., & Hori, I. (2009). Approach-Avoidance motivation and information processing: A cross-cultural analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *35*(4), 454–462. doi:[10.1177/0146167208329512](https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167208329512).
- Heine, S. J., Kitayama, S., Lehman, D. R., Takata, T., Ide, E., Leung, C., et al. (2001). Divergent consequences of success and failure in Japan and North America: An investigation of self-improving motivations and malleable selves. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *80*, 599–615.
- Ho, D. Y. F. (1976). On the concept of face. *American Journal of Sociology*, *81*(4), 867–884.
- Hodgins, H. S., Liebeskind, E., & Schwartz, W. (1996). Getting out of hot water: Facework in social predicaments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *71*, 300–314.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. Berkshire, England: McGraw-Hill.
- Hofstede, G., Arrindell, W. A., Best, D. L., de Mooij, M., Hoppe, M. H., van de Vliert, E., et al. (1998). *Masculinity and femininity: The taboo dimension of national cultures*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- House, R., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., & Dorfman, P. (2002). Understanding cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: An introduction to project GLOBE. *Journal of World Business*, *37*(1), 3–10.
- Hwang, A., Francesco, A. M., & Kessler, E. (2003). The relationship between individualism-collectivism, face, and feedback and learning processes in Hong Kong, Singapore, and the United States. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *34*, 72–91.
- Ilgen, D. R., Fisher, C. D., & Taylor, M. S. (1979). Consequences of individual feedback on behavior in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *64*, 349–371.
- Klein, K., & Kozlowski, S. (2000). *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Kramer, R. (2005). *Developing global leaders: Enhancing competencies and accelerating the expatriate experience*. New York: The Conference Board.
- Kung, M. (2008). How and why do people seek success and failure feedback? A closer look at motives, methods and cultural differences. Unpublished doctoral dissertation.
- Kung, M., & Steelman, L. A. (2003). *A cross-cultural study in feedback-seeking*. Paper presented at the Eighteenth Annual Meeting of the Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology, Orlando, FL.
- Levy, P. D., & Thompson, D. J. (2010). Feedback in organizations: Individual differences and the social context. In R. M. Sutton, M. M. Hornsey, & K. M. Douglas (Eds.), *Feedback: The communication of praise, criticism, and advice*. New York: Peter Lang.
- MacDonald, H. A., Sulsky, L. M., & Brown, D. J. (2013). Leadership and perceiver cognition: Examining the role of self-identity in implicit leadership theories. *Human Performance*, *21*(4), 333–353.
- Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, *98*(2), 224.

- Maznevski, M. L., Gomez, C. B., DiStefano, J. J., Noorderhaven, N. G., & Wu, P. C. (2002). Cultural dimensions at the individual level of analysis the cultural orientations framework. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 2(3), 275–295.
- Morrison, E. W., Chen, Y. R., & Salgado, S. R. (2004). Cultural differences in newcomer feedback seeking: A comparison of the United States and Hong Kong. *Applied Psychology*, 53(1), 1–22.
- Norris-Watts, C., & Levy, P. E. (2004). The mediating role of affective commitment in the relation of the feedback environment to work outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65(3), 351–365.
- Peng, J., Tseng, M., & Lee, Y. (2011). Relationships among supervisor feedback environment, work-related stressors, and employee deviance. *Journal of Nursing Research*, 19, 13–24.
- Pepitone, A., & Triandis, H. C. (1988). On the universality of social psychological theories. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 18, 471–498.
- Pulakos, E. D., & O’Leary, R. S. (2011). Why is performance management broken? *Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice*, 4, 146–164.
- Rivera, I., & Steelman, L. A. (2008, April). *Cultural differences in feedback seeking behavior*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, San Francisco
- Rosen, C. C., Levy, P. E., & Hall, R. J. (2006). Placing perceptions of politics in the context of the feedback environment, employee attitudes, and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 211–220.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 25, pp. 1–65). San Diego, CA: Academic.
- Steelman, L. A., Levy, P. E., & Snell, A. F. (2004). The feedback environment scale: Construct definition, measurement and validation. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 64, 165–184.
- Sully De Luque, M. F., & Sommer, S. M. (2000). The impact of culture on feedback-seeking behavior: An integrated model and propositions. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(4), 829–849.
- Suls, J., & Wills, T. A. (1991). *Social comparison: Contemporary theory and research*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Triandis, H. C. (1994). *Culture and social behavior*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Triandis, H. C., Chan, D. K. S., Bhawuk, D. P. S., Iwao, S., & Sinha, J. B. P. (1995). Multimethod probes of allocentrism and idiocentrism. *International Journal of Psychology*, 30(4), 461–480.
- Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (1998). *Riding the waves of culture*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Tsui, A. S., Nifadkar, S. S., & Ou, A. Y. (2007). Cross-national, cross-cultural organizational behavior research: Advances, gaps, and recommendations. *Journal of Management*, 33(3), 426–478.
- Whitaker, B. G., Dahling, J. J., & Levy, P. (2007). The development of a feedback environment and role clarity model of job performance. *Journal of Management*, 33(4), 570–591.

Part III
Leading Global Teams

Chapter 9

Alternate Views of Global Leadership: Applying Global Leadership Perspectives to Leading Global Teams

Benjamin Biermeier-Hanson, Mengqiao Liu, and Marcus W. Dickson

While it is likely not a surprise to many readers of this chapter, the last two decades have seen a steady increase in recognizing the importance of taking a global perspective in examining organizational behavior. The idea of adopting a global mind-set, particularly in the area of leadership, has taken a firm hold in our cultural zeitgeist. A recent search using the term “global leadership” on the media giant Amazon.com came up over 12,200 results. Similarly, an identical search on PsycInfo came up with over 1,600 results. Given the variety of terms that have been applied to this field of study, it is likely that these results do not begin to encompass all the existing literature. Business schools, executive training programs, and best-selling books all recognize the importance of globalization, and focus on developing and teaching a global mind-set, which is viewed as critical for success in our increasingly “flat” world (e.g., Freidman, 1999, 2005; Javidan, Steers, & Hitt, 2007; Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, & Maznevski, 2008; Thunderbird, 2008).

This global mind-set has been defined as the ability to utilize and interpret criteria and performance across a wide array of cross-cultural contexts (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002). The clear theme that emerges from these diverse perspectives is that the importance of the global mind-set is here to stay, both for scientists and practitioners of Organizational Behavior or Industrial–Organizational psychology. In other words, it is clear that the industrialized world is not becoming more isolationist. Rather, advances in technology and increased competition in the global market continue to drive the need for an increased understanding of organizational behavior in a global context.

One of the major biases inherent in much of the organizational behavior literature is the Western-centric focus of the theoretical frameworks that we use to describe and prescribe behavior for both leaders and teams. While the study of leadership,

B. Biermeier-Hanson (✉) • M. Liu • M.W. Dickson, Ph.D.
College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Wayne State University,
5057 Woodward Avenue, Detroit, MI 48202, USA
e-mail: b.biermeier@wayne.edu; mengqiao.liu@wayne.edu; marcus.dickson@wayne.edu

in particular, has been of interest to scholars and philosophers around the world for centuries (see Krause, 1997; Takala, 1998 for examples of historical work on leadership that has been applied to modern organizational contexts), the scholarly framework that incorporates both science and practice is rooted in studies conducted primarily in the Western hemisphere, raising the question of whether scholars and practitioners can equally apply this knowledge to other parts of the world. Fortunately, recent research efforts have begun to build a large body of knowledge that informs both how we study and apply our theories globally. While leadership has long been a focus of study in the cross-cultural domain, there is also an increasing proliferation of literature around global teams.

The focus of the present chapter is thus on discussing and integrating these two interrelated topics. We recognize that there are many approaches that we could have taken, given the breadth and depth that exists in the global leadership and global team literatures. Indeed, other chapters within this book focus on more specific approaches to these topics (e.g., examining the Project GLOBE scales or evaluating leadership competencies in a global context). We opt to take a somewhat different perspective. Our approach utilizes a variety of perspectives on global leadership to frame our discussion of global teams. The chapter thus provides a brief overview of global leadership research. This is followed by a review of some of the dominant models of global leadership that are specifically relevant for leading global teams, and we provide evidence-based suggestions for practitioners. Our goals in this chapter are thus twofold: First, we aim to summarize some key findings from the literature on these topics. Second, in order to better assist scholars, coaches, and current and aspiring global leaders, we provide a series of implications and best practices designed to bridge the “knowing-doing” gap (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000).

Leadership in a Global Context

It is almost impossible today to find a textbook on leadership that does not include at least one chapter devoted to cross-cultural or global issues (e.g., Day & Antonakis, 2012; Locke, 1999; Yukl, 2012). Similarly, many books on cross-cultural research in organizations have a section devoted to leadership. Other books even make cross-cultural leadership research one of their primary foci (e.g., House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). While there is clearly an immense amount of research and discussion on cross-cultural leadership, the definitions and approaches taken to examining this broad phenomenon vary widely.

We have chosen to view the literature in this area as taking two broad approaches to examining leadership in a global context. Regardless of the approach taken, the driving force behind this research is to expand our understanding of leadership beyond our primarily North American perspective. As such, effort has gone into both reducing North American bias in leadership research (Peterson & Hunt, 1997) and into developing a better understanding of the best practices for leaders in global settings.

The first framework, examining global leadership, is a relatively new concept that stems from some existing leadership theories and takes a broad global view of leadership. It posits the existence of a “global leader” and focuses on what makes such a leader culturally competent. It is fundamentally a normative approach, in that there are certain traits and abilities that are universal to all leaders (Steers, Sanchez-Runde, & Nardon, 2012). The second approach, cross-cultural leadership, has a longer history of empirical research, ranging from two-country studies to large multinational efforts. While initial efforts in this area were also normative, it has progressed to endorse a contingency approach (Steers et al., 2012), in that it focuses on identifying cultural contingencies that are related to effective leader traits and behaviors. We will briefly overview the definition of each approach in the following paragraph and discuss their relationship to leading global teams later in the chapter.

The global leadership approach is aimed at developing better global leaders and takes a more holistic perspective, viewing global leaders in terms of broad styles and/or competencies. The study of “global leadership,” highlighted in a recent issue of the *Journal of World Business*, is a separate yet conceptually related stream of research from the cross-cultural leadership literature, though it is in its relative infancy in comparison. At present, the construct of global leadership is primarily at the construct definition and refinement stage, with little empirical research to support its validity (Osland, Taylor, & Mendenhall, 2009).

Osland and colleagues define global leadership as “a process of influencing the thinking, attitudes, and behaviors of a global community to work together synergistically toward a common vision and common goals” (Osland, Bird, Mendenhall, & Osland, 2006, p. 204). This construct, examining global leadership in terms of both styles and competencies that are essential or effective for global leaders, takes a much broader view than the cross-cultural research endeavors, examining it in terms of styles and competencies that are essential or effective for global leaders, which examines the cultural contingency of specific traits and behaviors. In many ways, it is similar to the search for universals within the cross-cultural leadership literature. While the research on this approach is limited, it does provide a useful framework through which global team leadership can be examined in a different way than is possible through the lens of cross-cultural leadership.

The study of cross-cultural leadership is based on the notion that not all leadership traits and behaviors are universally effective. Cross-cultural leadership has often been difficult to pin down. That is, the issue of culture compounds disagreement over leadership definitions. Rather than forcing a definition, it is perhaps more useful to overview cross-cultural leadership research by examining the questions that are asked within this research stream.

One of the focal questions in this research is whether leadership (and leadership traits or behaviors) are universal or contingent depending on the culture in which they are enacted. Graen and colleagues (Graen, Hui, Wakabayashi, & Wang, 1997) posit that the primary research question is whether phenomena are etic (universal across all cultures) or emic (unique to a culture). Initial work in this area focused on identifying universally effective or endorsed traits or behaviors. More recent endeavors have addressed more complex questions, investigating the cultural

contingency of leadership. This complexity has led to a more in-depth understanding of what is etic and what is emic, and where these contingencies occur.

The search for cultural contingencies has led to developing and measuring typologies of cultural dimensions. Geert Hofstede put forth arguably the most famous of these (Hofstede, 1980), though others by Schwartz (1999) and Trompenaars (1993, 2006) have been developed. The primary focus in the later discussion of leading global teams will focus on work done by the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004). Project GLOBE was a 62-nation study that utilized the conceptual dimensions from Hofstede, with modifications in measurement. They examined both ideal (i.e., desired or “should be”) and actual (i.e., “as is”) culture at both the organizational and national levels. In doing so, they identified culture clusters that organized participating countries by their endorsed values, allowing the identification of both universal and culturally contingent leadership traits and behaviors. This framework is discussed in terms of the universal approach and the cultural contingencies approach.

Teams in a Global Context

Research on groups and teams¹ has long been a domain of interest in psychology. It was not until the past few decades, however, that we started to understand teams in an organizational context (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003). Although the idea of teams has been applied in both domestic and multinational settings (see Guzzo & Dickson, 1996, and Earley & Gibson, 2002, for broad reviews of the team literature), the latter is far less well understood.

Without doubt, the driving force of studying global teams is rooted in globalization. The growing adoption of team-based systems across multinational organizations and the advancement in cross-cultural literature has greatly informed us about the opportunities and challenges of global teams in today’s world. That is, while team effectiveness can be enhanced by the diverse knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) of the members, it can nevertheless be dampened by diversity in values, attitudes, and other characteristics (e.g., Milliken & Martins, 1996; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). Therefore, a major goal of the current chapter is to integrate leadership theories with research on global teams and provide empirical as well as practical discussion on how to maximize the benefits and mitigate the challenges. It is, of course, important to remember throughout that “Although global teams are highly complex, they are teams first” (Maznevski & Chui, 2012, p. 142).

Contemporary research on global teams follows three major approaches: multinational teams, virtual teams, and cross-cultural teams. Research on multinational or multicultural teams mainly focuses on multinational structures and

¹In the current chapter, we use the labels “team” and “group” interchangeably to refer to a collective entity that is bound by common goals shared by more than two people that interact with each other (Earley & Gibson, 2002; Guzzo & Dickson, 1996), though we acknowledge that some have advanced conceptual differentiations between the two (e.g., Katzenbach & Smith, 1993).

technologies that shape the work environment, demography, and team composition that concern the impact of heterogeneity and diversity, and team processes that involve cognition, exchange, and conflict (Earley & Gibson, 2002). Specifically, given the geographic dispersion of global teams, research on multinational structures and technologies is concerned with the technological tools that can enhance the effectiveness in communication and teamwork provided the geographic boundaries. In team composition, cultural diversity as a function of individual differences such as attributes, beliefs, values, and perspectives is examined in relation to team effectiveness. In addition, team processes characterized by collective or shared entities (i.e., teamwork, collective efficacy, shared understanding) have been examined, focusing on how these constructs may differ across different cultures. The important factors highlighted within the three domains of research, albeit distinct conceptually, may interact to exert effect on global team effectiveness.

Yet another stream of research has been devoted to virtual teams, defined as “temporary, culturally diverse, geographically dispersed, electronically communicating work-group(s) of members... who think and act in concert within the diversity of the global environment” (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999, p. 792). Research in this area pertains to conceptualizations and operationalizations of virtuality, as well as factors that facilitate or hinder the success of global virtual teams (Stanko & Gibson, 2009; Zander, Mockaitis, & Butler, 2012).

Research on cross-cultural teams is characterized by an emphasis on identifying and measuring cultural differences that influence team processes and effectiveness. In particular, two major approaches have been taken in this stream of research. First, considerable research has been undertaken to examine the main effects of contextual factors, such as culture-specific values, beliefs, or characteristics, on team-related attitudes and processes in different cultures (e.g., Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martinez 2000; Gibson & Zellmer-Bruhn, 2001; Kashima et al., 2005; Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997, 2001; Morris, Menon, & Ames, 2001). Building upon the first line of research, the second approach focuses on the moderating effect of cultural differences in teams (i.e., cultural contingencies; e.g., Earley, 1999; Erez & Somech, 1996; Gibson, 1999; Man & Lam, 2003). Collectively, research on cross-cultural teams encompassing both approaches has greatly advanced our understanding of teams across different cultural environments.

In studying global teams, the importance of adopting a multilevel approach cannot be overstated. Essentially, global team effectiveness is a product of the interaction of individual and organizational elements. On the one hand, organizational context (characterized by structure, technology, and leadership, etc.) sets boundaries to influence team processes and individuals’ responses. On the other hand, characteristics of the team members (e.g., attributes, attitudes, etc.) can in turn impact team-level outcomes via the formation of shared perceptions and knowledge (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003). Although the past two decades have witnessed considerable progress in a variety of perspectives pertaining global teams (e.g., composition, selection, and diversity; e.g., Bhagat & Steers, 2009; Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 1997), we recognize that empirical investigation on global teams is still underrepresented in the literature (Malhotra, Majchrzak, & Rosen, 2007; Zander et al., 2012).

Part of the underrepresentation can be attributed to the lack of a comprehensive theoretical framework for studying global teams that integrates elements, processes, and contingencies in global team effectiveness (Earley & Gibson, 2002).

Based on the preceding discussion, we have chosen to incorporate both team and leadership research in our efforts to form a more holistic picture on leading global teams. We recognize that the concepts of leadership and teams are inseparable due to overlapping constructs (e.g., the Project GLOBE cultural dimensions on individual and team levels) as well as interactions between leaders and members in team processes. Although this is by no means the most comprehensive review on the global team literature, it is our hope that this integration of leadership and team research captures the dynamic entity of global teams and enables us to provide better informed recommendations on best practices.

Leading Teams in a Global Context

In this section, we apply the literature on global teamwork to various “alternate” frameworks of global leadership. Each leadership framework is defined and explained in detail, focusing on both the cross-cultural leadership approach and the global leadership approach, generally, and their individual approaches, specifically.

The existing literature on leadership in a global context can be viewed either through a cross-cultural leadership or a global leadership lens. There are several established approaches that lay within each of these broad categorizations. It should be noted, however, that there is overlap between these approaches. We are utilizing this framework for purposes of organizational clarity, recognizing that, for example, the work on identifying broad leadership competencies is related to earlier investigations into universal leadership traits. We attempt to clarify and delineate these approaches by providing sufficient theoretical background to support our practical implications while acknowledging the conceptual overlap that exists due to the nature of the literature.

As discussed earlier, the nascent global leadership literature primarily focuses on broad leader competencies and styles (e.g., Mendenhall, Reiche, Bird, & Osland, 2012). Consistent with this literature, we integrate both leadership and teams research in this area by discussing various leadership competency paradigms as one model and leadership styles as another. The cross-cultural leadership approach encapsulates the universalist approach searching for emics (e.g., Lonner, 1980), and the various cultural dimensions approaches that focus on etics (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004).

Global Leadership

Global leadership competencies. The concept of leadership competencies has received considerable attention recently in both the academic and practitioner literature despite criticisms regarding their effectiveness and their actual relationship to

performance (Bolden & Gosling, 2006). Leadership competencies are essentially skills or abilities that characterize effective leaders. Not surprisingly, there is a wide range of ways of thinking about—and assessing—global leadership. Bird and Stevens (2012) have grouped these into a few major categories, including cultural difference assessments, intercultural adaptability assessments, and global leadership competency assessments.

Among these many conceptualizations, several constructs have been proposed that reflect the idea of leadership competencies. The underlying assumption in all of these is that individuals possessing these competencies have at least the opportunity to be an effective global leader. Both broad level competencies, such as the global mind-set, and specific competencies, such as cultural intelligence, have been proposed and received theoretical and empirical attention. Additionally, many organizations choose to develop their own competency models of global leadership that are aligned with their corporate vision (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, & Dennison, 2003), though these are often developed from existing leadership development models instead of more empirically supported models. We have focused on competency models that have implications for leading global teams, rather than on competency models focusing on global leadership more generally. The theory and practical usage of these models in a multinational team context are discussed, along with the limitations inherent to a competency approach.

The “global mind-set,” as an emerging construct, has become increasingly popular among those researching and practicing leadership in a multinational context. This, in part, stems from the global leadership construct (Mendenhall et al., 2012), in which the development of critical skills and competencies are a foundational part of becoming a global leader (Mendenhall, 2006). While this literature is still developing, several existing competencies, such as cultural intelligence, have been conceptually linked to the global mind-set. Additionally, entire competency models, such as the model developed at Thunderbird assessed by the Global Mindset Inventory (see Javidan, Teagarden, & Bowen, 2010), are devoted to developing this mind-set. Other approaches do not specify a set of competencies. Rather, they provide broader practical advice for developing and utilizing global leadership competencies.

When considering leadership competencies, it is important to note that their development takes both time and intentional effort (Mendenhall, 2006). Regardless of the competencies specified, several strategies that Mendenhall suggests have been shown to be effective. First, when coaching developing leaders, the experience must be highly individualized. Second, the coaching must focus on present, rather than future challenges. Third, these developmental sessions must be confidential and allow an “inner freedom to learn.” In other words, the leader must not fear retribution for experimentation with their new competencies.

Even with these practical guidelines, it is difficult to examine these competency models in depth due to the number of models (especially when considering the number of models that are developed in-house), the lack of empirical work, and the sheer number of possible competencies. For example, Mendenhall and Osland (2002) identified 56 global leadership competencies, a number they acknowledged is too large to be of any practical use. Further, these competencies may not be relevant for every global leadership position (Conger & Ready, 2004). Rather than describing,

in depth, various competency models, we instead put forth some initial empirical findings relating global leadership competencies and competency models to meaningful outcomes while encouraging both scholars and practitioners to continue investigations in this domain.

There is some emerging empirical support for the efficacy of these competency models. Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, and Oddou (2010) developed an initial competency model utilizing three primary facets: perception, relationship, and self-management, consisting of 17 dimensions. Others have found initial support for this framework, finding that it is predictive of business acumen, interpersonal skills, and system management skills (Furuya, Stevens, Bird, Oddou, & Mendenhall, 2009).

Caligiuri and Tarique (2012) found that extraversion, openness to experience, low neuroticism, and previous cultural experiences related to what they termed dynamic cross-cultural competencies. These competencies included high levels of cultural flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, and low levels of ethnocentrism. They further found support that these competencies were related to supervisor's ratings of focal leaders' global leadership effectiveness, providing initial empirical linkages between global competencies and global outcome variables. Despite this emerging evidence, more empirical work is needed linking various competency models to outcomes. We further encourage researchers to work toward a greater consensus regarding the competency models in this area. Greater uniformity in both the predictive competency models and the outcomes used would be of great benefit to researchers and practitioners who are attempting to make sense of the vast array of models available.

While there is some emerging empirical support for the use of leadership competencies, there are also numerous criticisms that have been leveled against this approach. Buckingham (2001) argued that the competency approach can encourage unhelpful conformity among leaders. Along similar lines, Carroll, Levy, and Richmond (2008) argue that a focus on competencies can serve to restrain thinking in leaders rather than developing and fostering it. Finally, it has been argued that competency models can disassociate leader behavior from its context, leading to failure in the continued development and effectiveness of the leader (Salaman, 2004). While these criticisms have merit, competency models are increasingly popular. Practically speaking, it is important to recognize the limits of competency models in this context. In particular, it is critical to ensure competency models are used for developmental purposes, rather than appraisal (Conger, 2005), especially given the lack of clear consensus on the structure and weightings of the competencies making up a generalized global leadership competency model.

Despite the vast variety of theories on global leader competencies, research linking leader competencies and global team effectiveness is still in its early stages (Hajro & Pudelko, 2010). In fact, when taking a broader look at the team literature in general, research on leadership has largely remained on the individual level, whereas less is known in the team context (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003). Although there is ample evidence that leaders do indeed impact team performance (e.g., Jacobs & Singell, 1993), leader competencies that are required for leading a team effectively may differ from those needed for individual success (Mathieu, Maynard,

Rapp, & Gilson, 2008). Similarly, global leadership competencies, although discussed extensively, are not well understood in the context of global teams.

In this section, we highlight a few clusters of competencies (of the more than 250 global leadership competencies that have been identified; Bird & Stevens, 2012) that have been argued to be major contributors to global team success. On the broad level, research on global mind-set has demonstrated a positive relationship between global mind-set and firm performance (Nummela, Saarenketo, & Puumalainen, 2004). Specific competences, such as cross-cultural communication competence and cross-cultural intelligence, have been shown to facilitate global team success to various extents.

Cross-cultural communication competence refers to one's ability to communicate effectively in a multicultural setting, which entails knowledge of the culture and language, affective skills (e.g., empathy, charisma, etc.), and behavioral skills (relationship skills, communication skills, etc.). Given that global teams are highly susceptible to issues with team interaction, cross-cultural communication competence can be particularly important in successfully communicating goals and vision, establishing interpersonal relationships, and achieving high team performance (Matveev & Nelson, 2004; Zander et al., 2012). For example, Matveev and Nelson found a positive relationship between the level of cross-cultural communication competence of team member and team-level performance in cross-cultural teams, highlighting the importance for leaders to develop high levels of competency in cross-cultural communication. These specialized communication skills can be especially important for virtual teams that are geographically dispersed. In a multinational setting, the leader's communication with team members was found to positively predict team performance despite the challenges associated with geographic dispersion (Cummings, 2007). The author suggested that this communication facilitates exchange of information and fosters interpersonal relationships, which subsequently mitigate the negative impact of geographic dispersion.

Research on cross-cultural intelligence (CQ) focuses on yet another taxonomy of leadership competencies, consisting of meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral factors that contribute to both successful global leaders and teams. In a field study on culturally diverse teams, Groves and Feyerherm (2011) found leader CQ to be positively associated with both leader and team performance, even after controlling for leader emotional intelligence and other leadership competencies (i.e., mentoring, innovating, directing, and monitoring). The authors suggested that leaders with high levels of CQ may be more motivated and better equipped to overcome communication issues and intrateam conflict, which in turn leads to better team performance.

Findings from a qualitative study by Hajro and Pudelko (2010) revealed the importance of several specific leadership competencies in determining effective functioning of multinational teams. Particularly, knowledge transfer and management were recognized as the top competences among global team leaders, which not only contribute to the development of business strategies and activities but also facilitate interactions and information exchange among members of different teams and departments. In addition, cross-cultural awareness, the extent to which an individual

is aware of the values and beliefs of people from different cultures, was found to be the second most important competence for multinational leaders. It was suggested that cross-cultural awareness among leaders may lead to improved team performance via its effects on fostering social relations and organizational support. Furthermore, findings suggested that successful global leaders are the ones who possess motivating capabilities, through which they can motivate members to exchange information and ideas, take an active approach when facing challenges, and perform to the best of their abilities. Other competencies, such as having knowledge of a foreign language and creating a system of shared values and norms in global teams, were also perceived to be associated with team performance.

When discussing competency in global teams, differentiations need to be made between leadership and team competencies. Although both have been associated with team performance, the former describes KSAs possessed by individuals (i.e., leaders) whereas the latter concept concerns the collective or aggregated entities of a team (Mathieu et al., 2008). Consequently, the mechanisms through which they influence team outcomes may differ. Although team competencies are not the focus of this chapter, we recognize that connections can be drawn between the two lines of research. On the one hand, a leader is essentially part of a team, such that leadership competencies serve as an important component in team competencies. On the other hand, and perhaps more importantly, constructs in leadership and team competencies do overlap, but only to a certain extent. For instance, cognitive ability (Devine & Philips, 2001), task-related knowledge (Mathieu & Schulze, 2006), and cross-cultural communication skills (Matveev & Nelson, 2004) have been frequently discussed in both areas of research, begging the question of why the two have not yet been better connected. We believe that the approach taken by Lopez and Ensari (2013) to understand competencies from individual, interpersonal, and team perspectives offers a potential avenue for bridging the different streams of research in competencies in global teams.

Best practices. There are several best practices that emerge from the global leadership literature.

1. Utilize global leadership competency assessment as a developmental tool, not for appraisal or selection.

As Bird and Stevens (2012) note, “It is important to remember ... that the field of global leadership is still in its infancy, with no established definition and no accompanying set of clearly defined behaviors. Given the nature of the phenomenon it may be unrealistic to expect that this will be resolved any time soon” (p. 137). There is still a lack of strong validity evidence for the predictive power of the vast majority of the various competence assessments that are related to global leadership. Further, some of the tools are explicitly designed as self-reports, and it is well established that taking developmental experiences or assessments and using them for promotion or annual evaluation purposes thoroughly undermines the developmental usefulness of the experience or tool, partially because tools used for these different purposes likely assess different dimensions, and partially because employees no longer have motivation to be

honest in their self-assessment, but rather are motivated for inflating their accomplishments (e.g., see Rupp, Snyder, Gibbons, & Thornton, 2006 for a discussion of this related to developmental assessment centers). Thus, these types of competency assessments are likely better used as developmental tools rather than selection or assessment tools. In other words, use these tools to help global team leaders (in training or in situ) identify areas of strength and areas in need of additional development experiences, and compare results within-person over time (i.e., is the person showing growth in the dimensions identified as needing growth).

2. Highlight the competencies considered to be important, and why.

Although these global leadership competencies are best treated in a developmental framework rather than a selection framework, that doesn't mean that they shouldn't be emphasized and communicated to employees. When those in global team leadership positions are aware of the competencies that have been found to be important for others in similar settings, they are better able to target their own developmental efforts toward those competence areas.

Leadership Styles

The global leadership approach to understanding global team effectiveness has also utilized the leadership styles approach as one perspective that can inform the development of global leaders. The idea of leadership styles has been used in a variety of ways within the existing literature. Transformational, ethical, charismatic, values based, and other types of leadership have all been characterized as both theories and as working styles.

There has been more empirical work on leadership styles in multinational contexts than on competency models in those contexts. The existing work on leadership styles has primarily focused on the full-range-leadership theory (FRLT; Avolio & Bass, 1991). This particular framework has been the dominant model within the academic literature in the last two decades (Gardner, Lowe, Moss, Mahoney, & Cogliser, 2010; Lowe & Gardner, 2000).

Briefly, the FRLT is made up of nine dimensions: Individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, idealized influence, attributed and behavioral, contingent reward, management by exception (active), management by exception (passive), and laissez-faire leadership. The first five dimensions make up transformational leadership, the following three make up transactional leadership, and the last dimension reflects the lack of leadership to encompass the full range of possible leadership styles. Considerable support has been found for the psychometric structure of the model (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003) and for its relationships to various outcomes. Transformational leadership has been linked to trust (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Bommer, 1996), leadership satisfaction (Yammarino & Bass, 1990), and performance outcomes (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996). Further, there is support that transformational leadership

augments transactional leadership. That is, transactional leadership is a necessary condition for transformational leadership to occur (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). These findings provide both theoretical background and practical implications for developing leaders and have been used in both appraisal and developmental contexts.

While there is considerable support in both research and practice for the explanatory power of this model of leadership styles, limitations do exist, particularly in relation to multinational contexts. Further complicating matters, little work has been done examining transformational leadership in the specific context of multinational teams (Kearney & Gebert, 2009).

First, there is an increasing consensus that there is no single “silver bullet” way of leading that is effective across all cultures (e.g., Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004), though we address this in more detail below. The styles of leadership that are preferred vary by country as well (e.g., House et al., 2004). Thus, the perceptions and effectiveness of different leadership styles differ from country to country (e.g., Jung & Avolio, 1999), creating additional barriers that must be navigated when leading global teams.

Some have argued that global leadership development efforts should focus on training leaders to account for these differences so that they can lead with a style congruent to the culture in which they are operating (e.g., Javidan, Dorfman, De Luque, & House, 2006). Others have argued that truly effective leaders are true to themselves (i.e., authentic; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008), and that changing one’s style may not lead to greater effectiveness in cross-cultural domains (e.g., Goffee & Jones, 2000). Others have argued that it is not possible to be all things to all people. As Schneider (1987) noted, “almost all of the current leadership theories... tell a leader what to do, given a certain situation, and make the assumption that leaders are infinitely flexible...” (p. 449), a position that he refuted strongly.

We believe both perspectives have merit, if not taken to extremes. A greater understanding of cultural differences can only aid developing leaders in multinational contexts. At the same time, changing one’s leadership style may result in a lack of authenticity, potentially leading to ineffectiveness. Despite the large body of literature done in the Western hemisphere on leadership styles, further work must be done to examine the extent to which leaders can and should adapt their styles to match different cultural settings. While future research is needed, the current literature does provide a starting point for examining leadership in a multinational team context.

While many researchers have argued for the importance of identifying “best” leadership styles for global teams, the extent to which a particular leadership style is effective in a team context may itself vary across cultures. Nevertheless, some leadership styles have been recognized as more universally effective across the globe. Indeed, Bass (1997) entitled an article “Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries?”, and he concluded that it does, though he acknowledged that the behaviors and interactions that make up transformational leadership may differ widely in different cultural contexts. Following from Bass’ assertions about the universality of transformational leadership, we briefly summarize the major findings in global leadership styles and team effectiveness from within the FRLT perspective.

Bass and Avolio (1993) suggested a hierarchy of leadership styles based on their associations with outcomes, ranging the most effective to the least effective: transformational leadership, contingent reward, management by exception (active), management by exception (passive), and laissez-fair leadership. Research has consistently shown that leadership styles higher in the hierarchy (e.g., transformational leadership) are more positively associated with a variety of desirable team outcomes. Although this pattern of findings tends to be weaker when objective measures of criteria are used (Bass, 1997), meta-analytic evidence has suggested that this hierarchy of correlation has held up consistently (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

Although transformational leadership seems to be more associated with team success relative to other leadership styles, absolute differences do exist across countries in perceived leadership (mean and variances) and correlations between different styles and team outcomes (e.g., Boyd Jr, 1988; Yokochi, 1989). These discrepancies, likely resulting from cultural or organizational specific factors, may serve as obstacles in understanding the linkage between leadership styles and team effectiveness in global teams. Consequently, the effectiveness of varying leadership styles has been less frequently examined in the context of cross-cultural or multinational teams. Nevertheless, what research there is has generally supported the positive effects of transformational leadership. For example, in studying diverse teams in a multinational organization, Kearney and Gebert (2009) found that high levels of transformational leadership enable diversity to exert a positive impact on team performance by maximizing task-relevant information elaboration and collective team identification.

Findings from Project GLOBE also shed light on leadership styles in cross-cultural teams. For instance, charismatic/value-based and team-orientated leadership styles were found to be effective in facilitating team building, communication, and coordination across many countries (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Other leadership styles, such as humane and self-protective leadership styles, tend to be perceived differently across cultures (Dickson, Den Hartog, & Castaño, 2009).

With an increasing popularity of global virtual teams, research, albeit limited, has also been conducted to examine the effectiveness of leadership styles in geographically dispersed virtual teams. Through interviews, Davis and Bryant (2003) discovered a positive association between transformational leadership and global virtual team outcomes, whereas laissez-fair leadership tends to have a negative effect on the same outcomes. Similarly, Joshi, Lazarova, and Liao (2009) revealed the important role of inspirational leadership in fostering trust and commitment among team members, which tends to be especially important given the challenges faced by geographically dispersed teams. On the contrary, Carte, Chidambaram, and Becker (2006) did not reveal significant results regarding the effects of transformational leadership and team performance.

Given the geographic dispersion of global virtual teams, empowerment can serve as a big contributor of team success (Kirkman, Rosen, Tesluk, & Gibson, 2004). Self-leadership, a leadership style that distributes power and responsibilities to all members of a team, has been suggested to benefit global virtual teams

(Davis & Bryant, 2003). Although empirical evidence is lacking on the effectiveness of self-leadership, existing theoretical propositions have provided a potential avenue for future research on the relationship between self-leadership and the success of global virtual teams.

Building upon the aforementioned findings, we encourage researchers to further investigate the role of leadership styles in a global team context. In particular, future research should explore the mechanisms through which certain leadership styles exert a positive impact on team effectiveness, and the cultural and organizational contingencies associated with such relationships. A multilevel approach considering individual-, team-, and organizational level factors should also be taken when examining leadership styles in global teams.

Best practices. Looking broadly across the literature on leadership styles, some key best practices emerge.

1. Communicate constantly (Tann, 2013). One reason for the success of transformational leadership in global teams, we believe, is that transformational leadership entails keeping the vision constantly salient to the team—a team that may not otherwise always have the same understanding of the vision, due to cultural differences or differences in their career experiences. Transformational leadership is inherently about communication—of the vision, of expectations for how work is done, and of how the team will work together.
2. Be open to the ideas of the team. The intellectual stimulation component of the transformational leadership style is generally seen as occurring when the leader promotes divergent ways of thinking among followers. When the leader also models openness to the different ways of thinking about and resolving problems that can emerge from a global team, the team members will have more opportunity to contribute from what they bring to the table. A recent survey by the European Professional Women’s Network found “Openness to new and different ideas” to be tied for the most frequently occurring response among women in global leadership roles when asked the question “What are the five most important qualities needed to lead an international team successfully?” (Demailly & Rabotin, 2006). We conclude that a transformational style of leadership that models openness to the ideas and contributions of the diverse members of the global team is more likely to succeed.

Cross-Cultural Leadership

The search for universals. The universal approach addresses whether phenomena are universal—i.e., invariant across cultures—or culturally contingent—i.e., vary predictably from culture to culture based on characteristics of those cultures. This in many ways is the primary question underlying cross-cultural leadership research. However, the search to identify global leadership competencies is, in many ways, also a continuing search for universals. Thus, while we discuss these approaches

(global leadership and cross-cultural leadership) separately, we recognize that they are by no means orthogonal. Rather, these research traditions have been and continue to be influencing and overlapping with one another.

The goal of identifying things that are universal is common among many disciplines and contexts, and has led people to define “universality” in very many ways, for many different purposes. Lonner (1980) attempted to bring some order to the chaos of those efforts by providing a taxonomy of universality, consisting of several subtypes of universals that build on each other in complexity. At the most basic level is the simple universal, which is what much of the global leadership framework is built upon, and which served as the starting point for early forays into cross-cultural leadership research (Dickson, Den Hartog, & Mitchelson, 2003). A simple universal is a phenomenon that occurs consistently in every country or culture. Lonner suggested that *frustration leads to aggression* could be considered a simple universal, for example.

Variform universals occur when a general attribute is important across countries or cultures, but differences in enactment exist across cultures. That is, a particular value can be universally endorsed but could mean vastly different things in different countries. Dickson and Den Hartog (2005) put forth *visionary* as a trait that is a variform universal. They note that in some cultures (such as the United States), a more forceful communication of the leader’s vision is effective, whereas in other cultures (such as China), a more passive and nonaggressive communication of the vision is more effective. Thus, the characteristic is universal, but varies in its form (variform). The variform universal is one of the primary foci of many research efforts into cross-cultural leadership, such as Project GLOBE (House et al., 2004).

Functional universals exist when a relationship between two variables is universally found in every cultural setting, but the strength of the relationship can vary significantly from culture to culture. The relationship between goal setting and performance, for example, may be found in every culture, though it may be a stronger relationship in countries higher on Performance Orientation. (Lonner identified other universals within his taxonomy, including universals related to temporal ordering of behaviors and universality across time rather than culture, but these three are the most relevant for our present purposes.)

Bass (1997) proposed an addition to Lonner’s taxonomy—the variform functional universal. The variform functional universal incorporates the variability in enactment of a variform universal and the variability in strength of relationship of a functional universal. Thus, a relationship between two variables is always found, but the enactment of those variables may not be consistent, and the strength of the relationship might vary across cultures. Bass advocated for this understanding of universal when describing the universality of the effectiveness of transformational leadership, where he noted that transformational leadership is always effective, but that it can be more effective (i.e., stronger relationship) in some cultures than in others, and that the behaviors that make up the components of transformational leadership might look different from culture to culture. Indeed, Bass noted that “Transformational leadership may be autocratic and directive or democratic and participative” (p. 136).

Research searching for simple universals has declined over time, in part because it oversimplifies many real-world relationships. Dickson et al. (2003) note that it is much more common to search for differences between cultures and cultural dimensions on leadership traits. Further, other researchers have begun to investigate unique ways of looking at leadership in different cultures, rather than imposing existing North American theories. Much research thus focuses on searching for variform or variform functional universals. Contrasting this more current focus on variform and variform functional universals with our emphasis on what we can now refer to as simple universals in the global leadership competency literature, the challenge of understanding the implications for leading global teams becomes clear. This latter approach is our present focus, and we address it and its implications below.

The research focus on identifying cultural universals in leadership has generated a line of studies that greatly advanced our understanding of the commonality of leadership's impact across cultures. For example, in one of the earliest reports from Project GLOBE, Den Hartog et al. (1999) found that leadership attributes associated with transformational/charismatic and team-oriented leadership, such as being trustworthy, encouraging, dependable, and communicative, are universally perceived as effective in facilitating team building, communication, and coordination across many countries. In contrast, leadership styles characterized by self-centered and malevolent attributes are perceived as undesired across the world. However, the authors noted that the findings do not suggest universality in the *expression* of leadership, only in the perception of effectiveness. In other words, the actual leadership behaviors that are common or that yield desired results may well vary across different cultures, and thus the findings may represent variform or variform functional universality, rather than simple universality as it may at first appear.

According to Bass and Avolio (1993), the different leadership styles described in the FRLT can be ordered hierarchically based on the consistent strength of their associations with important team outcomes. Transformational leadership and contingent reward consistently have stronger associations with outcomes such as customer market share, satisfaction with and commitment to the team, and team performance. This ordering, first verified in the United States (Waldman, Bass, & Einstein, 1986), has been replicated across several cultures, including Austria (Steyrer & Mende, 1994), China (Davis, Guan, Luo, & Maahs, 1996), India, and Japan (Yokochi, 1989). Part of this phenomenon can be contributed to the universality of the cognitive prototype of an "ideal leader." That is, when asked to describe an ideal leader, individuals across the globe describe characteristics that are aligned with the conceptualization of transformational leadership, such as charisma, dedication, intelligence, and sensitivity (Bass, 1997). Despite the consistency in the order of the relationships, however, Bass again (1997) argued that such leadership styles are variform functional universals, such that the size of the relationships varied, as did the behavioral manifestations of the dimensions. For instance, while transactional leadership was shown to correlate positively with team effectiveness in the United States and German, this relationship was found to be much closer to zero in a Canadian sample (Boyd Jr, 1988). Similarly, the characteristics that define charisma likely vary from culture to culture, as well.

In investigating the relationships between leadership attributes and organizational outcomes in Western and Asian countries, Dorfman et al. (1997) found mixed support for the universal approach. Particularly, Dorfman and his colleagues found that leader attributes such as being supportive, charismatic, and practicing contingent reward positively predicted subordinates' commitment, satisfaction, and job performance in all five countries (Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Mexico, and the U.S.), thus supporting cultural universality. In contrast, some other leader behaviors had differential impact on the same outcomes across cultures, providing counter-evidence to the argument of universal leadership.

Despite the theoretical argument and empirical evidence for some elements of leadership style being universally effective, this approach is not without limitations. One of the concerns in applying universality in global teams, as Dickson et al. (2009) discussed, is a compromise between broadening the construct and providing applicable recommendations in leading global teams. That is, as the definition of universality expands to a certain extent, the difficulty in making practical implications increases as well. For instance, although transformational leadership is likely to be effective in any culture, it is often unrealistic to expect an expatriate leader to understand the enactment of this leadership in a specific culture and act accordingly. Therefore, we encourage researchers to extend the search on universals and further investigate cultural variations that may serve as contingencies for universality.

One caveat to this finding comes from research on leader ethics. Work by Resick and his colleagues (Martin et al., 2013; Resick et al., 2011) suggests that, while there is a fair amount of cultural contingency in what organization members perceive to be highly ethical, there is great consistency in factors that are perceived to be unethical, specifically relating to acting in one's own self-interest and being perceived as abusing one's authority or misusing one's power. Their sample of cultures is too small to suggest that this is a universal finding, but the implication is that there is a specific and consistent range of behaviors that are critical to avoid, seemingly in a wide range of cultural settings.

Cultural contingency approaches. The focus of the most recent cross-cultural leadership research, and team leadership to a degree, focuses on examining dimensions of societal culture to better determine whether traits and behaviors are culturally contingent in their effectiveness (Dickson et al., 2003). That is, determining the cultural contingency of leadership traits or behaviors helps to identify whether they are effective (or not) in a given culture. In many ways this is a natural extension from the search for universally effective traits or behaviors. This stream of research moves to examining whether phenomena exist in other cultures and, if they do, determining if the relationships are the same or if they differ in magnitude or in how it is enacted. Further, these approaches have succeeded in identifying clusters of cultures, based on similarity along cultural dimensions, which provide concrete guidance for global leaders who are attempting to determine how they can best communicate with and lead a global team.

There are numerous conceptualizations of societal dimensions that have been utilized in cross-cultural leadership research. Beginning with his classic global

study of IBM, Geert Hofstede (Hofstede, 1980, 2001) put forth one model that has five dimensions of culture that can be measured along a continuum. Despite numerous criticisms leveled against it, Hofstede's model (and models who drew inspiration from it, such as the Project GLOBE model) remains one of the most influential models in this stream of research. Others have suggested alternative models. Schwartz (2006) identifies seven cultural value orientations, which combine to form three cultural value dimensions. Trompenaars (1993) puts forth seven dimensions. These approaches all have considerable overlap with each other and have received varying degrees of empirical attention. We turn our focus here, however, to Project GLOBE, which utilized dimensions similar to Hofstede's to examine leadership across 62 different countries in the largest cross-cultural leadership study to date. The implications and linkages to the teams literature and practical tips are also discussed.

The previously mentioned Project GLOBE—Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness—research study is one of most comprehensive studies of cross-cultural leadership to date (House et al., 2004). Its purpose is to examine leadership and organizational cultures around the world to identify universals and contingencies in as many countries as was feasible. In undertaking such a massive effort, the project moved beyond simple two-country comparisons, allowing large clusters of cultures to be compared in order to provide more comprehensive guidance to scholars and practicing leaders. This multinational study has generated numerous books and publications that have helped advance our understanding of global leadership (e.g., Hanges & Dickson, 2006).

Project GLOBE utilized many of Hofstede's original dimensions while modifying others. Specifically, GLOBE identifies nine cultural dimensions, which are performance orientation, future orientation, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, collectivism (institutional and in-group), power distance, humane orientation, and uncertainty avoidance (see Table 9.1 for definitions of the dimensions). As noted earlier, cultures were grouped into clusters based on similarity in responses along the dimensions measured. Ultimately, 10 clusters were identified: Anglo, Latin Europe, Nordic Europe, Germanic speaking Europe, Dutch speaking Europe, Eastern Europe, Latin America, Arab cultures, Southern Asian cultures, and Confucian cultures (Gupta & Hanges, 2004).

One of the benefits of utilizing the culture cluster approach (rather than simply examining individual cultures) is that effective traits or enacted behaviors are more likely effective within a cluster. That is, a leader that is effective in China, for example, is also likely to be effective in South Korea (Gupta & Hanges, 2004). Practically speaking, the culture cluster approach can potentially be efficient and cost-effective when a multinational company is expanding business across multiple regions within one culture cluster, such that a global leader can be selected or trained to be effective in working in a broader geographic area that shares core cultural values, rather than attempting to prepare leaders for teams from all possible cultural backgrounds.

The approach of cultural contingencies also applies when examining global leadership in the team context. In other words, the magnitude (or even direction) of the relationship between leadership and team effectiveness can depend on the cultural context. For instance, Dorfman and Howell (1988) found that the positive association between charismatic leadership and employee satisfaction was stronger

Table 9.1 GLOBE cultural dimensions (House et al., 1999, p. 25)

Cultural dimension	Definition
Performance orientation	The extent to which an organization or society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.
Future orientation	The degree to which individuals in organizations or societies engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification.
Assertiveness	The degree to which individuals in organizations or societies are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in social relationships.
Institutional collectivism	The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.
In-group collectivism	The degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families
Power distance	The degree to which members of an organization or society expect and agree that power should be unequally shared
Humane orientation	The degree to which individuals in organizations or societies encourage and reward individuals for being fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring, and kind to others
Uncertainty avoidance	The extent to which members of an organization or society strive to avoid uncertainty by reliance on social norms, rituals, and bureaucratic practices to alleviate the unpredictability of future events

in the United States than in Mexico. In a similar pattern, the impact of contingent reward on job satisfaction and supervisor satisfaction was greater among American employees compared to their Mexican counterparts.

Dickson et al. (2009) argued that the best strategy to study culturally contingent leadership is to rely on cultural dimensions, focusing particularly on the alignment (or misalignment) between leader characteristics and cultural-specific values. Using Hofstede’s cultural dimensions, Taras, Kirkman, and Steel (2010) provided meta-analytic evidence that culture significantly impacts how leadership styles are perceived. Research focusing on specific dimensions has suggested that the impact of transformational leadership can be magnified in collectivistic cultures given that members of such cultures tend to identify with their leader’s goal and a shared vision, and are more motivated with a collective interest (Jung, Bass, & Sosik, 1995). In contrast, transactional leadership may be more effective in individualistic cultures due to a stronger motivation to seek individual achievement and reward (Jung & Avolio, 1999). Confirming this argument, Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) found that the effect of transformational leadership on team members’ job satisfaction and turnover intentions was strengthened by collectivism.

Regarding power distance, Dorfman et al. (1997) argued that the differential relationships between leadership styles and outcomes can be attributed to the cultural differences in power distance, such that directive leadership had a positive impact on team members’ satisfaction and commitment in countries endorsing a high power distance (e.g., Taiwan and Mexico), whereas the same patterns of relationships were shown for participative leadership in countries endorsing a low power distance (e.g., the U.S. and South Korea). Differential impact of leadership

styles was also shown when performance outcome was used as the criterion, such that supportive and directive leadership were effective in Mexico whereas participative leadership was effective in the U.S. In a similar pattern, Newman and Nollen (1996) found that participative leadership positively predicts unit performance only in cultures with a low power distance. Using the FRLT leadership taxonomy, Elenkov and Manev (2005) demonstrated that idealized influence, individualized consideration, and management by exception (passive) were more closely associated with the influence of top management on organizational innovation in cultures with lower power distance.

Uncertainty avoidance, a dimension in both Hofstede's and Project GLOBE taxonomies of cultural dimensions, has also been shown to moderate the extent to which leader behaviors exert an impact in cross-cultural teams. Elenkov and Manev (2005) demonstrated that while relationships between certain leadership characteristics (i.e., individualized consideration, contingent reward leadership, and active management by exception) and their influence on organizational innovation were strengthened in higher uncertainty avoidance cultures, the impact of leadership characterized by inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation was less associated with organizational innovation in cultures with high uncertainty avoidance. The Project GLOBE study also showed that leader attributes such as cautious, formal, and orderly were better perceived in high versus low uncertainty avoidance cultures (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Dorfman, Hanges, & Brodbeck, 2004a, 2004b), suggesting that leadership characterized by these attributes may have differential impact based on how much uncertainty is endorsed in the culture.

To conclude the discussion on cultural contingencies, recent development in leadership research has equipped us with new perspectives to understand leadership in global teams. Although empirical research is still quite limited, preliminary evidence has suggested that people in different cultures vary in how they perceive and endorse different leadership styles. Therefore, we argue that a contingency framework should be incorporated to assist in aligning leadership behavior and styles with the host cultural context.

We believe that utilizing this framework has a great deal of utility for practicing leadership in a global context given the depth of information that is provided by this approach. That is, quantifying cultural dimensions allows for the measurement of the context in which a leader operates. By explicitly considering this context a leader can better plan their development by comparing their fit with the culture in which they will operate, thereby identifying critical areas of fit (or misfit) that should be the focus of developmental initiatives prior to departure and in-country. Additionally, this approach provides concrete guidance as to which particular traits and behaviors are likely to be effective based on the culture, allowing a leader to minimize culturally dissonant behavior and to maximize the potential for effectively leading teams.

Best practices. There are several best practices that emerge from the literature relating to cultural universals and contingencies, including the domain of cultural dimensions.

1. Highlight cultural differences, but do not be bound by them. Cultural values, expectations, and norms are typically not salient to the people holding them, until

they encounter people with different cultural values, expectations, and norms (House et al., 2004). Successful global team leaders will be knowledgeable about cultural differences in such things as communications style (e.g., explicit or implicit), what is considered respectful (e.g., public disagreement with others' ideas), and how tolerant or comfortable people are with ambiguity and uncertainty (e.g., the level of detail of a project plan). These differences can and should be highlighted and discussed within the team, with the recognition that the global team process will at times require each member to step outside of his/her comfort zone in order for the team to work together most successfully. This recognizes that each team member is more than his/her culture—that the team is not limited by the cultural differences of the team members.

2. Avoid assumptions, even when they seem evident. Related to the point above, it is important that the global team leader model a behavior of checking in with team members when unexpected events or responses occur. Even in global teams with experienced members, cultural habits and language differences can lead to responses that are not what other team members expect, which can then be misinterpreted. Inadvertent use of phrases with different meanings in different cultures can lead to confusion (e.g., “to lay something on the table” means to put it on hold in the US, but to raise it for immediate action in the UK). Differences in cultural sensitivities can similarly yield misunderstandings (e.g., in more individualistic cultures, attributing group characteristics to individuals based on their race, ethnicity, or nationality may be offensive, while it can be a more common practice in more collectivistic cultures). Thus, the global team leader who emphasizes and models the importance of checking in with team members when unexpected events or responses occur (“I was surprised when you said “X”—can you help me understand your thought process?”) has a greater chance of success than one who assumes that he/she understands the origins of the unexpected events or responses (“Johan is afraid of making mistakes”).
3. Identify specific points of likely discomfort and address them. Global teams are almost by definition uncertain situations. People who often have not worked together before, who may have come together as a global team because their respective companies were at some point acquired by a global organization, and who have different experiences of the most effective work processes are asked to work together successfully. While people from some cultures generally have less difficulty with uncertainty, some cultures are in general less tolerant of or comfortable with ambiguity and uncertainty. This is one predictable point of discomfort that can occur within a global team and taking steps to recognize it and treat it not as a barrier but as a team strength (i.e., by having some team members who embrace ambiguity and some who prefer more certainty, the team avoids either extreme) will help the global team leader to succeed.
4. After focusing on cultural differences, move beyond them. Though our cultural backgrounds are a part of us, all of us are more than our cultural backgrounds. Promoting personal interactions and connections among team members will help the team to move beyond the cultural expectations of each other, into personal relationships. Govindarajan and Gupta (2001) note that inability to cultivate trust

among team members is a common predictor of global team failure, and those factors that promote individual relationships among team members serve to cultivate trust. Thus, intrateam communication about nonwork issues (i.e., the equivalent of “water-cooler conversation”) can be quite important for the team, helping the team to move beyond culture toward interpersonal relationships (Tann, 2013).

Conclusion

This chapter is by no means an exhaustive summary of either the global leadership or global teams literature. Rather, it is an overview of two different approaches to studying leadership in a multinational context that integrates the literature around global teams. In doing so, it provides practical implications for leading multinational teams within each approach. Leadership competency models and styles, and the extant related literature on global teams, provide the foundation of the global leadership approach. The search for universals and contingencies, in turn, set the stage for our discussion of global teams leadership within the cross-cultural research domain. We recognize that there are overlaps between these approaches. Given these, we conclude with an integrated list of best practices that have emerged from both literatures (see Table 9.2).

Table 9.2 Best practices for leading global teams

Best practice	Suggestions for implementation
1. Utilize global leadership competency assessment as a developmental tool, not for appraisal or selection.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Make developmental use of the many tools available related to global leadership competencies, but remember that there is a lack of strong validity evidence to justify their use in selection/promotion settings
2. Highlight the competencies considered to be important, and why	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Model the competencies desired, both to members of global teams, and to leaders of global teams • Recognize that not all global team members will be attuned to subtleties or implicit communication, and so spend time explicitly addressing the dynamic competencies shown to affect global team effectiveness, and help team members find ways to develop those competencies
3. Communicate constantly	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on demonstrating and developing communication competence. Global team members who are geographically dispersed need more communication than may be typical for other teams—even other virtual teams. Cultural misunderstandings or variations in norms have the possibility of driving a team off-track, and so regular, frequent communication can help keep the culturally diverse team members’ efforts aligned • Promote, model, and allow communication within the team that is not task related. Allow the team to develop personal relationships that transcend their geographic and cultural distance

(continued)

Table 9.2 (continued)

Best practice	Suggestions for implementation
4. Be open to the ideas of the team	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By definition, global team members likely have different understandings of how best to approach a task. Effective global team leaders will seek the input of their team members, especially when the situation is culturally located (i.e., requires knowledge of specific cultural preferences or norms) • Work to move beyond the comfortable expectation that “the way I’ve done it has always worked well, and so must be the best way”
5. Highlight cultural differences, but do not be bound by them	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Remember that cultural differences do help explain preferences in leadership styles in general, but not for every person, and not in every industry (House et al., 2004). There are a tremendous number of factors that come into play in global team interactions, including personality, career experience, time zone differences (is it morning or late evening where this team member is right now?), and many others • At times, being less rigid to accommodate cultural differences may be merited. But giving
6. Avoid assumptions, even when they seem evident	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultivate the process of pausing before responding to unexpected responses or behaviors. Use the pause to question why the team member might have responded differently than expected, rather than assuming what the team member’s intentions were • Cultivate and model reflexing listening • Test conclusions about behaviors, and be conscious of the attributions and assumptions that team members of different cultural backgrounds may make about your own behavior
7. Identify specific points of likely discomfort, and address them	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As in any project, effective global team leaders identify potential pitfalls and points of misunderstanding or conflict that could derail a team. Cultural values operate below the level of consciousness, and potential differences in cultural values (e.g., related to time and deadlines, the role of women in the team, the degree of detail desirable in planning, etc.) can derail a team’s trust and effectiveness. Identifying those potential points of differentiation, and bringing them into salience, can help the team recognize cultural differences when they emerge, rather than making erroneous attributions for their colleagues’ behaviors
8. After focusing on cultural differences, move beyond them	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Treating team members as individuals is a key element of effective leadership styles. While means on cultural values represent common values held by members of different cultures, there is always substantial variation around those means. Global team leader knowledge of cultural differences can be especially useful at the start of a team’s relationship, but knowledge of each team member’s style, values, and performances standards can subsequently become more important

References

- Antonakis, J., Avolio, B. J., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003). Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *14*, 261–295.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (1991). *The full range leadership development programs: Basic and advanced manuals*. Binghamton, NY: Bass, Avolio & Associates.
- Barling, J., Weber, T., & Kelloway, E. K. (1996). Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: A field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *81*, 827–832.
- Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist*, *52*, 130–139.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership: A response to critiques. In M. M. Chemers & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions* (pp. 49–80). New York: Academic.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (Eds.). (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bhagat, R. S., & Steers, R. M. (2009). *Culture, organizations and work*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Bird, A., Mendenhall, M., Stevens, M. J., & Oddou, G. (2010). Defining the content domain of intercultural competence for global leaders. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *25*, 810–828.
- Bird, A., & Stevens, M. J. (2012). Assessing global leadership competencies. In M. E. Mendenhall et al. (Eds.), *Global leadership: Research, development, and practice* (2nd ed., pp. 113–140). New York: Routledge.
- Bolden, R., & Gosling, J. (2006). Leadership competencies: Time to change the tune? *Leadership*, *2*, 147–163.
- Bolden, R., Gosling, J., Marturano, A., & Dennison, P. (2003). *A review of leadership theory and competency frameworks*. Exeter: Centre for Leadership Studies, University of Exeter.
- Boyd, J. T., Jr. (1988). *Leadership extraordinary: A cross national military perspective on transactional versus transformational leadership*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Nova University.
- Buckingham, M. (2001). Don't waste time and money. *Gallup Management Journal*, *3*, December. Retrieved from <http://gmj.gallup.com/content/default.asp?ci=259&pg=1>
- Caligiuri, P., & Tarique, I. (2012). Dynamic cross-cultural competencies and global leadership effectiveness. *Journal of World Business*, *47*, 612–622.
- Carroll, B., Levy, L., & Richmond, D. (2008). Leadership as practice: Challenging the competency paradigm. *Leadership*, *4*, 363–379.
- Carte, T. A., Chidambaram, L., & Becker, A. (2006). Emergent leadership in self-managed virtual teams. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, *15*, 323–343.
- Conger, J. (2005, June). *360 and Competency Frameworks: Are we in the Land of Oz?* (Vol. 22). Presentation to the Corporate Research Forum, London.
- Conger, J. A., & Ready, D. A. (2004). Rethinking leadership competencies. *Leader to Leader*, *2004*, 41–47.
- Cummings, J. N. (2007). Leading group from a distance: How to mitigate consequences of geographic dispersion. In S. Weisband & L. Atwater (Eds.), *Leadership at a distance: Research in technologically supported work* (pp. 33–50). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Davis, D. D., & Bryant, J. L. (2003). Influence at a distance: Leadership in global virtual teams. *Advances in Global Leadership*, *3*, 303–340.
- Davis, D. D., Guan, P. L., Luo, J. J., & Maahs, C. J. (1996). *Need for continuous improvement, organizational citizenship, transformational leadership and service climate in a Chinese enterprise*. Unpublished manuscript. Presented at the meeting of the International Congress of Applied Psychology, Jerusalem.
- Day, D. V., & Antonakis, J. (2012). Leadership: Past, present, and future. *The Nature of Leadership*, *3*, 25.

- Demailly, C., & Rabotin, M. (2006, September). Being a successful global team leader. EuropeanPWN. Retrieved January 15, 2014, from http://www.europeanpwn.net/index.php?article_id=136
- Den Hartog, D. N., House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A., Dorfman, P. W., Abdalla, I. A., et al. (1999). Culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable implicit leadership theories: Are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed? *The Leadership Quarterly*, *10*, 219–256.
- Devine, D. J., & Phillips, J. L. (2001). Do smarter teams do better? A meta-analysis of cognitive ability and team performance. *Small Group Research*, *32*, 507–532.
- Dickson, M. W., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2005). What good is this to me? Managerial implications of global leadership research. In R. R. Sims & S. J. Quatro (Eds.), *Leadership: Succeeding in the private, public, and non-for-profit sectors* (pp. 348–366). Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe.
- Dickson, M. W., Den Hartog, D. N., & Castañó, N. (2009). Understanding leadership across cultures. In R. S. Bhagat & R. M. Steers (Eds.), *Culture, organizations, and work* (pp. 219–244). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Dickson, M. W., Den Hartog, D. N., & Mitchelson, J. K. (2003). Research on leadership in a cross-cultural context: Making progress, and raising new questions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *14*, 729–768.
- Dorfman, P. W., Hanges, P. J., & Brodbeck, F. C. (2004a). Leadership and cultural variation. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies* (pp. 669–719). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dorfman, P., Hanges, P., & Brodbeck, F. (2004b). Leadership and culture variation: The identification of culturally endorsed leadership profiles. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 669–719). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dorfman, P. W., & Howell, J. P. (1988). Dimensions of national culture and effective leadership patterns: Hofstede revisited. *Advances in International Comparative Management*, *3*, 127–150.
- Dorfman, P. W., Howell, J. P., Hibino, S., Lee, J. K., Tate, U., & Bautista, A. (1997). Leadership in Western and Asian countries: Commonalities and differences in effective leadership processes across cultures. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *8*, 233–274.
- Dulewicz, S. V., & Higgs, M. J. (2004). Design of a new instrument to assess leadership dimensions and styles. *Selection and Development Review*, *20*, 7–12.
- Earley, P. C. (1999). Playing follow the leader: Status-determining traits in relation to collective efficacy across cultures. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *80*, 192–212.
- Earley, P. C., & Gibson, C. B. (2002). *Multinational work teams: A new perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Routledge.
- Elenkov, D. S., & Manev, I. M. (2005). Top management leadership and influence on innovation: The role of sociocultural context. *Journal of Management*, *31*, 381–402.
- Erez, M., & Somech, A. (1996). Is group productivity loss the rule or the exception? Effects of culture and group-based motivation. *Academy of Management Journal*, *39*, 1513–1537.
- Freidman, T. (1999). *The Lexus and the Olive Tree*. New York: Farrar, Straus, & Giroux.
- Freidman, T. (2005). *The world is flat*. New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux.
- Furuya, N., Stevens, M. J., Bird, A., Oddou, G., & Mendenhall, M. (2009). Managing the learning and transfer of global management competence: Antecedents and outcomes of Japanese repatriation effectiveness. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *40*, 200–215.
- Gardner, W. L., Lowe, K. B., Moss, T. W., Mahoney, K. T., & Coglisier, C. C. (2010). Scholarly leadership of the study of leadership: A review of The Leadership Quarterly's second decade, 2000–2009. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *21*, 922–958.
- Gibson, C. B. (1999). Do they do what they believe they can? Group efficacy and group effectiveness across tasks and cultures. *Academy of Management Journal*, *42*, 138–152.
- Gibson, C. B., & Zellmer-Bruhn, M. E. (2001). Metaphors and meaning: An intercultural analysis of the concept of teamwork. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *46*, 274–303.

- Goffee, R., & Jones, G. (2000). Why should anyone be led by you? *Harvard Business Review*, 78, 62–70.
- Govindarajan, V., & Gupta, A. K. (2001, July 15). Building an effective global business team. MIT Sloan Management Review. Retrieved January 15, 2014, from <http://sloanreview.mit.edu/article/building-an-effective-global-business-team/>
- Graen, G. B., Hui, C., Wakabayashi, M., & Wang, Z. M. (1997). *Cross-cultural research alliances in organizational research: Cross-cultural partnership making in action. Cross-cultural research in industrial organizational psychology* (pp. 160–189). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Groves, K. S., & Feyerherm, A. E. (2011). Leader cultural intelligence in context testing the moderating effects of team cultural diversity on leader and team performance. *Group & Organization Management*, 36, 535–566.
- Gupta, A., & Govindarajan, V. (2002). Cultivating a global mindset. *Academy of Management Executive*, 16, 116–126.
- Gupta, V., & Hanges, P. J. (2004). Regional and climate clustering of societal cultures. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 societies* (pp. 669–719). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Guzzo, R. A., & Dickson, M. W. (1996). Teams in organizations: Recent research on performance and effectiveness. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 47, 307–338.
- Hajro, A., & Pudelko, M. (2010). An analysis of core-competences of successful multinational team leaders. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 10, 175–194.
- Hampden-Turner, C., & Trompenaars, F. (1997). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding diversity in global business*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hanges, P. J., & Dickson, M. W. (2006). Agitation over aggregation: Clarifying the development of and the nature of the GLOBE scales. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17, 522–536.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hong, Y. Y., Morris, M. W., Chiu, C. Y., & Benet-Martinez, V. (2000). Multicultural minds: A dynamic constructivist approach to culture and cognition. *American psychologist*, 55(7), 709.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A., Dorfman, P. W., Javidan, M., Dickson, M., et al. (1999). Cultural influences on leadership and organizations: Project GLOBE. *Advances in Global Leadership*, 1, 171–233.
- Jacobs, D., & Singell, L. (1993). Leadership and organizational performance: Isolating links between managers and collective success. *Social Science Research*, 22, 165–189.
- Jarvenpaa, S., & Leidner, D. (1999). Communication and trust in global virtual teams. *Organization Science*, 10, 791–815.
- Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., De Luque, M. S., & House, R. J. (2006). In the eye of the beholder: Cross cultural lessons in leadership from Project GLOBE. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20, 67–90.
- Javidan, M., Steers, R. M., & Hitt, M. A. (Eds.). (2007). *The global mindset*. Oxford, England: Elsevier Jai.
- Javidan, M., Teagarden, M., & Bowen, D. (2010). Making it overseas. *Harvard Business Review*, 88, 109–113.
- Joshi, A., Lazarova, M. B., & Liao, H. (2009). Getting everyone on board: The role of inspirational leadership in geographically dispersed teams. *Organization Science*, 20, 240–252.
- Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 755–767.
- Jung, D. I., & Avolio, B. J. (1999). Effects of leadership style and followers' cultural orientation on performance in group and individual task conditions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42, 208–218.

- Jung, D. I., Bass, B. M., & Sosik, J. J. (1995). Bridging leadership and culture: A theoretical consideration of transformational leadership and collectivistic cultures. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 2, 3–18.
- Kashima, Y., Kashima, E., Chiu, C., Farsides, T., Gelfand, M., Hong, Y., et al. (2005). Culture, essentialism, and agency: Are individuals universally believed to be more real entities than groups? *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 35, 147–169.
- Katzenbach, J. R., & Smith, D. K. (1993). *The discipline of teams*. Boston: Harvard Business Press.
- Kearney, E., & Gebert, D. (2009). Managing diversity and enhancing team outcomes: The promise of transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 77.
- Kirkman, B. L., Chen, G., Farh, J. L., Chen, Z. X., & Lowe, K. B. (2009). Individual power distance orientation and follower reactions to transformational leaders: A cross-level, cross-cultural examination. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52, 744–764.
- Kirkman, B. L., Rosen, B., Tesluk, P. E., & Gibson, C. B. (2004). The impact of team empowerment on virtual team performance: The moderating role of face-to-face interaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47, 175–192.
- Kirkman, B. L., & Shapiro, D. L. (1997). The impact of cultural values on employee resistance to teams: Toward a model of globalized self-managing work team effectiveness. *Academy of Management Review*, 22, 730–757.
- Kirkman, B. L., & Shapiro, D. L. (2001). The impact of cultural values on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in self-managing work teams: The mediating role of employee resistance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44, 557–569.
- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Bell, B. S. (2003). Work groups and teams in organizations. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology (Vol. 12): Industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 333–375). Wiley-Blackwell: New York.
- Krause, D. G. (1997). *The way of the leader*. New York: Berkley Publishing Group.
- Locke, E. A. (1999). *The essence of leadership: The four keys to leading successfully*. Lanham, MD: Lexington Books.
- Lonner, W. J. (1980). The search for psychological universals. *Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 1, 143–204.
- Lopez, P., & Ensari, N. (2013). Fostering multiculturally and internationally competent individuals and teams. In R. L. Lowman (Ed.), *Internationalizing multiculturalism: Expanding professional competencies in a globalized world* (pp. 173–198). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Lowe, K. B., & Gardner, W. L. (2000). Ten years of The Leadership Quarterly: Contributions and challenges for the future. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11, 459.
- Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7, 385–425.
- Malhotra, A., Majchrzak, A., & Rosen, B. (2007). Leading virtual teams. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 21, 60–70.
- Man, D. C., & Lam, S. K. (2003). The effects of job complexity and autonomy on cohesiveness in collectivistic and individualistic work groups: A cross-cultural analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24, 979–1001.
- Martin, G. S., Keating, M. A., Resick, C. J., Szabo, E., Kwan, H., & Peng, C. (2013). The meaning of leader integrity: A comparative study across Anglo, Asian, and Germanic cultures. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(3), 445–461.
- Mathieu, J., Maynard, M. T., Rapp, T., & Gilson, L. (2008). Team effectiveness 1997–2007: A review of recent advancements and a glimpse into the future. *Journal of Management*, 34, 410–476.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Schulze, W. (2006). The influence of team knowledge and formal plans on episodic team process-performance relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49, 605–619.
- Matveev, A. V., & Nelson, P. E. (2004). Cross cultural communication competence and multicultural team performance perceptions of American and Russian managers. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 4, 253–270.

- Maznevski, M. L., & Chui, C. (2012). Leading global teams. In M. E. Mendenhall et al. (Eds.), *Global leadership: Research, development, and practice* (2nd ed., pp. 141–162). New York: Routledge.
- Mendenhall, M. E. (2006). The elusive, yet critical challenge of developing global leaders. *European Management Journal*, *24*, 422–429.
- Mendenhall, M., & Osland, J. S. (2002, June). *An overview of the extant global leadership research*. Symposium presentation, Academy of International Business, Puerto Rico.
- Mendenhall, M. E., Osland, J. S., Bird, A., Oddou, G. R., & Maznevski, M. L. (2008). *Global leadership: Research, practice, and development*. New York: Routledge.
- Mendenhall, M. E., Reiche, B., Bird, A., & Osland, J. S. (2012). Defining the “global” in global leadership. *Journal of World Business*, *47*, 493–503.
- Milliken, F. J., & Martins, L. L. (1996). Searching for common threads: Understanding the multiple effects of diversity in organizational groups. *Academy of Management Review*, *21*, 402–433.
- Morris, M. W., Menon, T., & Ames, D. R. (2001). Culturally conferred conceptions of agency: A key to social perception of persons, groups, and other actors. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *5*, 169–182.
- Newman, K. L., & Nollen, S. D. (1996). Culture and congruence: The fit between management practices and national culture. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *27*, 753–779.
- Nummela, N., Saarenketo, S., & Puumalainen, K. (2004). A global mindset—A prerequisite for successful internationalization? *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, *21*, 51–64.
- Osland, J. S., Bird, A., Mendenhall, M., & Osland, A. (2006). Developing global leadership capabilities and global mindset: A review. In G. K. Stahl & I. Björkman (Eds.), *Handbook of research in international human resource management* (pp. 197–222). Cheltenham, England: Edward Elgar.
- Osland, J. S., Taylor, S., & Mendenhall, M. E. (2009). Global leadership: Progress and challenges. In R. S. Bhagat & R. M. Steers (Eds.), *Culture, organizations, and work* (pp. 245–271). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Peterson, M. F., & Hunt, J. G. J. (1997). International perspectives on international leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *8*, 203–231.
- Pfeffer, J., & Sutton, R. (2000). *The knowing–doing gap: How smart companies turn knowledge into action*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Podsakoff, P. M., Mackenzie, S. B., & Bommer, W. H. (1996). Transformational leader behaviors and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Management*, *22*, 259–298.
- Resick, C. J., Martin, G. S., Keating, M. A., Dickson, M. W., Kwan, H., & Peng, C. (2011). What ethical leadership means to me: Asian, American, and European perspectives. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *101*(3), 435–457.
- Rupp, D. E., Snyder, L. A., Gibbons, A., & Thornton, G. (2006). What should developmental assessment centers be developing? *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, *9*(2), 75–98.
- Salaman, G. (2004). Competences of managers, competences of leaders. In J. Storey (Ed.), *Leadership in organizations: Current issues and key trends* (pp. 58–78). London: Routledge.
- Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, *40*, 437–453.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1999). A theory of cultural values and some implications for work. *Applied Psychology*, *48*, 23–47.
- Schwartz, S. H. (2006). A theory of cultural value orientations: Explication and applications. *Comparative Sociology*, *5*(2–3), 137–182.
- Stanko, T. L., & Gibson, C. B. (2009). Virtuality here and now: The role of cultural elements in virtual teams. In R. S. Bhagat & R. M. Steers (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of culture, organization, and work* (pp. 272–304). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Steers, R. M., Sanchez-Runde, C., & Nardon, L. (2012). Leadership in a global context: New directions in research and theory development. *Journal of World Business*, *47*, 479–482.
- Steyrer, J., & Mende, M. (1994, July). *Transformational leadership: The local market success of Austrian branch bank managers and training applications*. Paper presented at the meeting of the International Congress of Applied Psychology, Madrid, Spain.
- Takala, T. (1998). Plato on leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *17*, 785–798.

Tann, R. (2013, February 25). Leading a global team: 4 Secrets from the ultimate virtual manager. The muse. Retrieved December 20, 2013, from <https://www.themuse.com/advice/leading-a-global-team-4-secrets-from-the-ultimate-virtual-manager>

Taras, V., Kirkman, B. L., & Steel, P. (2010). Examining the impact of culture’s consequences: A three-decade, multilevel, meta-analytic review of Hofstede’s cultural value dimensions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*, 405–439.

Thunderbird. (2008). *Global mindset inventory*. Phoenix, AZ: Garvin School of Business.

Trompenaars, F. (1993). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding cultural diversity in business*. Avon: The Bath Press.

Van Knippenberg, D., & Schippers, M. C. (2007). Work group diversity. *Annual Review of Psychology, 58*, 515–541.

Waldman, D., Bass, B. M., & Einstein, W. O. (1986). *Effort, performance and transformational leadership in industrial and military settings* (Working Paper 84-78). Binghamton: State University of New York.

Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management, 34*, 89–126.

Walumbwa, F. O., & Lawler, J. J. (2003). Building effective organizations: Transformational leadership, collectivist orientation, work-related attitudes and withdrawal behaviours in three emerging economies. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 14*, 1083–1101.

Walumbwa, F. O., Lawler, J. J., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). Leadership, individual differences, and work-related attitudes: A cross-culture investigation. *Applied Psychology, 56*, 212–230.

Yammarino, F. J., & Bass, B. M. (1990). Transformational leadership and multiple levels of analysis. *Human Relations, 43*, 975–995.

Yokochi, N. (1989). *Leadership styles of Japanese business executives and managers: Transformational and transactional*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, United States International University, San Diego, CA.

Yukl, G. A. (2012). *Leadership in organizations*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Zander, L., Mockaitis, A. I., & Butler, C. L. (2012). Leading global teams. *Journal of World Business, 47*, 592–603.

Chapter 10

Leadership for Global Virtual Teams: Facilitating Teamwork Processes

Dorothy R. Carter, Peter W. Seely, Joe Dagosta, Leslie A. DeChurch,
and Stephen J. Zaccaro

Two parallel trends shape the world of work today. First, due to the increasing competition and complexity of the global marketplace, organizational structures have shifted. Organizational boundaries are becoming more fluid, flatter team-based structures are becoming more common, and demand for collaboration is increasing exponentially (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). In these new contexts, effective leaders are not so much managers or controllers of follower behavior, as they are *orchestrators* of collaborative interactions. In fact, an eminent team's scholar argued recently that enabling team effectiveness involves creating the "facilitating conditions within which groups chart their own courses" (Hackman, 2012, p. 428). Second, communication and information infrastructures have become increasingly sophisticated, and thus, using *global, virtually linked* teams to address important issues has become the new norm.

Global virtual teams are teams comprised of individuals from various geographic locations and/or cultural backgrounds who rely on communication technology to interact with one another to some degree (Dixon & Panteli, 2010; Kirkman, Rosen, Gibson, Tesluk, & McPherson, 2002). Leadership for global virtual teams requires a careful consideration of the interplay among team member characteristics

D.R. Carter (✉) • P.W. Seely • L.A. DeChurch, Ph.D.
School of Psychology, Georgia Institute of Technology,
654 Cherry Street, Atlanta, GA 30332-0170, USA
e-mail: dorothy.carter@gatech.edu; pseely@gatech.edu; leslie.dechurch@psych.gatech.edu

J. Dagosta
Center for Education Integrating Science, Mathematics, and Computing, Georgia
Institute of Technology, 654 Cherry Street, Atlanta, GA 30332-0170, USA
e-mail: joe.dagosta@ceismc.gatech.edu

S.J. Zaccaro, Ph.D.
Department of Psychology, George Mason University,
4400 University Drive, Fairfax, VA 22030-4422, USA
e-mail: szaccaro@gmu.edu

(e.g., cultural backgrounds, nationalities, etc.), communication technologies, and teamwork dynamics. In this chapter, we discuss the unique challenges of leadership for global virtual teams.

As a starting point to understand leadership in global virtual teams, we consider four key developments in the science of team effectiveness as they apply to the virtual context: (a) team emergent states, (b) team phases, (c) teamwork processes, and (d) team leadership functions. *Team emergent states* are affective, cognitive, or motivational characteristics of the team as a whole that emerge and coalesce over time (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001). Across decades of research, affective team states such as trust, cognitive states such as shared mental models, and motivational states such as collective efficacy have been shown consistently to predict important team outcomes (Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008). *Team phases* are the performance episodes (i.e., transition, action) teams cycle through repeatedly as they work toward their objectives (Marks et al., 2001). *Team processes* are the behaviors members engage in during team performance phases that enable the development of team emergent states and team outcomes (Marks et al., 2001; Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005). Finally, *team leadership functions* are the critical leadership behaviors that help facilitate team success (Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001; Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004). From a functional leadership perspective, it is the leader's job to "do or get done whatever is not being handled for group needs" (McGrath, 1964, p. 5). Leadership functions help to facilitate team outcomes by encouraging optimal team emergent states and team processes across phases of team performance.

In the following, we consider the intersection of leadership and global virtual team dynamics. All teams—including those who rely heavily on communication technologies—need to develop effective team processes and appropriate cognitive, motivational, and affective emergent states. Thus, functional leadership behaviors should be directed toward facilitating these necessary states and processes (Zaccaro et al., 2001). However, emergent states require time and repeated interactions among members before emerging and coalescing at the team level (Kozlowski & Klein, 2001; Cronin, Weingart, & Todorova, 2011). In fact, it may not be feasible for team states such as trust or shared cognition to exist before members have experienced sufficient interaction with one another (Carter, Carter, & DeChurch, 2012). Thus, shaping the development of team psychological states such as trust begins by shaping the behavioral interactions among team members. For example, leaders can impact follower behavior by setting behavioral norms, providing training, or offering feedback to followers. The key to effective team leadership is to influence members' interaction processes so that *optimal emergent states* and team outcomes can be achieved (Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010; Zaccaro & DeChurch, 2012).

In this chapter we provide a roadmap for leading global virtual teams. First, we elaborate the importance of team emergent states, highlighting their relevance to team success and acknowledging that leadership is a prominent force to help facilitate their development. Second, we describe the interaction processes through which teams develop optimal emergent states and achieve their goals over time. We argue that leadership is needed that shapes team processes throughout the team

lifecycle, and thereby team emergent states and performance. In closing, we offer specific, research-based strategies to guide today's virtual team leaders in enabling optimal team processes. To illustrate these suggestions, we offer actual examples of how effective functional leadership has been manifested in global virtual teams.

Global Virtual Teams

Team-based work is an increasingly common means of accomplishing organizational tasks (Devine, Clayton, Philips, Dunford, & Melner, 1999). Work teams, defined as "groups of individuals with mutual accountability that work interdependently to solve problems or carry out work" now play a vital role in organizational effectiveness (Kirkman & Mathieu, 2005, p. 1). However, over recent decades, the nature of teamwork has become increasingly complex as members are now afforded the ability to communicate via a variety of communication technologies across geographic, cultural, and temporal boundaries (Contractor, Monge, & Leonardi, 2011). These developments have given rise to a new form of collective: the *global virtual team*.

Broadly speaking, global virtual teams are typified by two distinct characteristics: (1) the presence of members from different cultures (e.g., *global*) and (2) a reliance on communication technology to facilitate interaction (e.g., *virtual*). Given the dynamic and geographically distributed nature of teamwork in modern organizations, teams are increasingly composed of members from varying cultural backgrounds (Stahl, Makela, Zander, & Maznevski, 2010). Culture itself has been defined as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (Hofstede, 1983, p. 51). In the workplace, differences in culture often represent variations in how members view the nature of, and prefer to accomplish work. Therefore, understanding the *global* aspect of teamwork is critical for leaders.

The *virtual* aspect of global virtual teams reflects the fact that members of global teams often utilize communication technology to interact. Team scholars have investigated the relation between teams and technology use through the lens of "virtuality" (Martins, Gilson, & Maynard, 2004). Virtuality is the extent to which team members rely on and utilize communication tools to facilitate their interactions (Schweitzer & Duxbury, 2010). Theoretical work in this area supports the notion that teams can be placed along a continuum of virtuality (e.g., Gibson & Gibbs, 2006; Kirkman & Mathieu, 2005; Leenders, Engelen, & Krazter, 2003). In part, the degree to which the communication technologies teams rely on are asynchronous determines their level of virtuality. Whereas synchronous interactions occur in real time, asynchronous communication implies some time lag (Kirkman & Mathieu, 2005; Pinelle, Dyck, & Gutwin, 2003). At one extreme end of the virtuality spectrum (i.e., less virtual) teams operate in a collocated environment and rely primarily on synchronous communication technologies to facilitate their work processes. The other end of the spectrum (i.e., highly virtual) reflects teams that may never interact in a face-to-face context and rely primarily on "less personal" or "asynchronous"

communication technology, such as email or chat, to conduct work (Kirkman & Mathieu, 2005). As such, teams who are geographically distributed but rely heavily on tools such as videoconferencing, which closely mimics face-to-face interaction, might be considered “less virtual” than those who are similarly geographically distributed but rely primarily on asynchronous communication modalities. Moreover, “global virtual teams,” comprised of members that are, to some degree, geographically dispersed and culturally diverse, may rely to varying extents on virtual technologies for collaboration.

Global virtual work offers teams and organizations a variety of benefits. The global aspect of global virtual work is associated with a variety of advantages. Members from different cultures possess many unique perspectives regarding how to accomplish tasks (Stahl et al., 2010). Therefore, multicultural teams have the ability to evaluate a range of perspectives when selecting the most effective course of action. Moreover, members from different cultures have access to different resources (Mannix & Neale, 2005). Global teams may leverage these varied resource pools to facilitate teamwork.

Likewise, virtual communication tools allow organizations to assemble teams comprised of individuals with relevant expertise regardless of their geographic location, while also supporting individuals who work from home (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). The use of communication technology in lieu of face-to-face interaction results in lower costs incurred to the organization over time, more flexible patterns of communication among team members, and the potential for more structured group discussion through the use of tools such as group discussion boards (Bergiel, Bergiel, & Balsmeier, 2008; Abad, Castella, Cuenca, & Navarro, 2002). Often, the functionality of many communication tools transcends the capabilities of face-to-face interaction. For instance, email provides an electronic repository of all correspondence, enabling instant retrieval. Thus, specific virtual tools can help facilitate particular patterns of team interaction.

Although there are many benefits to global virtual teams, there are also many challenges that accompany these complex contexts. Previous literature suggests that cultural differences among team members are associated with increased communication problems and decreased trust (Stahl et al., 2010). Multicultural teams have also demonstrated difficulties in establishing a team identity and social cohesiveness (Martins, Miliken, Wiesenfeld, & Salgado, 2003). Although high variety in perspectives may benefit team creativity, team cultural diversity has also been found to increase team conflict (Watson, Kumar, & Michaelson, 1993).

Furthermore, a high reliance on communication tools has been shown to lead to a loss of mutual understanding, which in turn, can hinder the development of team cohesion and a shared group identity (Gibson & Gibbs, 2006; Hertel, Geister, & Konradt, 2005). Virtual teams are likely to experience logistical issues arising from technological breakdowns or collaboration across multiple time zones (Olson & Olson, 2000; Bergiel et al., 2008). Finally, the distribution of information across multiple communication technologies may confuse team members if communication norms have not been established (Shachaf, 2008).

The Solution: Functional Leadership

The many challenges of global virtual teams beg the question: how can teams overcome the challenges of global virtual teamwork while reaping the potential benefits? We begin with an idea put forth by Kaiser, Hogan, and Craig (2008): “leaders are the solution to the problem of collective effort, the problem of bringing people together and combining their efforts to promote success and survival” (p. 96). Leadership can be a pivotal force for driving the success of global virtual teams.

Leadership theory offers many perspectives on the behaviors, traits, and relationships that characterize the core phenomenon of leadership. One perspective that is particularly appropriate for conceptualizing team leadership is that of functional leadership theory (McGrath, 1962; Lord, 1977). The functional approach specifies that leadership is intimately coupled with creating and sustaining systemic needs. With this view as our lens, understanding leadership functions in global virtual teams begins with a concrete understanding of what conditions leaders need to create and maintain—a general understanding of what constitutes “team effectiveness.”

Models of Team Effectiveness

Foundational work by McGrath (1964) posited that team effectiveness was best understood via the input-process-output (IPO) framework. This basic model argues that inputs such as leadership, team composition, or resources shape teamwork processes, which, in turn, shape outputs such as team performance. In other words, this model suggests that leadership (an input) impacts team outcomes by shaping the types of teamwork processes members engage in.

More recent theoretical work argues that this original model failed to account for differences in the types of factors that mediate the relationship between inputs and outputs (Ilgen et al., 2005; Marks et al., 2001; Kozlowski, Gully, Nason, & Smith, 1999). Ilgen et al. (2005) offered the input-mediator-output-input (IMOI) model that disentangles various mediators of team performance—distinguishing between classes of mechanisms such as team *emergent states* and *team processes* (Algesheimer, Dholakia, & Gurau, 2011; Marks et al., 2001). Whereas processes are the dynamic interactions that occur among group members as they work toward group goals, emergent states reflect psychological properties of the team as a whole that emerge and coalesce at the team level over time (Marks et al., 2001). Both of these classes of constructs are vital to team success. Thus, effective leadership involves facilitating both properties and processes in teams (Zaccaro et al., 2001). In the following, we list the broad objectives that team leaders need to address (i.e., team emergent states and performance). Then, we provide specific suggestions for how global virtual team leaders address these goals (i.e., by facilitating team processes).

Team Emergent States

Emergent states are cognitive, motivational, and affective properties of a collective (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006; Marks et al., 2001). These states describe conditions that enable and underlie team effectiveness. Across decades of research, findings consistently support the importance of all three classes of emergent states on team performance (Mathieu et al., 2008).

Cognitive emergent states refer to “the manner in which knowledge important to team functioning is mentally organized, represented, and distributed within the team” (DeChurch & Mesmer-Magnus, 2010, p. 33). Cognitive emergent states help team members anticipate other members’ actions and synchronize collective behaviors (DeChurch & Mesmer-Magnus, 2010; Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). Researchers have identified shared mental models and transactive memory systems as key cognitive state constructs that contribute to team’s performance (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). Shared mental models reflect knowledge or understandings that members have in common. Transactive memory systems (TMS; Lewis, 2003) constitute an emergent cognitive state in teams whereby all members hold in common an understanding of the pattern of unique information that is distributed across team members (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006).

A recent meta-analysis finds both forms of cognition are strong predictors of team performance, though transactive memory has stronger effects than does shared cognition (DeChurch & Mesmer-Magnus, 2010). In virtual teams, we expect this difference in magnitude to be even stronger. Members of virtual teams lack a commonly shared context and the nature of their task is often to combine distinct sets of knowledge. TMSs—the shared awareness of where knowledge is located within the team—are thus a central cognitive underpinning of virtual collaboration. An accumulating body of evidence suggests that developing accurate TMS allows teams to reap the benefits of distributed expertise; TMS relates to team performance in the laboratory and in real-world organizations (e.g., Lewis, 2003; Hollingshead, 2001, Moreland, 1999). Leadership is needed to architect these knowledge structures in virtual teams. In other words, a key goal of leadership in virtual teams is to help members identify one another’s specialized expertise and understand how the constellation of members’ unique knowledge and skillsets can interweave to reach group objectives.

Motivational emergent states reflect team members’ shared beliefs about the team’s capacity to perform effectively (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). Collective efficacy has been linked to performance and viability in teams (Gully, Incalcaterra, Joshi, & Beaubien, 2002). Teams with strong beliefs about their capacity exert more effort toward the task. Researchers have suggested that team efficacy emerges from interactions among team members, as well as through the development of shared cognition (Gibson, 1999). Thus, the development of collective efficacy in highly global virtual teams may be particularly challenging given the limited amount of time available for interactions among members. A key goal for virtual team leaders, therefore, is to facilitate development of collective efficacy.

Affective emergent states (e.g., trust, cohesion) are an important aspect of work in collective settings, particularly virtual collectives, as studies have linked affective states such as trust or cohesion to cooperative behavior and the sharing of knowledge (e.g., Gully, Devine, & Whitney, 2012; Mayer, Davis, & Shoorman, 1995). For example, in team settings, high levels of trust among members positively impacts team performance (Jones & George, 1998) and may encourage members to devote more attention to the task at hand and less attention to monitoring other members (Dirks, 1999). Research suggests that, in virtual settings, establishing trust immediately (e.g., swift trust) among team members is vital when navigating the dynamic and potentially uncertain nature of virtual work (Crisp & Jarvenpaa, 2013; Zolin, Hinds, Fruchter, & Levitt, 2004). The establishment of trust enables each member to accept a certain degree of vulnerability when accomplishing virtual work.

In sum, leadership of teams—and of global virtual teams in particular—involves the careful monitoring and development of team cognitive, motivational, and affective emergent states. Importantly, team emergent states can also serve as an important diagnostic of team functioning—with sudden detriments in trust or collective efficacy acting as indicators of underlying problems in the teamwork processes members are engaging in as they work together.

Team Processes: Key Antecedents of Team Emergent States and Outcomes

As opposed to the psychological properties that characterize teams (i.e., emergent states), team processes are observable interactions among team members (Marks et al., 2001). Over the course of the team task, the patterns of these interactions shape the development of shared cognitive, affective, and motivational states, and eventual team outcomes (e.g., team performance). However, some team processes are more relevant during certain periods of time than others.

In 2001, Marks et al. shifted how researchers think about time in teams. Moving away from the linear progression-based view of teams as progressing from their formation to dissolution (Tuckman, 1965), Marks et al. (2001) contended that teams could be better understood in terms of repeating performance episodes. A performance episode is a period of time that is specific to the type of team and its task; the episode is defined in terms of the team's goals. Each episode has two distinguishable periods of activity: a *transition phase*, where members set goals, plan, and analyze, and an *action phase*, where they coordinate, monitor information, provide backup, and track goals. These phases are referred to as subepisodes of performance. Performance can be gauged at the end of each action phase.

Within this conceptualization of team performance phases, Marks et al. (2001) introduced a taxonomy of teamwork processes that are important during the transition and action phases of team performance. Marks et al. (2001) classified these team interactions as: (a) team transition processes (i.e., occurring within the transition phases), (b) team action processes (i.e., occurring within the action

phases), and (c) team interpersonal processes (i.e., occurring throughout both transition and action phases). A recent meta-analysis convincingly demonstrates that these team processes have consistent positive relationships with important team outcomes such as team performance and member satisfaction (LePine, Piccolo, Jackson, Mathieu, & Saul, 2008).

Leadership for Global Virtual Team Processes

As mentioned earlier, adopting a functional approach to understanding leadership in teams involves diagnosing team needs and then identifying how leadership can best meet those needs. Building on the notion that leadership needs to facilitate effective team processes across phases of team performance, Morgeson et al. (2010) offered a concise list of critical team leadership behaviors. In this section, we link the leadership functions identified by Morgeson et al. (2010) to the global virtual team context to depict how today's leaders can help create the conditions needed for global virtual team success (see Table 10.1 for a summary).

To better illustrate effective leadership in global virtual contexts, we provide actual examples of leadership interactions observed in a large-scale study of global virtual teams (see Table 10.2). Over the course of 12 weeks, 30 student teams worked together on a complex innovation challenge as part of their course grade. Each team was comprised of one leadership subteam and three "expert" subteams from three different areas of expertise (i.e., psychology, ecology, business). The component subteams in the global teams were located at one of three participating universities in one of two countries (United States, France). These global systems are appropriate for demonstrating the challenges of virtual leadership for at least two key reasons. First, members were geographically distributed, hailed from different cultural and national backgrounds, and had to communicate with one another using virtual collaboration tools (e.g., videoconferencing, email, etc.). Thus, all example interactions included in the current chapter reflect interactions across communication technology. Second, the leadership teams in these global systems did not have any "legitimate power" (Finkelstein, 1992) over the expert teams. In other words, members of the leadership subteams could not "fire" or "officially sanction" members of other subteams in the system. Instead, members of the leadership subteams had to rely on other modes of persuasion in order to enforce desired norms and expectations. As global virtual teams are increasingly composed of experts from around the world who are assembled based on their unique expertise to solve complex problems, leadership is becoming less about asserting one's power and more about facilitating collaboration.

In the following, for each of the phases that teams cycle through, we describe the critical leadership functions that enable effective teamwork processes. We discuss how formal leaders of highly global virtual teams might enact these functions in the virtual context and provide specific suggestions based on current literature and our example global virtual teams. These additional tips for virtual team leaders are

summarized in Table 10.1. An important caveat is that transition/action performance phases and processes may be enacted differently depending upon the cultural composition of the team. Research suggests cultural differences in the manner in which individuals subjectively experience and allocate their time (Gentry, 1991). For example, individuals from Western cultures tend to prefer to take on one task at a time and to work in a linear fashion (Hall, 1959; 1976). This orientation is consistent with the linear/cyclical nature of the transition—action performance phase

Table 10.1 Leadership functions for global virtual teams

	Team leadership functions	Additional tips for leaders of global virtual teams
Transition	“ <i>Making the team</i> ”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Capitalize on the virtual context by selecting members who are highly qualified regardless of geographic location
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Compose team 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Balance member expertise with team-friendly characteristics (e.g., psychological collectivism) and training (e.g., cross-cultural competencies)
	“ <i>Setting the course</i> ”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Especially during initial transition phases, clear directive leadership can help establish a compelling mission or purpose for the diverse and distributed team
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establish team mission 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establish and convey a clear and compelling vision that encourages a shared team identity across virtual boundaries
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Set goals and expectations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establish virtual “rules of engagement” by collectively creating a global virtual team charter. Facilitate discussion of differences in working styles, virtual communication tool usage, time zone differences, etc., and collective agreement on how best to accomplish the team task given specific constraints
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Structure and plan 	
	“ <i>Building the skills</i> ”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensure comprehensive training on the usage of virtual communication tools—tailored for the technological skill levels of team members
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Train and develop 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide additional training on the appropriate usage of virtual communication tools—richer communication tools (e.g., videoconferencing) for important planning meetings, less rich communication tools (e.g., email) for day-to-day activities Ensure comprehensive cross-cultural competence training/awareness
	“ <i>Communicating</i> ”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Leaders should be highly skilled at communicating across asynchronous communication tools (e.g., email)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sensemaking/giving 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learn to match the message (e.g., negative feedback) to the richness of the communication platform (e.g., face-to-face vs. email)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feedback 		

(continued)

Table 10.1 (continued)

	Team leadership functions	Additional tips for leaders of global virtual teams
Action	<i>“Observing and questioning”</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Streamline communication technology (e.g., all project interactions posted to a team project message board rather than email)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Monitor team Challenge team 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reinforce norms and expectations to enable a sense of trust among members and between leaders and followers
	<i>“Doing the work”</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clarify team boundaries—these may be confusing in virtual contexts
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perform team task 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Continuously seek information—virtual team members may be reluctant to express concerns, problems
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Solve problems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use project management software platforms that allow members to post status updates
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Host periodic teleconference or videoconference meetings that provide a forum to discuss status updates, team needs, etc.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Manage team boundaries 	
Interpersonal	<i>“Keeping it positive”</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Host “virtual get-togethers” over technology platforms such as videoconferencing that enable richer interactions
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Support positive social climate 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Offer “virtual rewards” and recognition of team member successes during virtual meetings
	<i>“Encouraging information flow”</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Foster open and unique information exchange processes, but recognize that in less virtual contexts, promote unique information sharing; whereas, in more distributed interactions, teams need leadership that enables open information sharing
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Information sharing 	
	<i>“Sharing the responsibility”</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Shared leadership benefits virtual team performance, but face-to-face teams are more likely to develop shared leadership than are virtual teams. Therefore, formal leaders need to directly intervene by identifying opportunities to delegate leadership functions and encouraging members to monitor and self-correct
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encourage team self-management 		

model discussed by Marks et al. (2001). However, individuals from Latin American and European cultures are less likely to adhere to strict, linear performance schedules and instead undertake multiple tasks at once (Hall, 1959; 1976). Thus, these individuals may be more comfortable accomplishing their taskwork by enacting transition and action phase behaviors simultaneously and/or over a longer period of time. Effective leaders are often those who are closely attuned to the preferences and abilities of their followers. Thus, for global virtual teams, leaders need to assess the preferences of their team and modify their leadership behaviors depending on whether transition and action processes are enacted simultaneously or sequentially (see Table 10.1 and Table 10.2).

Table 10.2 Examples of effective leader communications in global virtual teams

	Leadership behaviors	Example leader communications representing effective functional leadership
Transition	“Making the team” “Setting the course” “Building the skills” “Communicating”	“Let’s begin a discussion topic in the project management software with an introduction discussion. This will be a venue for everyone from the various groups. Each member of our team could write a short bio introducing ourselves” “The charter will help us define our group roles and how we want to structure our...group” “Let’s start our meeting with an inspirational quote on the shared whiteboard. This will help rev up (the team) and motivate them” “I just wanted to give you guys a heads up of expectations for our next meeting” “I think if you could come up with two ideas (maybe three max) and some ideas for ways of attacking them, then in our next meeting we should all be able to discuss them and come up with a group decision” “We encourage everyone to log into the meeting at least 10 min early to ensure we can all begin on time and resolve any login issues prior to the start time” “I will rely on you both for dealing with scheduling the virtual meetings and the note-taking” “Just a reminder, when contacting all of the team members, it will be important that we follow the guidelines that we set forth in our initial team charter” “In order to prepare the team members, we have attached an agenda outlining our goals and what to expect during our first meeting”
Action	“Observing and questioning” “Doing the work”	“I would like to create a HELP discussion board where anybody can go on and ask questions about anything (i.e., technology, roles, etc.) and get support from our leadership team” “Please remember to report your stats on the ‘status spreadsheet.’ That way we can monitor the team progress and know where everyone stands. Or, just send me an email telling me your status and I will post it for you!” “I think it will be great if we can share the specific challenges our teams faced during this week’s tasks. This will give each of us greater insights into the progress that was made within each team and how any challenges were resolved” “I have done a lot of research into this...I am quite happy to assist you guys at any time” “Please visit this link. This website has very direct information addressing the issues that we are facing and provides a great resource for us while we’re generating a solution” “This is the time when you need to get really involved and focus on the needs of the team and what they need to succeed. Make sure you find out exactly what they need”

(continued)

Table 10.2 (continued)

	Leadership behaviors	Example leader communications representing effective functional leadership
Interpersonal	“Keeping it positive” “Encouraging information flow” “Sharing the responsibility”	“We (the leaders) offered to all the team members that they can meet with the leaders and help design a structure” “I am confident that we covered everything we needed to and am very excited about our progress!” “I think everyone had fabulous ideas and it was a very productive meeting” “We ask you all to try to show up at the virtual meeting and please try to communicate with the team about your progress and share your inventive ideas. The team is counting on every single one of you!”

Leadership for Global Virtual Team Transition Processes

As noted earlier, transition phases are performance episodes during which teams focus on the evaluation and/or planning activities that guide mission accomplishment in subsequent action phases. During transition phases, teams need to analyze their task, environment, resources, and membership. These processes involve identifying the team’s mission and the task requirements for mission accomplishment. Teams also need to develop plans and set and prioritize team goals. The following leadership functions help provide clarity and guidance during these important strategic phases.

“Making the team.” Decades of research on employee selection (McDaniel, Hartman, Whetzel, & Grubb, 2007; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998) and team composition (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003) show that choosing the right people—and the right mix of people—for the job is a critical first step toward facilitating team success. Thus, Morgeson et al. (2010) argue that *composing the team* is the first leadership function needed during initial team transition periods. This function refers to identifying the necessary characteristics of individuals for the job at hand and assembling the actual team. Importantly, highly virtual teams are often more fluid as compared to face-to-face teams (Kirkman, Gibson, & Kim, 2012) with members entering and leaving the team as task demands and environmental contingencies shift over time. Thus, leaders may need to revert to this “step 1” multiple times throughout the lifecycle of the team.

There are two key aspects involved in identifying the necessary characteristics of potential team members that should be considered in virtual team contexts (Morgeson et al., 2010). First, it is important for leaders to align individual attributes and characteristics with the team task requirements. This refers to choosing members with appropriate skill sets, personality traits, and backgrounds. The second aspect is assembling a team of members who can collaborate effectively with one another. Whereas a virtual context might facilitate the first of these two aspects, the second may be more challenging.

Virtual collaboration tools allow organizations to assemble teams that include members who are distributed around the world. In other words, virtual tools remove the traditional constraint of assembling team members who are colocated, instead enabling managers and leaders to assemble individuals whose expertise is best suited for the job, regardless of their geographic location. However, the second element of team composition, assembling individuals who are able to work together effectively, may be more difficult in virtual environments. When managers try to capitalize on the virtual environment by selecting members with the best characteristics for the job (who are often distributed globally), teams are often assembled that are composed of highly diverse members lacking shared context or backgrounds. Research on team diversity—the degree to which teams are composed of individuals that are diverse in terms of surface (e.g., gender, ethnicity) and deep-level (e.g., personality, cultural background) characteristics shows that high levels of diversity can lead to increased conflict (Thatcher & Patel, 2012), decreased trust (van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007), and can create invisible divides among members. Thus, whereas virtual team leaders should attempt to capitalize on the virtual context by selecting members who are highly qualified (regardless of their geographic location) they should also try to balance member expertise with team-friendly characteristics (e.g., psychological collectivism) and training (e.g., cross-cultural competencies).

“Setting the course.” Morgeson et al. (2010) argue that leadership during transition phases involves three key visionary functions that develop a shared purpose, plan, and structure for the team: (1) *define team mission*, (2) *establish expectations and goals*, and (3) *structure and plan*. The first of these visionary functions is to define a team mission (Morgeson et al., 2010). It is important that the team mission is compelling, challenging enough to motivate and energize team members, and clearly described so that members understand where they should be directing their efforts (Hackman, 2002, 2012). Research suggests that teams are better able to self-manage when someone (e.g., a formal team leader) provides a clear direction toward which the team should orient itself (Hackman, 2002). Second, the process of setting the course also involves identifying and communicating clear *goals* for the team that can be broken down into tangible and actionable pieces (Morgeson et al., 2010). This leadership function often involves much more active involvement of team members, with formal leaders and team members interactively developing their own goals. In other words, once the overarching mission has been clearly defined and conveyed to team members, leaders should develop and communicate clear expectations for how to accomplish the mission (Morgeson et al., 2010). Finally, the structuring and planning leadership function involves determining how goal achievement will be accomplished (e.g., the method), how work will be distributed among members (e.g., role clarification), and the temporal aspects of the work (e.g., timing, scheduling).

Developing and establishing shared missions and plans are essential processes during transition periods. However, team members of highly virtual teams who are distributed geographically lack a shared context, jeopardizing team identity and

making it difficult for teams to align perspectives and agree on a plan of action. Given that members in global virtual teams may hail from different national or cultural backgrounds, members' perceptions of what constitutes a valid strategy or plan may differ dramatically (Rasmussen, Sieck, & Smart, 2009). The likely disparity among members' perceptions highlights the need for enhanced member interaction in virtual settings to facilitate shared understanding during planning. Unfortunately, due to logistical constraints, global virtual teams frequently experience a dearth of opportunities for interaction resulting in difficulties in establishing a unified sense of purpose. Thus, strong directive leadership is needed during initial transition phases to overcome the interaction challenges presented by virtual environments and ensure that members are aligned toward a common mission.

To effectively "set the course" global virtual teams, leaders need to first provide an *inspiring* vision and/or goal for the team (Zander, Mockaitis, & Butler, 2012). Providing an inspiring vision implies developing and articulating a captivating idea for the team. Inspirational leaders that clearly articulate an inspiring and compelling vision link multicultural and globally diverse team members to a common purpose, enabling team commitment and trust (Joshi, Lazarova, & Liao, 2009). Second, leaders need to direct the process of making expectations, goals, and processes explicit. One promising way for a global virtual team leader to help clarify expectations for all members is to implement a team charter during initial transition phases. Team charters are written plans for task accomplishment and teamwork that teams develop collectively (Mathieu & Rapp, 2009). High-quality teams charters contain specific guidelines for future team interactions and facilitate team performance (Norton & Sussman, 2009) by establishing norms for behavior that reduce conflict and cognitive strain in later team performance phases (Asencio, Carter, DeChurch, Zaccaro, & Fiore, 2012). Certainly, the team leader should set some clear expectations for the team during this process. However, completing a team charter allows for a specific time for teams to discuss their particular working styles and come to an agreement collectively regarding how best to accomplish the task. For global virtual settings, leaders might direct teams to discuss how communication tools will be used and how differences in time zones and working preferences will be handled.

"Building the skills." Morgeson et al. (2010) posit that another critical leadership function is to detect inadequacies in the team's functioning and capabilities and address these inadequacies by *training and developing* the team. These deficits may be relevant to the individual skill sets of the team members or the inability of the team to work together as a collective. Inadequacies in either of these areas can be highly detrimental to the success of the team. Therefore, upon identification, deficiencies should be utilized to inform the training and development of relevant member and team skills. Training should revolve around both instruction and demonstration relevant to the skill of interest and ensure the maintenance of these skills by providing members with organizational resources that serve as a future reference.

Training and development are especially vital for global virtual team success. As indicated previously, leaders of highly virtual teams might not be able to interact with geographically distributed team members as frequently as they would if they were colocated. Accordingly, it is essential that team members receive relevant and

effective training at the beginning of team formation so that they are able to function independently.

Two forms of training are particularly relevant to global virtual teams: technology training and cultural-competence training. First, members of highly virtual teams will likely conduct the majority of their work utilizing an array of technologies. However, team members may have different levels of experience with technology. Therefore, leaders of global virtual teams should ensure comprehensive training regarding the functionality and utilization of these tools. Communication underlies all essential team processes. Research suggests that conflict and breakdowns in virtual teamwork contexts is managed more effectively when members use their communication technology appropriately (e.g., Poole, Holmes, & DeSanctis, 1991). Moreover, for globally distributed teams, communication technology competence can make all the difference for team success.

It is important to note that technological training should be tailored to match the skill levels of the different members of the team. Training should also include guidelines for the circumstances in which each of the available technologies is most appropriate (Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000). For example, research suggests that virtual teams are most effective when they rely on richer communication mediums (e.g., face-to-face meetings, videoconferencing) to conduct important large-scale planning meetings, but rely on less rich communication mediums (e.g., email, chat) to conduct day-to-day activities. This is a clear situation in which leaders should “lead by example” by demonstrating the appropriate use of virtual communication tools.

Second, global virtual teamwork requires members to adapt their normal working behavior to account for the challenges of both virtuality and cultural differences. Likely, multicultural teams are composed of members with varying work habits, communication styles, and opinions on social issues and what constitutes appropriate team interaction (Harris & Moran, 1991; Lee & Templer, 2003). In global virtual teams, these differences may be unexpected initially, and members might miss the nuances and implications of differences altogether due to the challenges of communicating across virtual tools. For example, members may differ in their interpretation and comfort with silence (Anawati & Craig, 2006). Whereas members of some cultures may be frustrated with those who do not “speak-up” during teleconferences, others may be frustrated that they were not “asked to speak up.” Thus, leaders of highly diverse virtual connected teams may wish to implement cross-cultural competence or awareness training during initial phases of team performance to reduce potential sources of conflict in later phases that are due to unexpected behaviors. Certainly, the content of cross-cultural competence or awareness training will need to correspond to the team context and the specific composition of members. Gaining cross-cultural competency is often an experiential process (e.g., spending time in a different country than one’s own) that may be time consuming and is often situation specific. However, a general goal of this type of training is to allow the individual to gain interaction skills that are effective not only within his or her own in-group but also with members of other groups (e.g., nationalities, geographic locations, organizations, etc.; Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Leaders of highly diverse virtual teams may wish to include extended discussions of social norms and desired behavioral

patterns in during initial team meetings. Like members' general working styles and preferred uses for communication tools, other behavioral norms that may vary by culture could be made explicit during the *team charter* development.

Moreover, recent work suggests that in the global virtual team context, team training that only addresses technology competency yields teams who are no more likely to their communication than those teams who have not received training at all. However, global virtual teams who receive a combination of both technology and cross-cultural competency training are more likely to adapt their communications to appropriately fit the situation (Anawati & Craig, 2006). Thus, leaders must help teams gain the skills needed to reconcile both the challenges of virtual work and the challenges of cross-cultural work. An important first step for leaders is to obtain information regarding members' cultural backgrounds, time constraints, terminology (e.g., slang, colloquialisms, jargon), and communication preferences. Subsequently, the leader should work with his or her subordinates to develop a training program that educates both the leader and followers about their respective cultures (Earley & Peterson, 2004). This training should enable the leader and team members to address and accommodate cultural differences when engaging in taskwork.

“Communicating.” Many different types of events occur throughout the lifecycle of a team that can fundamentally alter its ability to succeed. Thus, leaders need to identify significant events, evaluate the impact they will have on team functioning, and relay this information to the team (Morgeson et al., 2010). In fact, leader communication is such a critical leadership behavior that some scholars have proffered “communication competency” as an alternative conceptualization of leadership itself (Barge & Hirokawa, 1989). There are several key leadership behaviors under the heading of leadership communication. First, leader *sense making* and *sense giving* involves anticipating the impact an event may have on the team and preparing the team to process and adapt to this novel experience (Zaccaro et al., 2001). Accordingly, this function allows members to remain engrossed in their taskwork while the leader serves as a mediator between the team and the surrounding context. Moreover, sense making facilitates the team's understanding of the impact of proximate events on team functioning. In virtual environments, leader sense making and sense giving skills may be even more critical. For example, Zander et al. (2012) argue that leaders must be highly skilled in communicating across asynchronous communication tools such as email or message boards that do not enable real-time feedback.

Second, team leaders need to periodically provide *feedback to team members* with regard to their teamwork, strategies, and goal progress. Feedback provides a primary input needed for the regulation, maintenance, and functioning of the team over time (Morgeson et al., 2010; Katz & Kahn, 1978). However, the global virtual team environment creates additional challenges for leader feedback. Members may differ in the degree to which they respond to direct negative feedback. Virtual tools may limit the degree to which messages are likely to be interpreted correctly. Research suggests that managers who match their message (e.g., negative feedback) to the richness of the communication tool are perceived as more effective than managers who do not (Daft, Lengel, & Trevino, 1987). Whereas a less rich communication

medium such as email or message boards may be sufficient for sending a generic team “update” message, sending a message containing negative feedback on a team member’s performance may require a richer medium (e.g., videoconferencing).

Leadership for Global Virtual Team Action Processes

Immediately following transition phases, teams move into action phases where the basic requirements of the task are enacted. Action phases are those periods of time in which team behaviors are tied directly to team performance. Team behaviors typifying action phases are termed team action processes. These processes include coordination behaviors, backup behaviors, monitoring goals, and monitoring the operating environment. All are important leverage points for team leadership.

Coordination is the timing and sequencing of joint actions. Global virtual teams often manage shared resources (e.g., information) in virtual repositories, requiring careful coordination. Multidisciplinary multicultural virtual teams have particularly strong coordination needs. Coordination is the mechanism through which members with different expertise and knowledge dovetail their insights with those with other expertise. Backup behavior is another essential team process during action phases (Porter et al., 2003). Here team members monitor one another’s performance and provide assistance when necessary. Teams engage in back up behavior by shuffling responsibilities within the team, altering their plans, and finding new ways to perform the overall task in light of performance gaps of particular members. Finally, monitoring the operating environment (including other team members) and the team’s progress toward goals is necessary both to ensure appropriate goal progress and stay abreast of new challenges as well as to be able to appropriately coordinate activities and provide backup to other members. Members are unlikely to provide backup without knowing that other members are in need of assistance. Because of the complexities of the virtual environment, teams may struggle to engage in effective action processes. Morgeson et al. (2010) specified several leadership functions that help teams to do so. Here, we extrapolate these leadership functions to the virtual environment.

“Observing and questioning.” First, throughout team performance, leaders *monitor team activities* to ensure the team functions and performs effectively (Morgeson et al., 2010). Monitoring is a vital leadership function as it serves as the foundation to many other leadership functions (e.g., providing feedback, sense making, challenging the team). Enacting effective team monitoring behavior invokes additional leadership behaviors such as clarifying relevant strategies and plans, obtaining task-relevant information from members, and offering assistance. Aspects of the team that should be monitored include the available resources, the surrounding environment, the team’s progress toward task completion, and individual member performance.

Typically, leaders of teams operating in a face-to-face context are physically present and observing task-relevant behavior in real time. Monitoring and challenging a highly virtual team, on the other hand, invokes a variety of unique considerations. Often, global virtual teams use a variety of technologies to accomplish task-relevant

work. Thus, virtual team monitoring is inherently more complex given that members can interact and work via a number of different communication modalities. Virtual team leaders are thus confronted with obtaining critical information regarding resource availability, task progress, and member performance from a variety of different sources, and synthesizing this knowledge to inform monitoring behavior.

To more effectively keep track of the myriad incoming information in global virtual teams, one recommendation for virtual team leaders is to streamline technology use. For example, some scholars suggest relying on team collaboration software such as message boards for team projects rather than back-and-forth email chains (Kirkman et al., 2012). This type of software enables a concise repository of the majority of team behavior and an easily accessible resource for leaders to monitor the team.

First Morgeson et al. (2010) posit that the degree to which team leaders *challenge the team* plays a key role in sustaining collective motivation. This leadership function involves continuously evaluating team processes and performance in order to ensure effective team behavior. Moreover, it serves to avoid member complacency by consistently challenging the status quo (Pearce & Sims, 2002). Leaders that challenge the team facilitate a line of thinking that revolves around continually questioning the present course of action in comparison with other methods of accomplishing taskwork. Encouraging this persistent reevaluation of processes and performance has been shown to enhance team innovation (Dackert, Loov, & Martensson, 2004).

It is important to note that the process of challenging team members' present course of action may prove relatively more difficult for leaders or followers from cultures with high power distance. Power distance, as defined by Hofstede (1983), refers to the extent to which an individual accepts unequal power distributions between leaders and subordinates in organizational settings. High power distance individuals, often originating from Eastern cultures, tend to defer to authority figures and view leaders as superior (Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009). On the other hand, low power distance individuals are less likely to view leaders as superior and are more likely to develop personal relationships with their supervisors (Kirkman et al., 2009). Importantly, subordinates from cultures with higher power distance are likely to be uncomfortable in evaluating and challenging the work process. Similarly, leaders with lower power distance may have difficulty requesting assessments of taskwork from subordinates.

Although it may not be possible to substantially alter the power distance orientation of team members, steps can be taken to facilitate subordinate participation in the taskwork evaluation process. Prior research suggests that building trust among leaders and subordinates from high power distance cultures may facilitate more participative interactions (Siakas & Georgiadou, 2006). Trust helps enable the transfer of knowledge and information between leaders and subordinates, facilitating an environment in which followers have the ability to evaluate workflow (Rivera-Vazquez, Ortiz-Fournier, & Flores, 2009). The need for trust to facilitate subordinate participation in taskwork evaluation underscores the need for global virtual team leaders to establish and reinforce norms and expectations for members so that a sense

of trust among members and between leaders and followers can be established over time.

“Doing the work.” Morgeson et al. (2010) identify four critical action phase leadership behaviors focused directly toward enacting the team task: (1) *perform the team task*, (2) *help solve problems*, (3) *provide resources*, and (4) *manage the team boundary*. First, leadership must facilitate the performance and completion of a given team task. In other words, leaders should maintain an active role in helping team members complete objectives throughout the duration of team performance.

Second, unlike team members, formal leaders may not have a specified role to play in the actual execution of a task. Therefore, they are often afforded the ability to attain a bird’s-eye view of team processes, while individual team members remain engrossed in the finer-grained details of the task at hand. This broader perspective allows leaders to identify and solve problems that may arise during the completion of a given team task.

Third, in order to sufficiently facilitate the performance of a task and help solve problems, leaders must consistently provide resources to the team. The purpose of these resources is twofold: (1) to provide members with the “informational, financial, material, and personnel” (p. 21) assets necessary to complete a task and (2) to convey that the leader supports all individual member endeavors. Leader support is critical to cultivating an encouraging and motivational team context in which members feel as though their individual contributions to the team are valued.

Finally, team boundaries define the responsibilities of each team member and the nature of the taskwork. At the same time, members must have knowledge of relevant information as it arises from their surrounding environment. Therefore, the leadership function of *boundary management*, which involves the leader serving as a liaison between the external environment and the team, is central to the management of team actions. In this capacity, the leader cultivates and appropriately maintains relationships between the team itself and other relevant stakeholders, such as the surrounding organization. Team boundary management involves consistent communication and interaction with influential individuals external to the team. Moreover, the leader serves as a buffer between the team and external forces and events. In doing so, the leader must protect the team from any harmful external influences, while garnering support for the team itself. These actions enable the team to remain focused on relevant taskwork, while the leader manages information from external constituents.

A key challenge to all four of these leadership functions that is more prevalent in virtual contexts as opposed to face-to-face teams is a lack of information. In order to effectively provide backup and resources to the team, leaders need to know: (a) what tasks have been completed, (b) what problems members are facing, (c) what resources are needed, and (d) what issues with external stakeholders need to be resolved. As noted earlier, communication is a central challenge of virtual teamwork, often leading to detriments in information shared among members (Martins et al., 2004). Thus, virtual team leaders must continuously and directly seek information from members so that they may intervene when necessary.

Global virtual team leaders may elicit information regarding work processes from team members in multiple ways. An advantage to virtual work is the availability of information from a variety of communication technologies. In many instances, these tools provide forums or repositories of information that inform leaders regarding the status of work processes. Accordingly, leaders would be well served to establish team norms for using certain tools to leverage these informational capabilities. For instance, leaders may utilize online project management software (e.g., Basecamp) that would allow members to post weekly status updates concerning their progress and what issues they may be facing. Likewise, leaders may also hold periodic teleconference or videoconference meetings that provide members with a forum to discuss the status of a given project.

Leadership for Global Virtual Team Interpersonal Processes

Whereas transition and action processes are exclusive to their respective phases, a third class of teamwork processes, *interpersonal processes*, occur throughout both transition and action phases. Interpersonal processes include behaviors such as conflict and affect management and the encouragement of motivation and confidence within the team. These processes are instrumental in establishing a foundation for effective behaviors throughout the team's life cycle—and are particularly important leverage points for leaders to shape affective emergent states such as trust (Marks et al., 2001).

By their very nature, interpersonal processes are largely reflective of the interactional nature of the team. Establishing effective interactional norms is of the utmost importance for highly virtual teams. For instance, research has suggested that virtual teams suffer from an increased prominence of conflict among members (Mortensen & Hinds, 2001). This conflict can arise from a number of factors, including an inability to resolve issues through communication technology. Recent literature also suggests that members of virtual teams may suffer from decreased motivation given that virtual settings lend themselves more to nontask related behavior and decreased opportunities for feedback (Martins et al., 2004). Moreover, interpersonal processes—if not managed appropriately can lead to breakdowns across other essential teamwork processes and emergent states.

“Keeping it positive.” A team's prevailing social environment is the foundation for member interactions throughout the task cycle. Therefore, Morgeson et al. (2010) indicate that leadership must cultivate and maintain a *positive team social climate*. This leadership function involves facilitating norms for positive member interaction and demonstrating compassion for individual member's needs. A team composed of members from different cultural backgrounds might imply that team members vary greatly along dimensions important to team functioning (e.g., power distance, assertiveness: House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002). Thus, leaders of global virtual teams should attempt to create an environment in

which diverse members feel comfortable (Joshi & Lazarova, 2005; Zander et al., 2012). Accordingly, leadership must be attuned to potentially negative social interactions among team members and provide support for individual concerns. In doing so, leaders facilitate reconciliation among team members and ensure that adaptive interpersonal norms develop over time.

In traditional colocated face-to-face settings, leaders can intervene and mediate any interpersonal issues directly and in person. Supporting the team's social climate is much more difficult in global virtual teams. In culturally diverse teams, attitudes toward cultural diversity may differ with some members positively oriented toward diversity and others more negatively oriented (Bouncken, Ratzmann, & Winkler, 2008). To make matters more difficult, in distributed contexts, leaders must rely on communication technology to observe and impact the prevailing social context within a given team. It is well documented that many communication technologies inhibit the transferal of nonverbal behaviors (e.g., eye contact, tone, body language), which facilitate positive social interactions (Kirkman & Mathieu, 2005). Thus, in order to effectively develop and maintain a supportive social context, leaders could host "virtual get-togethers" over technology platforms such as videoconferencing that enable richer interactions (Malhotra, Majchrzak, & Rosen, 2007, p. 63). Taking advantage of videoconferencing opportunities builds trust and demonstrates a willingness to engage with other members (Woody, 2013). This enables leaders to convey the compassion necessary to enhance member efficacy in a manner similar to a face-to-face context. Other recent suggestions for building a supportive social climate in highly virtual teams include starting virtual meetings with recognition of team member successes and offering "virtual reward ceremonies" (e.g., have gifts delivered to a star team member and a virtual "party"; Malhotra et al., 2007, p. 67)

"Encouraging information flow." Though not specifically incorporated in the Marks et al. model of team processes, *information sharing* is an important interaction process in teams that underpins all team processes throughout the transition and action phases. For example, a team's ability to develop strategies during periods of transition may be severely limited if members are not sharing information. Orchestrating the sequence and timing of interdependent actions (i.e., coordination) during action phases is facilitated by information sharing because members are aware of the actions of other team members.

Mesmer-Magnus and DeChurch (2009) found support for the ubiquitous importance of information sharing from a meta-analysis that cumulated 22 years of empirical research. This analysis indicated that team information sharing was significantly associated with team performance, even after controlling for a range of moderators. Mesmer-Magnus and DeChurch (2009) also found that the sharing of *unique* information (i.e., information not commonly held by all team members) was more strongly associated with team effectiveness than the breadth of information shared (i.e., information sharing *openness*). However, the latter was more associated with collective motivation than was information sharing uniqueness. These findings indicate the importance of different information sharing dimensions for team functions. This pattern of findings is consistent with the idea that the uniqueness and openness

aspects of information sharing parallel the task and socioemotional functional needs in teams. Whereas openly sharing a wide breadth of information helps promote a positive team climate, sharing unique information increases the knowledge available to all team members, directly improving the team's task outcomes.

A second meta-analysis on information sharing is particularly important to understanding virtual teams. Mesmer-Magnus, DeChurch, Jimenez-Rodriguez, Wildman, and Shuffler (2011) examined the relationship between information sharing and performance for teams interacting mostly face-to-face versus those interacting mostly through technology, and find a remarkable difference. Mesmer-Magnus and colleagues showed that whereas both open and unique information-sharing processes were important to team performance, in highly virtual teams, the openness of information exchange was a stronger predictor of performance than was uniqueness. These authors speculate that this effect stems from the positive relationship between open information sharing and affective emergent states (e.g., trust), which can be more difficult to develop in virtual teams as compared to face-to-face teams. Interestingly, this work also showed that low levels of virtuality can increase team's information sharing behaviors, but high levels of virtuality decrease information sharing. Thus, although highly virtual teams may benefit from both open and unique information sharing, these types of teams may be the least likely to engage in these processes. Leaders of virtual teams, therefore, need to foster both types of information exchange processes, but recognize that in less virtual contexts, their role is to promote unique information sharing; whereas, in more distributed interactions, teams need leadership that enables both open and unique information sharing.

“Sharing the responsibility.” The majority of the team leadership behaviors delineated by Morgeson et al. (2010) involve a single individual or individuals intervening directly in team functioning. However, in recent years, perspectives on leadership both in teams and more broadly have started to shift from viewing leadership behaviors as the sole responsibility of a single “formal” leader toward an understanding that leadership behaviors are often enacted by some or all members of a collective (Pearce & Conger, 2003). Theories of shared or collective leadership contend that *encouraging team self-management* is often beneficial for team success.

Encouraging team self-management is a more “supportive and indirect” form of leadership (Morgeson et al., 2010; p. 22) that is particularly appropriate in highly virtual contexts (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). First, sharing in leadership is thought to increase the opportunity for members in different locations to monitor and influence one another and make decisions quickly, as well as the degree to which team members are accountable to the team (Muethel & Hoegl, 2010). Globally distributed virtual teams are often comprised of skilled individuals chosen for their expertise in a given area. Thus, as task requirements shift, the team member most qualified to make decisions may change (Pearce & Conger, 2003). In support of the importance of sharing the leadership responsibilities of a team, recent empirical work suggests that the degree to which leadership duties are shared among team members is positively related to objective team performance (e.g., Small & Rentsch, 2010; Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007). Second, leaders

of globally distributed virtual teams sometimes face the daunting challenge of directing and coordinating team members, whom they have seldom, if ever met face to face. In these complex environments, it is impractical for formal leaders to manage all team actions and interactions. Moreover a strict “vertical” leadership structure (i.e., one person enacting all leadership functions) is likely to be draining on the formal leader and inefficient for team functioning (Wassenaar, Pearce, Hoch, & Wegge, 2009). Instead, leadership in global virtual teams will likely be more effective if some leadership roles are dynamically shared among multiple team members (Wassenaar et al., 2009).

Research suggests that global virtual teams encouraged to engage in self-leadership are more effective as compared to global virtual teams in which self-leadership is not encouraged (Davis & Bryant, 2003). However, face-to-face teams are more likely to develop shared leadership than are highly virtual teams (Balthazard, Waldman, Howell, & Atwater, 2004). Possibly, face-to-face interactions allow for more expressive nonverbal communication—enabling members to develop respect for the perspectives of other team members more easily (and more readily engage in shared leadership). The dilemma, however, is that shared leadership, which may be the most optimal form of leadership for globally distributed teams, is likely the most difficult form of leadership to enact. To resolve this dilemma, formal leaders need to take an active role in encouraging team self-management by distributing specific leadership duties and functions to various members. Formal team leaders might consider leadership functions as “batons” (Klein, Ziegert, Knight, & Xiao, 2006, p. 604) that are dynamically delegated among team members by the formal leader depending on task demands and constraints. Moreover, formal leaders of global virtual teams should identify opportunities for delegating leadership functions and encourage members to monitor and self-correct their own team environments.

Conclusion

In sum, models of team effectiveness contend that important team outcomes like team satisfaction, viability, and performance stem from a complex mix of teamwork processes and affective, cognitive, and motivational emergent states. Success in global, highly virtual teams is cultivated much in the same way as success in less virtual or face-to-face teams, but meeting team needs in these new contexts requires slight shifts in perspective and behavior (some suggestions are summarized in Table 10.1). Facilitating global virtual team effectiveness involves an understanding of team processes and properties and a targeted effort toward creating them. Our suggestions regarding how virtual team leaders might develop teamwork processes are meant to help leaders set parameters for global virtual teams and allow members to work more autonomously and collaboratively.

Acknowledgement The authors wish to acknowledge the following funding sources that contributed to the development of the ideas presented in this chapter: National Science Foundation Grants: SES-1219469 & SBE-1063901.

References

- Abad, A., Castella, V., Cuenca, I., & Navarro, P. (2002). Teamwork in different communication contexts: A longitudinal study. *Psychology in Spain, 6*, 41–65.
- Algesheimer, R., Dholakia, U. M., & Gurau, C. (2011). Virtual team performance in a highly competitive environment. *Group and Organization Management, 36*, 161–190.
- Anawati, D., & Craig, A. (2006). Behavioral adaptation within cross-cultural virtual teams. *Professional Communication, IEEE Transactions on, 49*(1), 44–56.
- Asencio, R., Carter, D. R., DeChurch, L. A., Zaccaro, S. J., & Fiore, S. M. (2012). Charting a course for collaboration: A multiteam perspective. *Translational Behavioral Medicine, 2*, 487–494.
- Balthazard, P., Waldman, D., Howell, J., & Atwater, L. (2004). Shared leadership and group interaction styles in problem-solving virtual teams. *Proceedings of the 37th Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences*, 10043a.
- Barge, J. K., & Hirokawa, R. Y. (1989). Toward a communication competency model of group leadership. *Small Group Research, 20*, 167–189.
- Bell, B., & Kozlowski, S. (2002). A typology for virtual teams: Implications for effective leadership. *Group & Organization Management, 27*, 13–49.
- Bergiel, B., Bergiel, E., & Balsmeier, P. (2008). Nature of virtual teams: A summary of their advantages and disadvantages. *Management Research News, 31*, 99–110.
- Black, J. S., & Mendenhall, M. (1990). Cross-cultural training effectiveness: A review and a theoretical framework for future research. *Academy of Management Review, 15*, 113–136.
- Bouncken, R. B., Ratzmann, M., & Winkler, V. A. (2008). Cross-cultural innovation teams: Effects of four types of attitudes towards expatriates. *International Journal of Business Strategy, 8*, 26–36.
- Carson, J. B., Tesluk, P. E., & Marrone, J. A. (2007). Shared leadership in teams: An investigation of antecedent conditions and performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(5), 1217–1234.
- Carter, N. T., Carter, D., & DeChurch, L. (2012, August). IRT-based evidence of team construct measurement quality and emergence. In: N. Carter & D. R. Carter (Co-Chairs), *Aligning team measurement practice with theory through novel analytic applications*. Symposium at the Academy of Management annual meeting, Boston.
- Contractor, N., Monge, P., & Leonardi, P. (2011). Multidimensional networks and the dynamics of sociomateriality: Bringing the technology inside the network. *International Journal of Communication, 5*, 682–720.
- Crisp, C. B., & Jarvenpaa, S. L. (2013). Swift trust in global virtual teams. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 12*, 45–56.
- Cronin, M., Weingart, L., & Todorova, G. (2011). Dynamics in groups: Are we there yet? *The Academy of Management Annals, 5*, 571–612.
- Dackert, I., Loov, L.-A., & Martensson, M. (2004). Leadership and the climate for innovation in teams. *Economic and Industrial Democracy, 25*, 301–318.
- Daft, R. L., Lengel, R. H., & Trevino, L. K. (1987). Message equivocality, media selection, and manager performance: Implications for information systems. *MIS Quarterly, 11*, 355–366.
- Davis, D. D., & Bryant, J. L. (2003). Influence at a distance: Leadership in global virtual teams. *Advances in Global Leadership, 3*, 303–340.
- Day, D. V., Gronn, P., & Salas, E. (2004). Leadership capacity in teams. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15*, 857–880.
- DeChurch, L., & Mesmer-Magnus, J. (2010). The cognitive underpinnings of effective teamwork: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*, 32–53.
- Devine, D. J., Clayton, L. D., Philips, J. L., Dunford, B. B., & Melner, S. B. (1999). Teams in organizations: Prevalence, characteristics, and effectiveness. *Small Group Research, 30*, 678–711.
- Dirks, K. T. (1999). The effects of interpersonal trust on work group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*, 445–455.

- Dixon, K., & Panteli, N. (2010). From virtual teams to virtuality in teams. *Human Relations, 63*, 1177–1197.
- Earley, P. C., & Peterson, R. S. (2004). The elusive cultural chameleon: Cultural intelligence as a new approach to intercultural training for the global manager. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 3*(1), 100–115.
- Finkelstein, S. (1992). Power in top management teams: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal, 35*, 505–538.
- Gentry, J. (1991). The development of time orientation measures for use in cross-cultural research. *Advances in Consumer Research, 18*, 135–142.
- Gibson, C. B. (1999). Do they do what they believe they can? Group efficacy and group effectiveness across tasks and cultures. *Academy of Management Journal, 42*, 138–152.
- Gibson, C., & Gibbs, J. (2006). Unpacking the concept of virtuality: The effects of geographic dispersion, electronic dependence, dynamic structure, and national diversity on team innovation. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 51*, 451–495.
- Gully, S. M., Devine, D. J., & Whitney, D. J. (2012). A meta-analysis of cohesion and performance effects of level of analysis and task interdependence. *Small Group Research, 43*, 702–725.
- Gully, S. M., Incalcaterra, K. A., Joshi, A., & Beaubien, J. M. (2002). Meta-analysis of team efficacy, potency, and performance: Interdependence and level of analysis as moderators of observed relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 819–832.
- Hackman, J. R. (2002). *Leading teams: Setting the stage for great performances*. Boston: Harvard Business Press.
- Hackman, J. R. (2012). From causes to conditions in group research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 33*, 428–444.
- Hall, E. (1959). *The silent language*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company.
- Hall, E. (1976). *Beyond culture*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company.
- Harris, P. R., & Moran, R. T. (1991). *Managing cultural differences* (3rd ed.). Houston, TX: Gulf.
- Hertel, G., Geister, S., & Konradt, U. (2005). Managing virtual teams: A review of current research. *Human Resource Management Review, 15*, 69–95.
- Hofstede, G. (1983). National cultures in four dimensions: A research-based theory of cultural differences among nations. *International Studies of Management & Organization, 13*(1/2), 46–74.
- Hollingshead, A. B. (2001). Cognitive interdependence and convergent expectations in transactive memory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81*, 1080–1089.
- House, R., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., & Dorfman, P. (2002). Understanding cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: An introduction to project GLOBE. *Journal of World Business, 37*, 3–10.
- Ilgen, D. R., Hollenbeck, J. R., Johnson, M., & Jundt, D. (2005). Teams in organizations: from input-process-output models to IMO models. *Annual Review of Psychology, 56*, 517–543.
- Jones, G. R., & George, J. M. (1998). The experience and evolution of trust: Implications for cooperation and teamwork. *The Academy of Management Review, 23*, 531–546.
- Joshi, A., & Lazarova, M. (2005). Do “global” teams need “global” leaders? Identifying leadership competencies in multinational teams. *Advances in International Management, 18*, 281–302.
- Joshi, A., Lazarova, M. B., & Liao, H. (2009). Getting everyone on board: The role of inspirational leadership in geographically dispersed teams. *Organization Science, 20*(1), 240–252.
- Kaiser, R. B., Hogan, R., & Craig, S. B. (2008). Leadership and the fate of organizations. *American Psychologist, 63*, 96–110.
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Kirkman, B. L., Chen, G., Farh, J.-L., Chen, Z. X., & Lowe, K. B. (2009). Individual power distance orientation and follower reactions to transformational leaders: A cross-level, cross-cultural examination. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*, 744–764.
- Kirkman, B. L., Gibson, C. B., & Kim, K. (2012). Across borders and technologies: Advancements in virtual team research. *Oxford Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 1*, 789–858.

- Kirkman, B., & Mathieu, J. (2005). The dimensions and antecedents of team virtuality. *Journal of Management*, *31*, 700–718.
- Kirkman, B. L., Rosen, B., Gibson, C. B., Tesluk, P. E., & McPherson, S. O. (2002). Five challenges to virtual team success: Lessons from Sabre, Inc. *The Academy of Management Executive*, *16*(3), 67–79.
- Klein, K. J., Ziegert, J. C., Knight, A. P., & Xiao, Y. (2006). Dynamic delegation: Shared, hierarchical, and deindividualized leadership in extreme action teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *51*, 590–621.
- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Bell, B. S. (2003). Work groups and teams in organizations. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology: Industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 333–375). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Kozlowski, S. W., Gully, S. M., Nason, E. R., & Smith, E. M. (1999). Developing adaptive teams: A theory of compilation and performance across levels and time. *Pulakos (Eds.), The changing nature of performance: Implications for staffing, motivation, and development*, 240–292.
- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Ilgen, D. R. (2006). Enhancing the effectiveness of work groups and teams. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, *7*, 77–124.
- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Klein, K. J. (2001). *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Lee, C. H., & Templer, K. J. (2003). CQ assessment and measurement. In P. C. Earley & S. Ang (Eds.), *Cultural intelligence: An analysis of individual interactions across cultures* (pp. 185–208). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Leenders, R., Engelen, J., & Krazter, J. (2003). Virtuality, communication, and new product team creativity: A social network perspective. *Journal of Engineering and Technology Management*, *20*, 69–92.
- LePine, J. A., Piccolo, R. F., Jackson, C. L., Mathieu, J. E., & Saul, J. R. (2008). A meta-analysis of teamwork processes: Tests of a multidimensional model and relationships with team effectiveness criteria. *Personnel Psychology*, *61*, 273–307.
- Lewis, K. (2003). Measuring transactive memory systems in the field: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*, 587–604.
- Lord, R. G. (1977). Functional leadership behavior: Measurement and relation to social power and leadership perceptions. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *22*, 114–133.
- Malhotra, A., Majchrzak, A., & Rosen, B. (2007). Leading virtual teams. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *21*, 60–70.
- Mannix, E., & Neale, M. A. (2005). What differences make a difference? *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, *6*(2), 31–55.
- Marks, M., Mathieu, J., & Zaccaro, S. (2001). A temporally based framework and taxonomy of team processes. *The Academy of Management Review*, *26*, 356–376.
- Martins, L., Gilson, L., & Maynard, M. (2004). Virtual teams: What do we know and where do we go from here? *Journal of Management*, *30*, 805–835.
- Martins, L. L., Miliken, F., Wiesenfeld, B. M., & Salgado, S. R. (2003). Racioethnic diversity and group members' experiences. *Group and Organization Management*, *28*, 75–106.
- Mathieu, J., Maynard, M., Rapp, T., & Gilson, L. (2008). Team effectiveness 1997–2007: A review of recent advancements and a glimpse into the future. *Journal of Management*, *34*, 410–476.
- Mathieu, J., & Rapp, T. L. (2009). Laying the foundation for successful team performance trajectories: The roles of team charters and performance strategies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*, 90.
- Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Shoorman, F. D. (1995). An integration model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, *20*, 709–734.
- Maznevski, M. L., & Chudoba, K. M. (2000). Bridging space over time: Global virtual team dynamics and effectiveness. *Organization Science*, *11*, 473–492.
- McDaniel, M., Hartman, N., Whetzel, D., & Grubb, W. (2007). Situational judgment tests, response instructions, and validity: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, *60*, 63–91.
- McGrath, J. E. (1962). *Leadership behavior: Some requirements for leadership training [Mimeographed]*. Washington, DC: U.S. Civil Service Commission.

- McGrath, J. E. (1964). *Social psychology: A brief introduction*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Mesmer-Magnus, J. R., & DeChurch, L. A. (2009). Information sharing and team performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*, 535–546.
- Mesmer-Magnus, J. R., DeChurch, L. A., Jimenez-Rodriguez, M., Wildman, J., & Shuffler, M. (2011). A meta-analytic investigation of virtuality and information sharing in teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 115*, 214–225.
- Moreland, R. L. (1999). Transactive memory: Learning who knows what in work groups and organizations. In L. L. Thompson, J. M. Levine, & D. M. Messick (Eds.), *Shared cognition in organizations: The management of knowledge*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum
- Morgeson, F. P., DeRue, D. S., & Karam, E. P. (2010). Leadership in teams: A functional approach to understanding leadership structures and processes. *Journal of Management, 38*, 876–910.
- Mortensen, M., & Hinds, P. (2001). Conflict and shared identity in geographically distributed teams. *International Journal of Conflict Management, 12*, 212–238.
- Muethel, M., & Hoegl, M. (2010). Cultural and societal influences on shared leadership in globally dispersed teams. *Journal of International Management, 16*, 234–246.
- Norton, W. I., Jr., & Sussman, L. (2009). Team charters-theoretical foundations and practical implications for quality and performance. *Quality Management Journal, 16*, 7–17.
- Olson, G., & Olson, J. (2000). Distance matters. *Human-Computer Interaction, 15*, 139–178.
- Pearce, C. L., & Conger, J. A. (2003). *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pearce, C. L., & Sims, H. P. (2002). Vertical versus shared leadership as predictors of the effectiveness of change management teams: An examination of aversive, directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering leader behaviors. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 6*, 172–197.
- Pinelle, D., Dyck, J., & Gutwin, C. (2003). *Aligning work practices and mobile technologies: Groupware design for loosely coupled mobile groups* (pp. 177–192). Proceedings of the Human-Computer Interaction with Mobile Devices and Services Conference, Udine, Italy.
- Poole, M. S., Holmes, M., & DeSanctis, G. (1991). Conflict management in a computer-supported meeting environment. *Management Science, 37*, 926–953.
- Porter, C. O. L. H., Hollenbeck, J. R., Ilgen, J. R., Ellis, A. P. J., West, B. J., & Moon, H. (2003). Backing up behaviors in teams: The role of personality and legitimacy of need. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 391–403.
- Rasmussen, L. J., Sieck, W. R., & Smart, P. (2009). What is a good plan? Cultural variations in expert planners' concepts of plan quality. *Journal of Cognitive Engineering and Decision Making, 3*, 228–252.
- Rivera-Vazquez, J., Ortiz-Fournier, L., & Flores, F. (2009). Overcoming cultural barriers for innovation and knowledge sharing. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 13*, 257–270.
- Schmidt, F., & Hunter, J. (1998). The validity and utility of selection methods in Personnel Psychology: Practical and theoretical implications of 85 years of research findings. *Psychological Bulletin, 124*, 262–274.
- Schweitzer, L., & Duxbury, L. (2010). Conceptualizing and measuring the virtuality of teams. *Information Systems Journal, 20*, 267–295.
- Shachaf, P. (2008). Cultural diversity and information and communication technology impacts on global virtual teams: An exploratory study. *Information & Management, 45*, 131–142.
- Siakas, K. V., & Georgiadou, E. (2006). *Knowledge sharing: cultural dynamics* (pp. 505–513). Proceedings of 7th European Conference of Knowledge Management (ECKM06), Public Academic Conferences, Reading, PA.
- Small, E. E., & Rentsch, J. R. (2010). Shared leadership in teams: A matter of distribution. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 9*(4), 203.
- Stahl, G., Makela, K., Zander, L., & Maznevski, M. (2010). A look at the bright side of multicultural team diversity. *Scandinavian Journal of Management, 26*(439), 447.
- Thatcher, S. M., & Patel, P. C. (2012). Group faultlines: A review, integration, and guide to future research. *Journal of Management, 38*, 969–1009.

- Tuckman, B. (1965). Developmental sequence in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, *63*, 384–399.
- van Knippenberg, D., & Schippers, M. (2007). Work group diversity. *The Annual Review of Psychology*, *58*, 515–541.
- Wassenaar, C., Pearce, G. L., Hoch, J. E., & Wegge, J. (2009). Shared leadership meets virtual teams: A match made in cyberspace. In P. Yoong (Ed.), *Leadership in the digital enterprise: Issues and challenges*. Hershey, PA: Business Science Reference.
- Watson, W., Kumar, K., & Michaelson, L. K. (1993). Cultural diversity's impact on interaction process and performance: Comparing homogeneous and diverse task groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, *36*, 996–1025.
- Woody, M. (2013). *How to use video conferencing the right way*. Retrieved from <http://www.fox-business.com/personal-finance/2013/07/15/power-face-time-and-modern-video-conferencing/>
- Zaccaro, S. J., & DeChurch, L. A. (2012). Leadership forms and functions in multiteam systems. In S. J. Zaccaro, M. A. Marks, & L. A. DeChurch (Eds.), *Multiteam systems: An organizational form for dynamic and complex environments*. New York: Routledge.
- Zaccaro, S. J., Rittman, A. L., & Marks, M. A. (2001). Team leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *12*, 451–483.
- Zander, L., Mockaitis, A. I., & Butler, C. L. (2012). Leading global teams. *Journal of World Business*, *47*, 592–603.
- Zolin, R., Hinds, P. J., Fruchter, R., & Levitt, R. E. (2004). Interpersonal trust in cross-functional, geographically distributed work: A longitudinal study. *Information and Organization*, *14*, 1–26.

Chapter 11

Can We Count on You at a Distance?

The Impact of Culture on Formation of Swift Trust Within Global Virtual Teams

Norhayati Zakaria and Shafiz Affendi Mohd Yusof

The reality for a multinational corporation (MNCs) in the global era can be exemplified as follows: a company located in Asia assembling an ad hoc team comprised of a Taiwanese marketing manager, German engineers, and American financial consultants to collaborate on a project within a short period of time, i.e., 6–8 weeks. Although the team's expertise is outsourced from all parts of the globe, such temporary projects need to adhere to a stringent deadline. Thus, members need to complete their tasks quickly, efficiently, and effectively. To accomplish this, the formation of trust needs to take place in a more expeditious manner than in the usual teamwork arrangement (Dennis, Robert, Curtis, Kowalczyk, & Hasty, 2012; Greenberg, Greenberg, & Antonucci, 2007; Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999; Kanawattanachai & Yoo, 2002; Pinjani & Palvia, 2013; Robert, Dennis, & Hung, 2009). Challenges may arise during this process, because in most cases global virtual teams (GVTs) are comprised of people who have no historical background of working together and at best a limited understanding of how the other members have performed in the past (Mohd Yusof & Zakaria, 2012). In short, GVTs face difficulty in developing swift trust due to several key characteristics: having members with diverse cultural backgrounds, working with strangers, adhering to short deadlines, and straddling different time zones.

A major reason that managing GVTs is incredibly challenging is that trusting behaviors are rooted in one's cultural values (Fukuyama, 1995). Members who come from different cultural backgrounds may fail to develop a trusting relationship

N. Zakaria, Ph.D. (✉)
College of Law, Government & International Studies, School of International Studies
(SOIS), Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok, Kedah 06010, Malaysia
e-mail: yati@uum.edu.my

S.A.M. Yusof, Ph.D.
College of Arts and Sciences, School of Computing (SOC), Universiti Utara Malaysia,
Sintok, Kedah 06010, Malaysia
e-mail: shafiz@uum.edu.my

quickly enough, within the time allotted to complete their project. For some cultures, it takes longer to develop a bond between members, yet such bonds are highly valuable and a prerequisite for working with others; conversely, in other cultures people tend to focus on the task to be completed and do not put a priority on relationship building when working with others (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998).

In their exploration of the issue of developing and maintaining trust in GVTs, Jarvenpaa, Knoll, and Leidner (1998) found that members experience “swift trust” in this new working structure. According to Meyerson, Weick, and Kramer (1996), swift trust contradicts the traditional definition that hinges on building interpersonal relationships. Instead, swift trust deemphasizes the interpersonal dimension and is based on broad categories of social structures and actions. The main drawback of swift trust is that it is fragile and ephemeral in nature. It is also more challenging to develop and maintain given the diverse cultural backgrounds present in GVTs. Several literature reviews in the area of cross-cultural management and intercultural communication have clearly established that one of the factors that hinder team performance is an inability to trust within and among members from divergent cultural backgrounds (Fukuyama, 1996; Gudykunst & Kim, 2002; Kim, Park, & Suzuki, 1990; Ting-Toomey, 1999).

In years past, team members typically had the luxury of extended time together in which to develop a trusting relationship, learn about each other’s behaviors, and build historical shared work experiences. Now, as organizations have begun to introduce the new work structure of GVTs, such long time spans are much less practical and less common. More and more often, team members are asked to cooperate on projects without a personal knowledge of their teammates. All they know is that the project must be completed within the time frame agreed upon (often fairly short) and that those with whom they are collaborating may be thousands of miles away.

Swift trust is defined as a high level of trust developed in the initial stages of working together over a short period of time (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). Meyerson et al. (1996) identify swift trust as a key competency for temporary teams (such as GVTs) which are formed around a common task with a limited life span, and which consist of people with diverse set of skills who (most importantly) have little prospect of working together again in the future. Robert et al. (2009) argue that trust can be built under temporary teamwork conditions, even when team members do not have any history of working together. Organizations need to realize that without a trusting relationship, team members in a distributed work environment will be unable to contribute and perform at their best within a short period of time; this is especially critical for complex and rapid-turnaround projects. Swift trust between members will enable them to collaborate effectively and efficiently and thereby achieve the desired goals of the team and, by extension, of the organization. As DeSanctis and Poole (1997) argued, team members with heterogeneous backgrounds will normally take more time to establish trust than those with homogenous backgrounds.

Depending on members’ cultural backgrounds and communicative preferences, not all will be willing or even able to trust strangers in a relatively quick manner. To make such a structure work, organizations need to ensure that their employees are equipped with the cultural competencies necessary to effectively build swift

trust. Hammer, Bennett, and Wiseman (2003) clearly define cultural competencies as the knowledge and skills one acquire and possess that enables one to interact effectively with people of different nationality and/or cultural, ethnicity, and religious backgrounds.

Therefore, the objective of this chapter is to explore the overarching research question, “How do cultural values facilitate or hinder the formation of swift trust within global virtual teams?” Our primary argument is that team members encounter challenges in developing swift trust due to diverse cultural backgrounds. We use a cross-cultural theoretical lens to understand the impact of culture on swift trust formation. We propose that it is more challenging for members of a high context culture that value relationship building and the pursuit of collectivistic goals to develop swift trust. However, cultural theory suggests that trust formation is facilitated for such team members if the other team members belong to their in-group (e.g., colleagues, close friends, spouses) with whom they have established a relationship, rather than being total strangers. On the opposite end of the spectrum, team members from low context cultures that ascribe to individualism are more willing to develop swift trust if the goal is instrumental and focused on the task at hand (task orientation). We conclude the paper by offering some implications and guidelines for MNCs that want to utilize GVTs.

Conceptual Framework and Definitions

Figure 11.1, the conceptual framework of our study, illustrates the connection between three key concepts: GVTs, swift trust, and in-group vs. out-group. This framework grounds our exploration of GVTs from two perspectives: the challenges

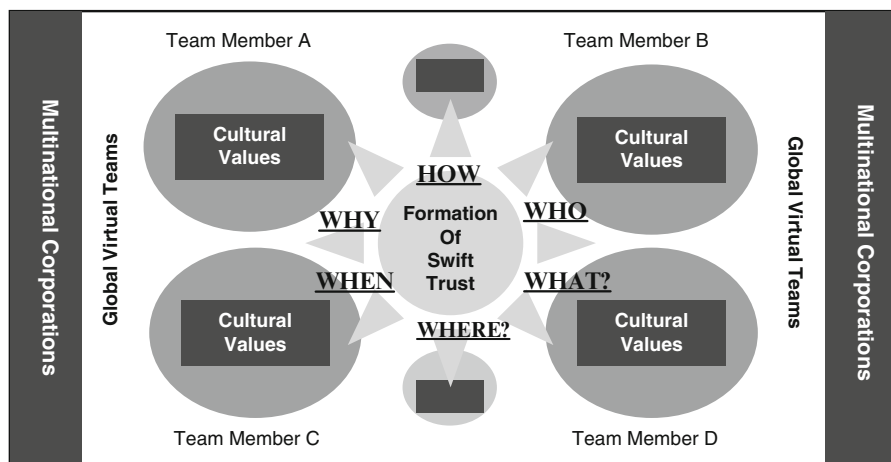


Fig. 11.1 Conceptual framework to understand the relationship between global virtual teams, cultural values, and swift trust

of developing swift trust and the synergistic conditions that facilitate the formation of swift trust. GVTs by their global nature are comprised of heterogeneous members with diverse cultural values. Such differences are strongly manifested in the practices, norms, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors which consequently shape the way team members work. Members of GVTs need to develop swift trust because a condition of trust facilitates their work, enabling them to meet stringent deadlines with efficiency and effectiveness. However, the formation of swift trust is impacted by one's cultural values, meaning that team members view trust building in different manners. The challenge arises because team members may hold different cultural values, and different cultural values prescribe different trusting behavior and different conditions for determining members' trustworthiness—either it complements others' trust behaviors, or it contradicts them and therefore creates conflict in trusting those who are strangers.

In this study, we use the concept of in-group vs. out-group to illustrate the nature of the relationships among team members and consequently how trust responses are affected based on team members' cultural values. For example, if members regard each other as being "in-group" it means that they have an established rapport since they have already formed strong bonds with each other. On the other hand, if members regard each other as "out-group" it means they are strangers or have established only an "arm's length" relationship, thus they are less acquainted or bonded with each other. These two aspects are crucial from a cultural standpoint. We present several questions in this chapter—for what purposes swift trust is required, with whom it needs to be built, under what circumstances it is needed, and the manner it is built—all of which need to be answered by conducting empirical studies. In short, the key questions *What*, *When*, *Why*, *Who*, and *How* determine which culturally rooted behaviors are relevant in swift trust formation. The following subsection briefly defines each of the key concepts shown in Fig. 11.1.

What Is a Global Virtual Team?

According to Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, and Gilson (2008), one of the key characteristics of team is that "...work teams have some level of interdependence and operate in an organizational context that influences their functioning" (p. 411). In addition, teams are an important means of enhancing an organization's creative and problem-solving capabilities (Jarvenpaa, Ives, & Pearlson, 1996; Zachary, 1998). In this chapter, we focus on a specific form of teams known as global virtual teams which have three salient characteristics: (1) culturally diverse, (2) geographically dispersed, and (3) rely on electronic communication (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). In their later work, Jarvenpaa and Leidner define a subtype of team, the ad hoc or temporary team, as one in which team members do not have a historical background and may not ever work together as a group in the future (Lipnack & Stamps, 1997). In a similar vein, Mohd Yusof and Zakaria (2012) and Maznevski and Chudoba (2000) define GVTs as groups that (1) are identified by their organization(s) and

members as a team; (2) are responsible for making and/or implementing decisions important to the organization's global strategy; (3) use technology-supported communication substantially more than face-to-face communication; and (4) work and live in different countries. Computer-mediated communication technology provides opportunities for people to collaborate without constraints of time and space.

What Is Swift Trust?

Swift trust is fundamentally reliant on the level or stage of team formation. Often, the challenge of forming swift trust arises for ad hoc or temporary teams that must collaborate on important and complex tasks (Meyerson et al., 1996) because it takes a relatively short time to work on finite tasks compared to a permanent team with an ongoing mission. In such cases, trust cannot be developed at a normal pace since the length of time the team is in existence is usually relatively short, whereas permanent teams may have a prolonged time frame to work on tasks and routines together. According to Adler (2007), swift trust normally arises at a team's inception stage. In this case, regardless of whether a team is temporary, long term, or permanent, swift trust can be challenging to develop at the early stage of team formation due to the common pitfalls of team dynamics. However, studies suggest that swift trust enables members to create conditions conducive to working together at a distance on a project that needs to be completed in a rather short time (Greenberg et al., 2007), regardless of whether the team is temporary (ad hoc) or permanent. Swift trust poses challenges because the initial stage of getting to know each other needs to be expedited in order to get the task done in a compressed time frame.

What Is In-Group vs. Out-Group?

The concept of in-group vs. out-group can be contextualized with respect to the cultural values of individualism vs. collectivism (Hofstede, 1980). For people from collectivistic cultures, the in-group includes family and friends and perhaps long-term work colleagues; people with whom one has worked before and developed a trusting relationship over time. The out-group consists of strangers and casual acquaintances, people with whom one has no history of working or with whom one has not formed strong bonds that lead to a trusting relationship. Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai, and Lucca (1988) assert that the relationship between in-group members is normally stable and consistent over time. People from individualistic cultures, on the other hand, did not distinguish between in-group and out-group members. Findings from Gomez, Kirkman, and Shapiro (2000) confirmed that when a team member is perceived as a member of the in-group, collectivist team members evaluated them more generously than did individualistic team members. Moreover, the collectivistic team member placed a higher value on contributions

that promote relationship maintenance, while individualistic team members placed a higher value on actions that contributed to completion of the task at hand. In essence, members who ascribe to the collectivistic cultures normally make a clear distinction between the in-group and out-group members in order to develop and maintain relationship among them. On the other hand, members who ascribe to the individualistic culture make less distinction between those two types of memberships because their concern is placed primarily on the tasks to be carried out first, then only relationship building.

Applying a Cross-Cultural Theoretical Framework

In this section, we present several key cultural dimensions introduced by cross-cultural theorists Hall (1976), Hofstede (1980), and Trompenaars (1994). Each of these three theorists has introduced a number of cultural dimensions. Hall identified three cultural dimensions, namely, space, language, and time. Hofstede developed five cultural dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism vs. collectivism, femininity vs. masculinity, and quality vs. quantity of life. Building on these two theories, Trompenaars defined seven dimensions: universal vs. particular, individualism vs. collectivism, affective vs. neutral, specific vs. diffuse, ascription vs. performance, sequential vs. synchronous (orientation to past, present, or future), and control vs. success. With respect to the formation of swift trust within GVTs from a cultural perspective, we will look at only three dimensions: high vs. low context, individualism vs. collectivism, and affective vs. neutral. Only these dimensions were selected based on their relevance to exploring the impact of cultural values on building swift trust in GVTs.

Hall (1976): Low Context vs. High Context

Intercultural communication theorist Hall (1976) introduced a cultural dimension called “context.” We discuss the concept “context” based on its two extremes, high context and low context, but it is useful to bear in mind that context is a continuum and despite their cultural backgrounds people can fall anywhere along the continuum from high to low context. Defined briefly, context explains messages that are either implied through nonverbal means or verbally written or spoken. In a “context culture” (high context) people depend largely on nonverbal cues, either demonstrated by the other person’s behavior or words, to fully interpret messages. Words used oftentimes are indirect, tactful, polite, and ambiguous. Conversely, in a “content culture” (low context), messages are directly interpreted from the words either written or spoken. Words used are direct, succinct, and specific. High context people value relationship building before they collaborate or work together. They feel that knowing others at an interpersonal level will facilitate their understanding

and interpretation of the messages they receive (Gudykunst & Kim, 1997). Nonverbal cues such as body language, tone of voice, facial expression, and gestures are important elements for effective intercultural communication. The information cues used by low context individuals, on the contrary, are different. They do not place much importance on relationship building; rather they prefer to conduct business or engage in collaboration through formal agreements such as written contracts between two parties. Their purpose in collaboration is strongly focused on the task to be achieved and not on relationships.

Hofstede (1980): Individualism vs. Collectivism

As an organizational and cross-cultural theorist, Hofstede (1980) has conducted hundreds of studies to examine the impact of cultural values on many aspects of organizational behaviors and management practices. He developed four cultural dimensions called power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism vs. collectivism, and masculinity vs. femininity. In this chapter, we use only one dimension, individualism vs. collectivism, to illustrate the impact of cultural values on swift trust formation in GVTs. The individualism vs. collectivism dimension explains the “sense of belonging” a person feels when it comes to job satisfaction and tasks. For example, collectivistic individuals normally prefer to work with familiar groups of people such as spouse, family, and close friends, previously defined as their in-group. They also feel more comfortable achieving their task through collective efforts. On the other hand, individualistic people thrive on single-handed or independent effort. Unlike collectivistic culture, the individualistic culture values autonomous thinking and thus they look more favorably on making individual decisions. On the other hand, consensus building is central to the nature of decision making processes in the collectivistic culture.

Trompenaars (1994): Neutral vs. Affective

Based on Hall’s and Hofstede’s work, Fons Trompenaars further elaborated the dimensions into seven cultural perspectives, some of which overlap. Once again we will use only one cultural dimension, in this case the one which is similar to the other two cultural theorists already mentioned. Hence, we chose Trompenaars’ cultural value of affective vs. neutral to illustrate the importance of in-group vs. out-group for swift trust formation. For example, a high context culture depends largely on collective efforts and high context individuals prefer to establish relationships with their teammates prior to taking up any tasks assigned to them. The “affective” element places a high value on relationship orientation. It becomes the crucial basis for trusting the other members of a team. Without it, collectivistic team members find it challenging to establish face-to-face trust, let alone virtual trust.

Conversely, people who place a greater emphasis on the “neutral” element much prefer to take into account only the task to be accomplished. Hence, the instrumental goal becomes the basis of virtual collaboration. What matters to the individualistic low context culture is that people can achieve reciprocal goals between tasks and personal interests (Zakaria, Stanton, & Sarkar-Barney, 2003).

The Impact of Culture on Building Swift Trust in Global Virtual Teams

Studies have shown that trust is a prerequisite to successful performance when people work together (Adler, 2007; Greenberg et al., 2007; Laat, 2005; Remidez, Stam, & Laffey, 2007; Young, 2006). According to Laat (2005), the conditions for and challenges to establishing trust differ depending on factors like social setting, identity, age, race, and gender. When we talk about trust in the distributed environment, the concept takes on a new meaning. Jarvenpaa and Leidner (1999), suggested that “swift trust” is a more viable form of trust. Therefore, in order to develop swift trust, time is of the essence. GVTs that operate on an ad hoc basis wherein projects must be completed quickly need to formulate means or strategies to develop trust more quickly than in a face-to-face operation, so that performance can be enhanced or maintained. Yet, not all cultures can develop trust in a quick manner; some cannot unless the target of trust has strong “in-group” relationship. GVTs are assembled in a totally different manner from the more traditional face-to-face structure. In a distributed environment, teams not only need to deal with the use of various technologies, but must also acculturate and adapt to the diversity of cultural values present among team members. Team members must be culturally competent to work with others who may have totally divergent work practices and procedures. The combination of these two, technology and culture, sometimes create intense challenges to building effective teamwork at a distance. If developing swift trust in a distributed team is challenging, the formation of trust among team members with different cultural backgrounds becomes more so because social and personal expectations and sources of trust and credibility are all established in different ways (Mohd Yusof & Zakaria, 2012; Zuckerman & Higgins, 2002). The key question, then, is “How is swift trust affected by cultural values?”

In this chapter, we want to look at the phenomenon of “cultural impacts on the formation of swift trust in GVTs” and at the end, we will present three key propositions based on different cultural dimensions (refer to Table 11.1). Studies have shown that teams oftentimes face challenges in forming trust because they have different expectations, decision making process, communication styles, and preferences for collaboration and communication as well as different motivations for trusting the partners they work with (Adler, 2007; Greenberg et al., 2007; Jeffries & Reed, 2000). Interestingly, Jarvenpaa and Leidner’s (1999) findings showed that culture is an insignificant factor in predicting the perceived level of trust in GVTs. They allege that, in an electronic communication environment, culture is less

Table 11.1 Summary of propositions using three different cultural dimensions to explain the characteristics and meanings of in-group vs. out-group

High context vs. low context (Hall, 1976)	Collectivism vs. individualism (Hofstede, 1980)	Affective vs. neutral (Trompenaars, 1994)
Proposition 1a	Proposition 2a	Proposition 3a
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>High context</i> members use a direct, succinct communication style when communicating with people in their in-group • <i>High context</i> members prefer an indirect and ambiguous communication style with their out-group members 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Collectivistic</i> members focus on collective or group-oriented goals when performing their task • <i>Collectivistic</i> members use “We,” “Us,” and “Ours” when claiming team inputs and outcomes from members or representing their members, and any decisions will be referred to their leader 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Affective-oriented</i> members will prioritize relationship building when performing tasks in global virtual teams • <i>Affective-oriented</i> members needs to establish good rapport to facilitate trust formation within members as it creates less anxiety and uncertainty
Proposition 1b	Proposition 2b	Proposition 3b
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Low context</i> members use a direct, precise communication style when communicating with in-group or out-group members, making little or no distinction between them • <i>Low context</i> members place a higher value on the nature of the job than on the nature of relationships 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Individualistic</i> members focus on self-oriented goals when performing their task • <i>Individualistic</i> members commonly use “I,” “Me,” and “You” when discussing the tasks carried out; each team member is considered responsible and empowered to make decisions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Task-oriented</i> members are more concerned with the tasks, roles, and types of jobs in the team. Relationships are a secondary goal; only when the task has been completed is trust developed through relationships • <i>Task-oriented</i> members perceive trust as dependent on the quality of the performance and deliverables shown by team members

significant, whereas our research argues the opposite view (Amant, 2002; Cogburn & Levinson, 2003; Mohd Yusof & Zakaria, 2012; Zakaria, 2006). Hall (1976) argued that people who demonstrate high context communication behaviors rely primarily on the nonverbal aspects of messages and the contextual value of information. In this case, the relationship-building orientation takes precedence over task orientation. Questions such as who, what, when, why, and how need to be critically examined by researchers in order to build a trusting relationship among team members. The ability to develop trust in a relatively quick manner is strongly impacted by the different cultural values of each member.

One of the important aspects to consider in terms of cultural values is the concept of in-group vs. out-group. Family members, close friends, and colleagues, known as

the “in-group,” are easier for high context members to build trust with as compared to strangers, the out-group members (Triandis et al., 1988). In an organizational context, such concepts can be translated into the need to work with people with whom one is comfortable and feels at ease. Hence, members need to establish rapport as soon as possible in the initial stage of team work because the concept of “in-group” reduces feelings of anxiety and uncertainty about unfamiliar persons: the more you know about a person, the further they move into your in-group and the less anxious you will be about trusting them (Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey, & Nishida, 1996). With little or no information about another person, it is hard to anticipate or predict the outcome of a relationship or shared goal. In this regard, “strangers” create more anxieties than those who are familiar or close to a person (i.e., belong to the in-group). Kanter (1977) provided similar observations about the issue of trust. She theorized that people would prefer someone similar to themselves, in the absence of other information (Stafsudd, 2006). In this respect, homogeneity is more likely to induce trust among teams than heterogeneity—for example, team members from the same cultural background vs. a team that includes one member from a different cultural background.

Low context communication behaviors, on the other hand, focus on task orientation rather than relationship building. What matters to low context people are the instrumental goals which they value more highly than the affective goals (e.g., relationships) when developing trust (Zakaria et al., 2003). However, such assertion is not fully understood in the context of GVT work environment; hence requiring researchers to further examine such phenomenon as proposed in this chapter. Kim et al. (1990) argue that individualistic cultures value task inputs over relationship building and maintenance. In other words, individualistic or low context people are less concerned with affective cues. Instead they are more concerned with effectiveness and efficiency in terms of tangible outcomes, such as completion of GVT tasks. Hofstede (1980) strongly believed that individualistic people are neither reliant on team memberships, nor dependent on harmonious and cohesive situations. Their goals are very objective, focusing on what tasks to accomplish and how best to do so. McClelland and Boyatzis (1984) therefore propose that individualistic managers do not thrive on personal affiliation, which is a necessary ingredient for collectivistic culture; what is more important is individual achievement and personal aspiration. Thus, swift trust that relies on task completion rather than on relationship building produces a better outcome for GVTs that ascribe to the individualistic culture. As summary, we encapsulate the discussions of cultural impacts on swift trust formation within GVTs with the following three (3) key propositions. Each proposition has two aspects in order to reflect each of the abovementioned cultural dimensions discussed.

Based on the abovementioned three (3) key propositions, we argue that the requirement to trust others during virtual collaboration is a new reality for GVTs which pose many culturally rooted challenges. Trust takes on a new perspective because teams need to develop it swiftly in order to maximize cross-organizational team performance across time and geographical distance. In this chapter, we argue that team members encounter challenges in developing swift trust due to diverse

cultural backgrounds; therefore we employ a cross-cultural theoretical lens to understand the impact of culture on swift trust formation. We propose that swift trust development is more challenging for high context individuals who value relationship building. In addition, cultural theorists also suggest that trust formation is facilitated for high context individuals when people belong to their in-group in organizations (i.e., close friends, colleagues, and spouse) rather than if the people are total strangers. On the opposite end of the spectrum, low context individuals who ascribe to individualism are more willing to develop swift trust if the goal is instrumental and the group is task oriented (focused on the task at hand).

Hence, there are two relevant questions: for the individualistic culture, it is “Can you work with me?” and for the collectivistic culture, it is “Can we work together?” These have implications for MNCs, and cultural values are thus a critical factor for organizations to consider when assembling GVTs because different cultures have different expectations, purposes, and objectives. Cultural values thus become an antecedent to the development of swift trust within GVTs. The following section provides recommendations and guidelines as to the “dos and don’ts” in managing GVTs and promoting the formation of swift trust within team members.

Recommendations and Guidelines for Global Virtual Teams

Currently, many global organizations utilize noncollocated teams because the distributed structure can reduce travel costs, expatriate training, and culture shock while at the same time increasing flexibility, mobility, and cross-border collaboration among members by removing barriers of time and distance. To successfully deploy GVTs, MNCs need to develop competencies among their employees that will encourage trusting behaviors among team members. MNCs need to ensure that their people receive cross-cultural training in order to enable them to build swift trust. In years past, teams might have had the luxury of taking their time to develop a trusting relationship among their members, learn about each other’s behaviors, and build a shared historical work experience. That is not the case with GVTs. MNCs need to realize that without a quickly established trusting relationship between GVT members, they are unlikely to contribute fully and perform at their best on complex projects.

For example, a manager wishing to establish or manage a GVT must determine whether the cultural backgrounds of team members are homogenous or heterogeneous. Such knowledge will enable the manager to understand what is required for the global virtual cross-border team collaboration to be successful, because different cultures perceive trust and trustworthy behavior differently. MNCs need to develop culturally attuned strategies that incorporate cultural values of the heterogeneous members in GVTs. Since trust is the glue for effective performance, the compatibility of cultures must be accurately assessed and action taken to address any potential points of conflict. If team members are heterogeneous in nature, development of cross-cultural competencies is crucial. Moreover, Zakaria (2008)

and Chen and Starosta (2005) assert that cultural competencies include three different levels which are the awareness, affective, and behavioral. Different levels require different competencies. For example, team members first need to be educated so that they are aware of their own and others' cultural differences. Next, team members must be sensitized to each other's routines, norms, values, and attitudes. Lastly, team members must learn to identify and be sensitive to each other's cultural differences, which ideally will lead to modeling of the right cultural behaviors by all team members. To ensure that virtual cross-border collaboration in a GVT is successfully carried out, it is essential for MNCs to create a supportive organizational culture or climate. Top management must provide programs that enhance the creation of synergy between the diverse cultural backgrounds of GVT members, and learning to trust at a distance and on many levels—individual, team, and organizational—must be encouraged through the organizational culture.

Following are some of the key guidelines for MNCs wishing to develop culturally attuned strategies in managing GVTs and forming swift trust within teams. The guidelines include ways to promote swift trust for high context members who ascribe to collectivistic cultural values and appreciate a relationship-oriented basis for teamwork. The guidelines also address the needs of low context members with individualistic cultural values who place a high importance on task-oriented outcomes.

For High Context, Collectivistic, and Affective Cultures

1. **Credibility and Trustworthiness.** MNCs need to provide all team members with ample background information about each other in order to reduce uncertainties and anxieties about who they will be working with. This information will also help establish a sense of the trustworthiness of the members.
2. **Rapport Building.** Leaders need to hold a warm-up session—a “getting-to-know you” session early in the forming of the team, for example, a face-to-face or video-conferencing meeting to give team members a chance to actually see each other's faces and observe nonverbal cues.
3. **Social-Based Technology.** Leaders need to be creative in designing a warm and user-friendly work environment using technology. For example, they may wish to use Web 2.0 communication tools like Facebook, Whatsapp, Twitter, and so on, to ensure constant and effective communication among team members.
4. **Nonavoidance Approach to Conflict Resolution.** Leaders need to intervene when members experience conflicts. Members from a high context culture will use either avoidance or a nonconfrontational strategy once they trust their colleagues. The ability to resolve conflicts in a collegial manner is crucial for maintaining a harmonious relationship. If conflicts arise, members may need an intermediary to arbitrate the issue.
5. **Consensus Decision Making.** The decision making process is based on two key aspects: hierarchical roles and consensus. Thus, high context members generally refer to their leader for a final decision since they are accustomed to follow

bureaucratic procedures or seek the approval of other team members. Members feel more secure receiving instructions on what to do from their leaders, since they will then not be responsible for the success or failure of the outcome. Thus, it is suggested when members are led by a high context leader, they should expect two circumstances: leader will make the final decision or the process will be based on a consensus-style decision making.

For Low Context, Individualistic, and Instrumental Cultures

1. **Reliability and Performance.** Provide clear goals and timelines so that these team members can plan, organize, and coordinate their tasks. Members also need to understand the credibility of their fellow team members, e.g., know something about their past performance, in order to assess their reliability and the quality of their work.
2. **Task Orientation.** Leaders need to ensure tasks are clearly identified and delegated to team members. Members need to feel that they have ownership in terms of performing the task assigned to them.
3. **Technology Efficiency.** Leaders need to ensure that the technology used is efficient and effective so that communication is smooth. When communication is effective among members, work is more likely to be delivered on time and on budget.
4. **Confrontational Conflict Resolution.** If conflicts arise, leaders need to think strategically about how to manage it. Often times, the best strategy is to seek a win-win result wherein members deliberate on the best outcome and arrive at a solution that satisfies all parties. Low context culture individuals tend to confront others directly and express their disagreements in an open manner, preferring to deal directly with the affected individual rather than employing a mediator.
5. **Empowerment in Decision Making.** Since individualistic cultures operate based on self-reliant thinking and autonomous decision making, members of this culture need to feel empowered in decision making. They cannot be told what to do for the sake of following or complying with what others are doing.

Conclusion and Future Research Directions

As a theoretical contribution of the chapter, in essence, we propose that swift trust formation is more challenging for individuals who operate in a virtual work structure than in a face-to-face work environment. Such challenges are further intensified when the team members possess heterogeneous cultural backgrounds. In this study, we use several theoretical lenses to explain the phenomenon of swift trust formation in GVTs. GVTs as a topic of interest are found in several bodies of literature, including information systems, cross-cultural management, international business,

and organizational behavior. However, to date, this body of literature seems to have looked at this topic in an isolated manner, failing to weave the findings into a coherent whole that yields a concrete explanation of the ways in which GVTs form swift trust. By using several different cultural theoretical lenses, our research will provide an understanding that integrates these various fields of study.

Hence, to summarize, the overarching research question is, “How do cultural values impact the formation of swift trust within global virtual teams?” We use several cultural dimensions to offer propositions that clearly state the impact of culture on formation of swift trust within GVTs. As previously mentioned, building virtual trust itself is difficult; how much more so to develop swift trust in a short time frame and with strangers. The barriers to trusting strangers are deeply rooted in a person’s cultural background. Thus, we present four key questions for shaping the direction of future work in understanding swift trust formation in GVTs, as follows:

- What are the culturally rooted challenges that team members face in developing swift trust in a virtual work structure?
- What are the antecedents to, and consequences of, the success or failure of swift trust development in a virtual work structure?
- Is the process of swift trust formation undergoing a process similar to face-to-face team developmental stages? If not, what is the process that individuals from different cultural backgrounds learn to trust one another?
- How does swift trust facilitate the effectiveness of GVTs?

References

- Adler, T. R. (2007). Swift trust and distrust in strategic partnering relationships: Key considerations of team-based designs. *Journal of Business Strategies*, 24(2), 105–119.
- Amant, K. S. (2002). When cultures and computer collide: Rethinking computer-mediated communication according to international and intercultural communication expectations. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*, 16(2), 196–214.
- Chen, G.-M., & Starosta, W. J. (2005). *Foundations of intercultural communication* (2nd ed.). Lanham, MD: University Press of America.
- Cogburn, D. L., & Levinson, N. S. (2003). US-Africa virtual collaboration in globalization studies: Success factors for complex, cross-national learning teams. *International Studies Perspectives*, 4, 34–51.
- Dennis, A. R., Robert, L. P., Jr., Curtis, A. M., Kowalczyk, S. T., & Hasty, B. K. (2012). Trust is in the eye of the beholder: A vignette study of post-event behavioral controls’ effects on individual trust in virtual teams. *Information Systems Research*, 23(2), 546–558.
- DeSanctis, G., & Poole, M. S. (1997). Transitions in teamwork in new organizational forms. In B. Markovsky, M. Lovaglia, L. Troyer, & E. Lawler (Eds.), *Advances in group processes* (Vol. 14, pp. 157–176). London: JAI Press.
- Fukuyama, F. (1995). *Trust: The social virtues and the creation of prosperity*. New York: Free Press.
- Fukuyama, F. (1996). *Trust: The social virtues and the creation of prosperity*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Gomez, C., Kirkman, B. L., & Shapiro, D. L. (2000). The impact of collectivism and in-group/out-group membership on the evaluation generosity of team members. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(6), 1097–1108.

- Greenberg, P. S., Greenberg, R. H., & Antonucci, Y. L. (2007). Creating and sustaining trust in virtual teams. *Business Horizons*, 50, 325–333.
- Gudykunst, W. B., & Kim, Y. Y. (1997). *Communicating with strangers: An approach to intercultural communication*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gudykunst, W. B., & Kim, Y. Y. (2002). *Communicating with strangers: An approach to intercultural communication* (4th ed.). London: McGraw Hill.
- Gudykunst, W. B., Ting-Toomey, S., & Nishida, T. (1996). *Communication in personal relationships across cultures*. Fullerton: Sage.
- Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond culture*. Garden City: Anchor Books/Doubleday.
- Hammer, M. R., Bennett, M. J., & Wiseman, R. (2003). Measuring intercultural sensitivity: The intercultural development inventory. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 27(4), 421–443.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences*. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., Ives, B., & Pearson, K. (1996). Global customer service for the computer and communication industry. In P. C. Palvia, S. C. Palvia, & E. M. Roche (Eds.), *Global information technology & system management: Key issues and trends*. Westford: Ivy Publishing.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., Knoll, K., & Leidner, D. (1998). Is anybody out there? Antecedents of trust in global teams. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 14(4), 29–64.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., & Leidner, D. E. (1999). Communication and trust in global virtual teams. *Organization Science*, 10(6), 791–815.
- Jeffries, F. L., & Reed, R. (2000). Trust and adaptation in relational contracting. *The Academy of Management Review*, 25(4), 873–882.
- Kanawattanachai, P., & Yoo, Y. (2002). Dynamic of trust in virtual teams, Case Western Reserve University, USA. *Sprouts: Working Papers on Information Systems*, 2(10). <http://sprouts.aisnet.org/2-10>.
- Kanter, R. M. (1977). *Men and women of the corporation*. New York: Basic Books.
- Kim, K. I., Park, H., & Suzuki, N. (1990). Reward allocations in the United States, Japan & Korea: A comparison of individualistic and collectivistic cultures. *Academy of Management Review*, 22, 730–757.
- Laat, P. B. (2005). Trusting the virtual trust. *Ethics and Information Technology*, 7, 167–180.
- Lipnack, J., & Stamps, J. (1997). *Virtual teams—Reaching across space, time and organizations with technology*. New York: Wiley.
- Mathieu, J., Maynard, M. T., Rapp, T., & Gilson, L. (2008). Team effectiveness 1997–2007: A review of recent advancements and a glimpse into the future. *Journal of Management*, 34(3), 410–476.
- Maznevski, M. L., & Chudoba, K. M. (2000). Bridging space over time: Global virtual team dynamics and effectiveness. *Organization Science*, 11(5), 473–492.
- McClelland, D. C., & Boyatzis, R. E. (1984). The need for close relationships and the manager's job. In D. A. Kolb, I. M. Rubin, & J. M. McIntyre (Eds.), *Organizational psychology: Readings on human behavior in organizations* (4th ed., pp. 81–86). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Meyerson, D., Weick, K. E., & Kramer, R. M. (1996). Swift trust and temporary groups. In R. M. Kramer & T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations*. London: Sage.
- Mohd Yusof, S. A., & Zakaria, N. (2012). Exploring the state of discipline on the formation of swift trust within global virtual teams (pp. 475–482). In *IEEE Proceedings of 45th Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences (HICSS)*, Maui, Hawaii.
- Pinjani, P., & Palvia, P. C. (2013). Trust and knowledge sharing in diverse global virtual teams. *Information & Management*, 50(4), 144–153.
- Powell, A., Piccoli, G., & Ives, B. (2004). Virtual teams: A review of current literature and directions for future research. *Database for Advances in Information Systems*, 35(1), 6–36.
- Remidez, H., Stam, A., & Laffey, J. M. (2007). Web-based template driven communication support systems: Using Shadow networkspace to support trust development in virtual teams. *International Journal of E-Collaboration*, 3(1), 65–83.

- Robert, L. P., Dennis, A. R., & Hung, Y.-T. C. (2009). Individual swift trust and knowledge-based trust in face-to-face and virtual team members. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 26(2), 241–279.
- Stafsudd, A. (2006). People are strangers when you are a stranger: Senior executives select similar successors. *European Management Review*, 3, 177–189.
- Ting-Toomey, S. (1999). *Communicating across cultures*. New York: Guilford.
- Triandis, H. C., Bontempo, R., Villareal, M. J., Asai, M., & Lucca, N. (1988). Individualism and collectivism: Cross-cultural perspectives on self-in-group relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 323–338.
- Trompenaars, F. (1994). *Riding the waves of culture*. Chicago: Irwin.
- Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (1998). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding diversity in global business* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Young, L. (2006). Trust: Looking forward and back. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 21(7), 439–445.
- Zachary, G. P. (1998). The rage for global teams. *Technology Review*, 101(4), 33.
- Zakaria, N. (2006). *Culture matters? Understanding the impact of context on globally distributed decision making processes during WSIS*. Unpublished dissertation, Syracuse University.
- Zakaria, N. (2008). Managing intercultural communication differences in e-collaboration. In N. Kock (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of e-collaboration* (pp. 430–436). New York: Information Science Reference.
- Zakaria, N., Stanton, J. M., & Sarkar-Barney, S. T. M. (2003). Designing and implementing culturally-sensitive IT applications: The interaction of culture values and privacy issues in the Middle East. *Information Technology & People*, 16, 49–75.
- Zuckerman, D. S., & Higgins, M. B. (2002). Optimizing cross-organizational team performance and management. *Pharmaceutical Technology*, 26(6), 76–80.

Chapter 12

Faultline Deactivation: Dealing with Activated Faultlines and Conflicts in Global Teams

Martijn van der Kamp, Brian V. Tjemkes, and Karen A. Jehn

Many organizations rely on global teams to realize their objectives. Such teams are comprised of men and women who often have a range of nationalities and ages and represent multiple functions from different organizations. They come together in these diverse teams to perform highly complex tasks. Examples of global teams include international joint venture management teams, global virtual teams, and offshore outsourcing teams. While diversity has been found to benefit global teams (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000), other studies have shown that these teams are particularly prone to conflicts (Polzer, Crisp, Jarvenpaa, & Kim, 2006). For example, subgroup formation based on nationality, organization, or expertise has been identified as a major cause of conflict in these teams (Li & Hambrick, 2005). The faultline framework stipulates that team outcomes are hampered by conflicts as a result of activated faultlines (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010). Activated faultlines are perceived subgroups based on team faultlines; that is, hypothetical dividing lines that can split a team into subgroups based on one or more team member attributes. Therefore, identifying mechanisms to deal with activated faultlines in global teams could be a fruitful approach to better understand how conflicts in global teams can be prevented (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010; Li & Hambrick, 2005).

While extant studies have shown that activated faultlines consistently lead to team conflicts (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010; Pearsall, Ellis, & Evans, 2008), some more recent studies have outlined ways to prevent the negative adversities of

M. van der Kamp (✉) • K.A. Jehn, Ph.D.
Melbourne Business School, 200 Leicester St, Carlton, VIC 3053, Australia
e-mail: M.vanderkamp@mbs.edu; K.jehn@mbs.edu

B.V. Tjemkes, Ph.D.
Department of Management and Organization, VU University,
De Boelelaan 1105, Amsterdam 1081 HV, The Netherlands
e-mail: B.V.tjemkes@vu.nl

activated faultlines (cf. Thatcher & Patel, 2011). These studies, which investigate what we have termed faultline deactivation, suggest that team contextual elements such as team goal setting (van Knippenberg, Dawson, West, & Homan, 2011), leadership styles (Gratton, Voigt, & Erickson, 2007; Kunze & Bruch, 2010), and reward structures (Homan et al., 2008; Rico, Sánchez-Manzanares, Antino, & Lau, 2012) might mitigate the positive effect of activated faultlines on team conflicts. For example, Rico et al. (2012) found that teams with activated faultlines performed better when they have a superordinate goal than when they have a subgroup goal. While these studies indicate singular faultline deactivators, an integrated framework for faultline deactivation has not yet been developed.

While conflict and conflict management have been addressed as critical processes in global teams (Montoya-Weiss, Massey, & Song, 2001), it is somewhat surprising that most studies on global teams have neglected team conflict, conflict management, and its impact on team outcomes. Global team research is dominated by communication, leadership, location, time, and culture (Harvey & Griffith, 2007; Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999; Kayworth & Leidner, 2001; McDonough, Kahn, & Barczaka, 2001). Nevertheless, some studies have identified collective team trust (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999), communication structures (Kirkman, Rosen, Tesluk, & Gibson, 2006), and diversity training (Brandl & Neyer, 2009) as important means to improve global team processes and outcomes. These means might prove to be effective faultline deactivators when approached using the team faultline framework. Thus, research on global teams provides interesting leads to develop the faultline framework with regard to faultline deactivation and extend it into the field of global teams.

Several studies have attempted to better understand the antecedents and consequences of conflicts in global teams by reconciling the faultline framework with work on global teams (Gibson & Vermeulen, 2003; Li & Hambrick, 2005; Polzer et al., 2006). For example, Li and Hambrick (2005) empirically demonstrated that international joint venture teams have a very strong preexisting faultline that constitutes an important source of conflict and behavioral disintegration between subgroups. Polzer et al. (2006) showed that the global distribution of team members emphasizes faultlines in teams, which heightens conflict and reduces trust between subgroups. Although these studies have demonstrated the applicability of the faultline framework in global teams, faultline deactivation has not been an integral part of that reconciliation.

The present chapter aims to further reconcile research on team faultlines and global teams by developing a conceptual model that specifies how activated faultlines in global teams can be deactivated in order to prevent conflicts in these teams. In doing so, we suggest taking the crucial role of faultline deactivation into account and explaining how different elements in the teams' task context can trigger this deactivation process. By reconciling this logic with insights from the global team literature, we develop propositions regarding a set of faultline deactivators that are specifically suitable to deactivate faultlines in global teams. Finally, we translate our propositions into theoretical and managerial implications in order to stimulate progress in research and practice.

We aim to contribute to the faultline literature by suggesting that faultline deactivation can prevent conflicts that arise from activated faultlines. We also contribute by introducing a typology for faultline deactivators and noting that different types of conflicts are more responsive to certain deactivators than others. This chapter contributes to the literature on global teams by showing that the faultline framework provides a coherent explanation for conflicts in these teams. We specifically address the crucial roles of diversity training, superordinate team identity, direct channels for knowledge sharing, reflexivity, centralized leadership, and collective trust in deactivating faultlines and preventing conflicts in global teams. For each of these, we provide extensive managerial directions on the required preparation and implementation in global teams. The theory put forward in this chapter also leads to future research directions.

The Faultline Framework

A faultline is a hypothetical division between team members that, in itself, does not necessarily result in team conflicts. We need to make a distinction between dormant faultlines and activated faultlines in order to understand the effects of team faultlines on team conflict. A dormant faultline is the alignment of diversity attributes across members that may (or may not) divide a team into subgroups and is thus not necessarily perceived by team members (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010; Pearsall et al., 2008). Activated faultlines exist when members actually perceive separate subgroups based on dormant faultlines (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010). In the example of a team with two male Dutch marketers and two female Indian software engineers, this team has a strong dormant faultline on nationality, gender, and expertise. However, these faultlines may not be activated until these team members discuss how to approach their task and discover their different approaches due to their different expertise.

Faultlines are activated as team members identify with a subgroup based on social identification and social categorization processes (Lau & Murnighan, 1998; Thatcher & Patel, 2011). Social identity theory stipulates that the membership of a social group determines a person's identity and provides that person with safety and self-esteem. In addition, social categorization theory explains that people classify themselves with others based on perceived similarities and identify with these people as their in-group, motivated by the need for self-esteem and safety (Hogg & Terry, 2000); thus, people are drawn to form subgroups with similar others. For example, Bezrukova, Jehn, Zanutto, and Thatcher (2009) showed that subgroups may provide a safe environment in which people can deal better with stress because other subgroup members who are alike boost their confidence by "lending an ear" and helping to make an employee feel better. Furthermore, subgroups reduce the social complexity of team relationships when team members in a subgroup think along the same lines (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Therefore, faultline activation is the process that makes team members aware of subgroups based on demographic characteristics.

We make a distinction between different types of conflicts, as each has different origins and therefore requires different approaches to their prevention. Team conflict has been defined as “perceived incompatibilities or perceptions by the parties involved that they hold discrepant views or have interpersonal incompatibilities” (Jehn, 1997) and can be divided into three types: task, relationship, and process conflicts (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). Task conflicts are different ideas and opinions among team members regarding the task at hand (Jehn, 1997; Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). Relationship conflicts are disagreements and incompatibilities in terms of team members’ personal issues that are unrelated to their tasks, such as social events and rumors (Jehn, 1997; Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). Process conflicts are disagreements about how a task should be accomplished; for example, who should do what or how resources should be used (Jehn, 1997; Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). These distinctions are salient because the types of conflict are prone to different conflict management processes (Behfar, Peterson, Mannix, & Trochim, 2008).

Recent studies suggest that conflicts resulting from activated faultlines can be alleviated. Research on team goal setting (van Knippenberg et al., 2011), leadership styles (Gratton et al., 2007; Kunze & Bruch, 2010), and reward structures (Homan et al., 2008) suggests that the adversities of faultlines on team processes and outcomes can be overcome and, therefore, can be deactivated. For example, Homan et al. (2007) found that when team members had strong pro-diversity beliefs, they were able to overcome the negative effects of strong faultlines because they were convinced of the value that diversity could bring to their team in terms of task performance. While these studies provide evidence that faultlines can be deactivated, an integrated typology of faultline deactivation is yet to be developed.

While activated faultlines have been identified as a major factor in team conflicts, recent studies have suggested that the negative effects of team faultlines can be prevented. Below, we apply the faultline framework to global teams in order to identify how faultlines manifest themselves in these teams.

Team Faultlines and Conflict in Global Teams

Global teams are teams whose team members live in or originate from different countries and are culturally diverse (McDonough et al., 2001). Global teams bring together members who can contribute unique resources or knowledge in terms of the team’s task (Carton & Cummings, 2012), who can represent different organizations (Li & Hambrick, 2005), and may speak different languages (McDonough et al., 2001). These diversity characteristics determine the teams’ dormant faultlines and which type of conflicts are most likely to occur. The demographic and cultural profiles of the team members reflect fundamentally different values and sets of social institutions, including education systems and labor markets, which increases the likelihood of subgroups and conflicts forming between team members (Salk & Shenkar, 2001). In global teams, these differences often form a strong faultline along geographical, organizational, or functional boundaries (Li & Hambrick,

2005). For example, Doucet and Jehn (1997) described how cultural conflict between American and Chinese team members is the main hindrance to the success of Sino-American joint ventures.

These strong faultlines are easily activated in global teams, which often work across different time zones, are globally dispersed, span organizational boundaries, and use computer-mediated communication and collaboration systems (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999; Polzer et al., 2006). These contextual elements make it difficult for people with different backgrounds to connect to each other and understand each other's backgrounds and expertise, and they also emphasize the differences between potential subgroups on either side of the faultline. Accordingly, it is easy for social categorization to occur along these lines, which will result in in-group and out-group divisions (Lau & Murnighan, 1998). Global teams often contain team members from different companies that may have, for example, different reward systems and different objectives that emphasize differences between subgroups and are used by team members to set themselves apart from team members on the other side of the faultline (Homan et al., 2008; Li & Hambrick, 2005).

Therefore, team faultlines have a strong presence in global teams. The team task and work context often point to the differences between the groups on either side of the faultline, which brings activated faultlines to these teams. Therefore, we suggest that team faultlines are likely to be a main cause of conflicts in global teams. The next section addresses the measures that can be taken to effectively deal with these faultlines and prevent conflict resulting from team faultlines.

Faultline Deactivation in Global Teams

Here, we introduce the notion of faultline deactivation and define it as the process of minimizing the salience of activated faultlines in teams. Deactivation processes are triggered by faultline deactivators, which are events, behaviors, or circumstances within a team or a team's organizational workplace that shift attention away from demographically aligned and perceived subgroups (activated faultlines). Team members use salient demographics to implicitly categorize themselves into subgroups (Homan, Van Knippenberg, Van Kleef, & De Dreu, 2007; Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010). As these attributes lose their salience, subgroup categorizations based on the alignment of these characteristics (faultline strength) will lose their impact (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010), which will result in lower levels of conflict. Reducing the salience of attributes related to subgroup categorization will lessen the likelihood of team conflict and enable faultline teams to enjoy the benefits related to diversity in teams (van Knippenberg & De Dreu, 2004). For example, studies have shown that promoting a strong team identification (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010) and stimulating pro-diversity beliefs (Homan et al., 2007) can reduce the effect of team faultlines on team conflict and can therefore be seen as faultline deactivators. In the following section, we introduce a typology of faultline deactivators and then apply it to global teams.

A Typology of Faultline Deactivators

We divide faultline deactivators into structural and motivational deactivators (see Table 12.1). Structural deactivators are the structural (or tangible, physical) characteristics of a social system (such as the organization, the team, the task, and their interfaces) that define and describe the system's purpose, form, functioning, states, and future states (Bresman & Zellmer-Bruhn, 2013; Mathieu, Heffner, Goodwin, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 2000). Structural deactivators set the parameters and boundary conditions for the team, teamwork, and task, and decrease uncertainty and complexity for team members by making the team structural context more predictable, comprehensible, and less threatening (Brewer, 2004; Stevens & Fiske, 1995). These structural characteristics of the social system in which the team operates exist independently of the individual team members. These "hard" observable characteristics can often be willfully adapted or worked around. For example, a strong common goal set by an organization's management can unify team members to collaborate and overcome activated faultlines.

Motivational deactivators are characteristics of the team's social (or relational) environment (for example, expectations of team member behaviors; feelings of group identity, trust, self-efficacy) that direct the attitudes, behaviors, and social cognitive processes that affect team member motivation and define the interaction between team members and their willingness to cooperate (see Table 12.1; Brewer, 2004). Motivational deactivators strengthen the shared beliefs, values, norms, identities, or assumptions of the whole team and decrease these within the perceived subgroups (Randolph-Seng, Casa De Calvo, Zacchilli, & Cottle, 2010); this is beneficial for cross-understanding, an essential element for high-performing teams (Huber & Lewis, 2010). The characteristics of the social environment in which the team operates depend entirely on the individual team members and their interactions. It is often difficult to pinpoint these "soft" social processes and motivations and discuss them within a team. They are relatively subjective and hard to change. For example, consider how showing understanding and giving compliments across faultlines can help to bridge a faultline on national culture.

It is useful to make the distinction between structural and motivational deactivators because these deactivators provide alternative ways to deactivate a faultline. In some cases, the team structural characteristics are a given. Examples are global dispersion and virtual team work, which are structural elements that are often embedded in global teams and difficult to work around. In other cases, the team social characteristics are a given. In the example of a team that has been working together in a department for over a decade, their team processes, norms, and values are well established and team members will have internalized them to the point that they are no longer aware of them. In this way, distinguishing between structural and motivational deactivators enables team managers to tailor deactivation strategies or use one type of deactivator in situations where it is difficult to implement another.

Below, we present a model and propositions that depict how different deactivators are suitable for deactivating activated faultlines and preventing task, process, and

Table 12.1 Structural and motivational deactivators in global teams

Deactivator	Definition	Description
Structural deactivators		
Elements of a system that define and describe its purpose, form, functioning, states, and future states that shift attention away from activated faultlines		
Diversity training	A program that aims to facilitate positive intergroup interactions; reduce prejudice and discrimination; and enhance the skills, knowledge, and motivation of people to interact with diverse others	Prevents <i>relationship conflicts</i> as it teaches people about diversity of values, beliefs, and attitudes and how to work with this diversity. Diversity training can be part of a standard procedure for new teams to go through, a structure focused on the functioning of the team
Direct channels for knowledge sharing	Structured means of communication that facilitate direct knowledge sharing between team members	Prevent <i>task conflicts</i> as they support the easy communication and knowledge needed to successfully integrate their knowledge into their task. Their directness facilitates constructive discussions and prevents misunderstandings. They provide insight into the knowledge, language, and cues of the other subgroup that would otherwise remain fuzzy and lead to task conflicts
Centralized leadership	The presence of one team leader who provides direction and facilitates the team processes	Prevent <i>process conflicts</i> as they can point out the need, complementarity, and use of resources from a neutral middle person. A central leader can invite people to participate in the team and facilitate a constructive negotiation process, making process and outcomes more predictable
Motivational deactivators		
Elements in the team social context that provide guidance to attitudes, behaviors, and social cognitive processes that shift attention away from activated faultlines		
Superordinate team identity	The extent to which team members identify with the team as a social identity	Prevents <i>relationship conflicts</i> by learning about other team members' values, beliefs, and attitudes, which reduces stereotyping, discrimination, and intergroup bias; training teaches team members how to deal with these differences
Task reflexivity	The extent to which team members overtly reflect upon the team's objectives and task strategies (e.g., task approach) and adapt them to current or anticipated circumstances	Prevents <i>task conflicts</i> by integrating different "thought worlds" through the creation of shared insights and understanding, and stimulating collaboration over activated faultlines; reflexivity enables team members to reach goals they could not have reached by themselves
Collective trust	A common belief in a team that other team members make a good-faith effort to behave benevolently, are honest, and do not take excessive advantage of others	Prevents <i>process conflicts</i> by removing the uncertainty and ambiguity that global team members have about the allocation and use of team resources due to being convinced that other subgroups are benevolent, honest, and will not take excessive advantage of the resources or power they possess

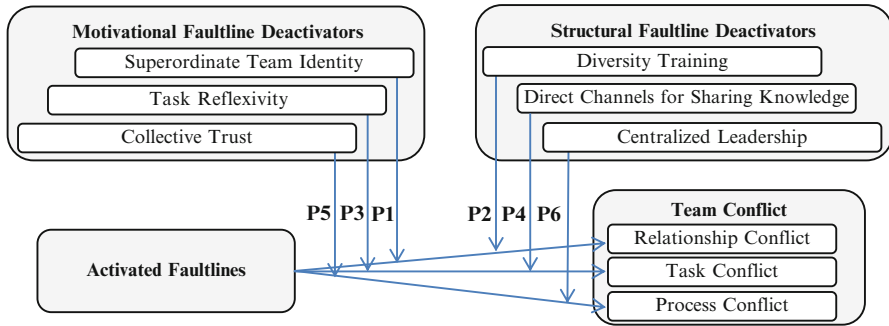


Fig. 12.1 Faultline deactivation in global teams

relationship conflicts in global teams. The propositions can be captured into one integrated faultline deactivation model for global teams (see Fig. 12.1). This model offers one common platform with which to explain, assess, and prevent three types of conflicts in global teams. We specifically outline why collective trust, reflexivity, and superordinate team identity as motivational deactivators, and diversity training, direct channels for knowledge sharing, and centralized leadership as structural deactivators can prevent conflict in global teams with activated faultlines. To help prevent conflicts in global teams, we also provide global team leaders with faultline deactivation guidelines on preparing and implementing each of these deactivators (see Table 12.2).

Preventing Relationship Conflicts from Activated Faultlines

The different cultural, organizational, and personal backgrounds of global team members can lead to diverse values, beliefs, and attitudes. The collision of these differences can often lead to relationship conflicts (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010). Consider the example of a software development team that includes members from a Dutch bank and an Indian software development firm; the Dutch team members connect relatively easily with their fellow Dutch team members because they have similar values, beliefs, and attitudes. They simplify the social context, provide social support, and provide a sense of belonging (Brewer, 2004; Stevens & Fiske, 1995). The same applies to the Indian team members. A sense of belonging and feelings of safety based on shared values, beliefs, and attitudes provide a strong basis for activated faultlines (Carton & Cummings, 2012). Other team members who have different values, beliefs, and attitudes may become a source of frustration, anxiety, and hostility for team members who are in a subgroup that tries to safeguard their subgroup identity, and this can lead to relationship conflicts in the team (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010). Relationship conflict originates from projected frustration and anxiety with interpersonal relationships and

Table 12.2 Faultline deactivation, implications for managers

Deactivator	Preparation	Implementation
Superordinate team identity	– Team reward structures	– Extensive introductions and social events
	– Team challenges	– Share and agree on norms with whole team
	– Team norms, values, and artifacts	– Fit subgroups into superordinate identity
Diversity training	– Institutional support	– Select facilitator
	– Systematic, broad approach	– Safe learning environment
	– Delivery mode	– Simple and focused materials
Task reflexivity	– Separate reflection and task	– Opportunities for socialization
	– Timing and medium	– Reflexivity skill training
	– Separate task and personal reflection	– Shared reflexivity rules and procedures
	– Implement outcomes	– Provide exemplar behavior
Direct channels for knowledge sharing	– Determine knowledge requirements	– Access to facilities and equipment
	– Match task complexity and content with media	– Cultural communication assessment
	– Communication protocols	– Create shared understanding of expertise
Collective trust	– Team location	– Deal with national trust stereotypes
	– Import trust experiences	– Trusting attitude
	– Develop routines	– Social information exchange
	– Team mission and vision	– Take initiative
Centralized leadership	– Select leader(s)	– Role model collaborative behavior and practices
	– Define team strategy and planning	– Distribute resources
	– Develop an inclusive team narrative	– Facilitate resource integration

interpersonal incompatibilities that are not task related, such as social relationships, friendships, and different values (Jehn, 1997). Here, we introduce superordinate team identity (motivational) and diversity training (structural) as deactivators that prevent relationship conflicts from activated faultlines in global teams.

Superordinate team identity in global teams. The presence of a superordinate team identity may act as a motivational deactivator of activated faultlines, preventing relationship conflicts in global teams (see Fig. 12.1). Superordinate team identity is the extent to which team members identify with the team as a social identity (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010; Kane, 2010). Superordinate team identity enables team members to see the value of other team members' values, beliefs, and attitudes (Kane, 2010) and also reduces bias and stereotyping between subgroups by leading team

members to focus on what they have in common (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Rink & Jehn, 2010). A strong focus on the overall team increases social cohesion and makes team members more willing to deal with different values, beliefs, and attitudes, even with intact subgroups in place; this, in turn, reduces the positive relationship between activated faultlines and conflicts (Rink & Jehn, 2010). With regard to teams with perceived subgroups, Jehn and Bezrukova (2010) found that superordinate team identity lessens the likelihood of conflicts and coalition formation. Therefore, we propose:

Proposition 1: In global teams, superordinate team identity moderates the positive effect of activated faultlines on relationship conflict, such that a stronger superordinate team identity weakens the positive relationship between activated faultlines and relationship conflicts.

Preparing and implementing a superordinate team identity. Introducing a superordinate team identity in global teams involves developing shared norms, values, and beliefs about what the team is and what it does (see Table 12.2; Kane, 2010). In teams that have very strong activated faultlines, such as global teams, team members often strongly identify with their subgroup identities, which makes it necessary to think how subgroup identities might fit into the superordinate team identity (Crisp, Stone, & Hall, 2006). Shared rewards structures and team challenges can be used to instigate a superordinate team identity. It can be challenging to structure financial rewards given that team members are often paid in different currencies and through different organizations, and pay levels vary between countries. Other types of rewards, such as performance recognition, satisfying work, responsibilities, promotions, or learning opportunities might be more appropriate. Rewarding team performance as opposed to individual or subgroup performance can help stimulate superordinate team identity. Examples of team challenges that can help a team to forge a superordinate identity include organizational competition, interteam competition, and challenging tasks (van Knippenberg et al., 2011).

When implementing a superordinate team identity, it is essential to introduce the team members with regard to their expertise, resources, values, beliefs, attitudes, and their role vis-à-vis the team objective (see Table 12.2; Homan et al., 2008), especially in cases where team members are globally dispersed. Team norms, values, beliefs, a team name, logos, and other team artifacts and symbols all embody a team's identity and affirming and sharing them will strengthen the team identity (Randolph-Seng et al., 2010). For example, a team's name supports its identity, as seen for example when a football team's fans chant the team's name. Managers should give subgroups space to present their viewpoint and work separately on some parts of the task, but should emphasize that the subgroups are expected to collaborate on some aspect of the team task in order to foster subgroup identities within the superordinate team identity (Crisp et al., 2006). Finally, team social events and team (milestone) celebrations are a great opportunity to experience shared success and exchange social information.

Diversity training in global teams. Diversity training functions as a structural deactivator of activated faultlines, which prevents relationship conflicts in global teams (see Fig. 12.1). Diversity training has been defined as a program that aims to facilitate

positive intergroup interactions; to reduce prejudice and discrimination; and to enhance the skills, knowledge, and motivation of people to interact with diverse others (Pendry, Driscoll, & Field, 2007). Primarily, diversity training socializes team members, aligns team members' expectations toward each other and the team's goals and values, and helps them recognize the importance of diversity (Kulik & Roberson, 2008). Diversity training also encourages team members to reduce stereotyping, discrimination, and intergroup bias among team members with different values, beliefs, and attitudes (Bezrukova, Jehn, & Spell, 2012). Diversity training also identifies the barriers between subgroups and provides ways to overcome them (Pendry et al., 2007), while creating pro-diversity beliefs that have been shown to reduce conflicts as a result of team faultlines (Homan et al., 2007). In order for such training to be effective in the long term, it should be accompanied by needs assessments, diversity skill training (such as communication and decision making), and the correct circumstances in which to transfer learnings into the work field (Kulik & Roberson, 2008). Therefore, once global team members have learned about the values, interests, and beliefs of the other subgroups, understood them, and have been provided with the skills and circumstances to transfer learnings to the work field, they will be able to deactivate faultlines and prevent relationship conflicts. This leads to proposition 2 below:

Proposition 2: In global teams, diversity training moderates the positive effect of activated faultlines on relationship conflict, such that diversity training weakens the positive relationship between activated faultlines and relationship conflicts.

Preparing and implementing diversity training. During the preparation phase, extensive knowledge and experience of different cultures, prejudices, and stereotypes is indispensable (see Table 12.2; Pendry et al., 2007). The practical knowledge of consultants and the theoretical and methodological support from academics is invaluable, whether they are heavily involved or merely asked for a review of an already existing training (Bezrukova et al., 2012). Stand-alone diversity training can have adverse effects in terms of highlighting faultlines between subgroups; therefore, a broad systematic approach to diversity training is generally preferable (Bezrukova et al., 2012). As part of such an approach, an effective first step is often a needs assessment to identify the major differences in a global team, where different national cultures, organizational cultures, and personalities are involved. The next step is to determine how all these differences could affect the daily functioning of the team. For successful training, it is crucial to relate the training to the daily practical reality and practice using role-plays and other forms of experiential learning. From a cost perspective, especially in globally distributed teams, it is worthwhile considering how the training will be conducted (online, in person, or a perhaps a combination of methods).

People from different cultures and different fields of expertise may be accustomed to different instruction methods, ranging from instructive to more participative. Global teams often need a facilitator who can accommodate and bring the different learning styles together and create a shared understanding of diversity in the team (see Table 12.2). Moreover, facilitators can relate diversity training to past

“real-life” incidents, previous experiences, and apply them to future team challenges and expected incidents. A safe, trusting learning environment facilitates the best team learning (Edmondson, 1999). A facilitator stimulates such an environment by asking thoughtful questions; acknowledging other beliefs, values, and attitudes; and showing awareness of his or her own shortcomings (Edmondson, 2012). The international audience of a global team is best served with materials that present simple and focused messages. Trainings should include time for informal socialization (such as regular breaks and after-training drinks) to stimulate interpersonal connections between team members.

Preventing Task Conflicts from Activated Faultlines

Team members are often in a global team because they have specific knowledge and experience related to the team’s task (McDonough et al., 2001). Consider the above-mentioned example of the software development team that includes team members from the Dutch bank and the Indian software development firm. In this team, the Dutch are marketing experts and understand the requirements of their customers, whereas the Indians have technical knowledge about building websites. People with similar knowledge and expertise find it easier to relate to each other as they share similar work interests, and their knowledge has more meaning to others with similar knowledge, which means they are better valued than team members who do not have that knowledge (Harrison & Klein, 2007). Team members with different knowledge and experience often have different views of the task and how to approach it, and also often speak different technical languages, which makes it difficult to relate to team members with different expertise (Carton & Cummings, 2012). These different “thought worlds” can be hard to integrate and have shown to be a main cause of task conflicts (Choi & Sy, 2010). Task conflicts originate from disagreements regarding the task and include different viewpoints, ideas, and opinions about the task (Jehn, 1997). We introduce task reflexivity (motivational) and direct channels for sharing knowledge (structural) as key deactivators that prevent task conflicts from activated faultlines in global teams.

Task reflexivity in global teams. Task reflexivity acts as a motivational deactivator of activated faultlines and prevents task conflicts in global teams (see Fig. 12.1). Task reflexivity is the extent to which team members overtly reflect upon the team’s task objectives and task strategies (for example, task approach) and adapt them to current or anticipated circumstances (West, Garrod, & Carletta, 1997). While task reflexivity is certainly not a panacea for improving team performance (Moreland & McMinn, 2010), in the context of global teams it can enable the integration of different “thought worlds” of team members with different fields of expertise as they compare different approaches to a task, lines of thought, and goals (Nederveen Pieterse, van Knippenberg, & van Ginkel, 2011; van Ginkel & van Knippenberg, 2009). Reflexivity helps overcome intergroup biases by creating shared insights and

understanding when team members evaluate a task together and integrate these insights in plans for the future (Schippers, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2007). Reflexivity also helps project the lessons learned into actions to bridge knowledge gaps (Schippers, Den Hartog, Koopman, & van Knippenberg, 2008). Given that reflexivity helps teams to integrate knowledge and with that bridge activated faultlines, we offer the following proposition:

Proposition 3: In global teams, task reflexivity moderates the positive effect of activated faultlines on task conflicts, such that higher levels of reflexivity weaken the positive relationship between activated faultlines and task conflicts.

Preparing and implementing task reflexivity. When preparing to establish reflexivity as a practice in a global team, the first step should be to separate the time used for reflexivity from time used to focus on the task (see Table 12.2; Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001; Okhuysen & Eisenhardt, 2002); this will enable the team members to truly focus on reflection and see it as a separate task. Global teams that work across different time zones and locations must decide when reflection will take place. Some teams will start each day with a short reflection period, while others prefer to stick to milestone moments depending on the task characteristics. For example, many software development teams rely on continuous communication and feedback supported by software tools. Global teams often think about what to reflect on and through which medium. For example, software tools can be used on a daily basis, while this is not always the case for face-to-face meetings. It is better to reflect on major strategic decisions and conflicts in person (Bradley, 2008). Reflection on tasks should not be combined with reflections on personal relationships, so as to prevent “bitching sessions” and negativity. Finally, it is crucial to strategize on implementing the outcomes of the reflection, as this is ultimately what reflexivity is all about.

Reflecting is as much a skill as a practice (see Table 12.2; Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2011). In order to stimulate this skill, team members can be trained in practices such as giving and receiving feedback, brainstorming, questioning, taking perspectives, and sharing information to combine ideas and create new solutions (Tjosvold, Hui, & Yu, 2003). Team members must remain critical of one another, but do so with respect, patience, and understanding as they enquire with curiosity and stimulate team members to think further than they would by themselves. Team members together can establish rules and procedures for reflection based on the learned skills (that is, what will be on the agenda for reflection, who will keep track of the lessons learned, and how will these lessons be used for future teams). Transparency, benevolence, and open debates all contribute to constructive dialogs and are easily stimulated by exemplar behavior.

Direct channels for sharing knowledge in global teams. Direct channels for sharing knowledge act as structural deactivators of activated faultlines, preventing task conflicts in global teams (see Fig. 12.1). Direct channels for sharing knowledge are structured means of communication that facilitate direct exchange of information and knowledge between team members. Geographical, technical, temporal, and language barriers mean that communication in global teams is not always straightforward. Communication structures such as shared coffee breaks for collocated global

teams, online communication, access to databases, and face-to-face meetings all support the sharing of knowledge that is required to agree on a common language and successfully integrate each other's knowledge into the task (Kirkman et al., 2006; Rockmann, Pratt, & Northcraft, 2007; Wilkesmann, Wilkesmann, & Virgillito, 2009). These channels facilitate constructive discussions and prevent misunderstandings that lead to negative task conflicts. The more directly these channels create interaction between team members, the more often constructive knowledge will be shared (Gibson & Vermeulen, 2003; Wilkesmann et al., 2009). For example, sharing a database or communicating through e-mail is less direct than a video-call or an in-person meeting. Direct channels for sharing knowledge offer insight into the knowledge, language, and cues of the other subgroup that would otherwise remain fuzzy and lead to task conflicts (Gibson & Vermeulen, 2003). Therefore, we propose:

Proposition 4: In global teams, the use of direct channels for sharing knowledge moderates the positive effect of activated faultlines on task conflicts, such that teams with more use of direct channels for knowledge sharing have less task conflict as a result of activated faultlines.

Preparing and implementing direct channels for sharing knowledge. A good first step in preparing direct channels for sharing knowledge is to identify which knowledge is to be exchanged, and to what extent, in order to complete different elements of the teams' task (see Table 12.2). The task complexity, work flow, and technical infrastructure are key determinants in selecting the knowledge sharing channels. Complex tasks require large amounts of knowledge exchange, coordination, and reciprocal communication, and therefore more synchronous technologies, than simple tasks (for a detailed discussion and available technologies and when to apply them see: Bradley, 2008; Riopelle et al., 2003). For example, the presence of electricity and network infrastructure will impact which media is available for use (Riopelle et al., 2003). Miscommunications and misunderstandings can be prevented by linking specific media to specific content so that conversations remain synchronized between the appropriate parties (King & Majchrzak, 2003). For example, milestone decisions are always made face to face with the whole team. Communication protocols, procedures, and templates help ensure the quality, timeliness, and directness of knowledge sharing by streamlining and structuring communication flows (Oshri, Van Fenema, & Kotlarsky, 2008).

Different time zones, cultures, languages, and the creation of shared understanding are all hurdles to be overcome when implementing direct channels for knowledge sharing in global teams. Working across different time zones often involves working outside traditional office hours. Team members must be able to use the relevant communication media (such as teleconferences, e-mail) and have access to office buildings and other facilities (security settings, parking facilities, etc.) (see Table 12.2; Riopelle et al., 2003). Team members from different cultures will have preferences for different communication media based on their national norms and values (Riopelle et al., 2003). A cultural communication assessment can help identify how different cultures deal with the exchange of knowledge. Furthermore, team members may speak different languages and use jargon that varies based on their technical backgrounds (Carton & Cummings, 2012). To overcome these technical barriers, it is important to realize that not all team members need to possess all

knowledge. While knowing which knowledge needs to be shared by everyone will help disseminate the knowledge to everyone (Randolph-Seng et al., 2010), having a shared understanding of the expertise of other team members and knowing how to tap into that expertise is the key to its application and integration (Oshri et al., 2008).

Preventing Process Conflicts from Activated Faultlines

In global teams, power, and resources are often divided over multiple locations or groups of team members, and integrating these resources often leads to process conflicts (Polzer et al., 2006). Team members derive power and status from resources such as their team role, seniority, or decision making power. In the example of the Dutch–Indian software development team, the Dutch represent a bank and the Indians represent a software development firm. The vendor–buyer difference here forms a primary demarcation in the teams’ resource and power distribution, which activates faultlines between team members representing the vendor and those representing the buyer (Li & Hambrick, 2005). The division of resources and power forms a basis for activated faultlines and affects team members’ desire for social inequality and competition between subgroups (Carton & Cummings, 2012). The integration of resources and the (re)distribution of power, which is needed to complete the task, often leads to process conflicts (Greer, Caruso, & Jehn, 2011). Process conflicts originate from disagreements regarding how to complete a task and involve allocating responsibilities; utilizing human resources; and delegating duties, power, and resources (Jehn, 1997). We introduce collective trust (motivational) and centralized leadership (structural) as key deactivators that prevent process conflicts from activated faultlines in global teams.

Collective trust in global teams. Collective trust acts as a motivational deactivator of activated faultlines and helps prevent process conflicts in global teams (see Fig. 12.1). Collective trust has been defined as a common belief within a team that other team members make a good-faith effort to behave benevolently and honestly and do not take excessive advantage of another, even when presented with the opportunity to do so (Kirkman et al., 2006; Simons & Peterson, 2000). Simons and Peterson (2000) found that collective trust reduces team conflicts. Collective trust removes the uncertainty and ambiguity that members of global teams have regarding the allocation and use of team resources and power in global teams (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). In addition, collective trust facilitates collaboration and communication as team members become more perceptive to other team members’ differences and more willing to adopt new perspectives about these (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). Therefore, we propose that once members of global teams are convinced that other subgroups are benevolent, honest, and will not take excessive advantage of the resources or power they possess, they can deactivate faultlines and prevent the process conflicts that they might otherwise perceive (Polzer et al., 2006).

Proposition 5: In global teams, collective trust moderates the positive effect of activated faultlines on process conflicts, such that stronger collective trust weakens the positive relationship between activated faultlines and process conflicts.

Preparing and developing collective trust. Decisions regarding team location, team selection, and team interaction create the conditions for growing trust in teams (see Table 12.2). Studies have shown that colocated teams develop trust more easily than dispersed teams, although dispersed teams develop trust more easily when team members are spread across multiple locations as opposed to just two locations (Polzer et al., 2006). Team members who have previously worked well together, or have previous experience of working in trusting teams, will import these experiences in order to quickly develop trust in the early phases of their global teamwork (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). Early introduction of team members to one another, frequent interaction, and the development of routines for inclusive interaction (for example, fixing meeting times, agendas, and upcoming holidays of all team members) help reduce uncertainty and complexity and promote inclusion and, as such, develop trust in the team (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). A strong team mission and clear division of tasks further reduce uncertainty and promote trust.

Trust is best maintained by managing uncertainty, complexity, and expectations (see Table 12.2). The countries that team members come from affect perceptions of their trustworthiness (Ertug, Cuyper, Noorderhaven, & Bensaou, 2013). Previous experience working in global teams, maintaining a long time horizon for collaboration, and including national stereotypes in diversity training can help import previous trust experiences from other teams, deal with national stereotypes, and develop a long-term future vision. Trust can be built with the right attitude. A “highly active, proactive, enthusiastic, generative style of action” (Meyerson, Weick, & Kramer, 1996, p. 180) fosters trust because it creates a belief in team progress and reduces (social) uncertainty, as does the exchange of social information such as family details, hobbies, or shared interests, both in early and later team phases (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). Team members looking out for each other, taking initiative, and having swift and reliable communication also strengthen trust in global teams.

Centralized leadership in global teams. Centralized leadership can act as a structural deactivator of activated faultlines, preventing process conflicts in global teams (see Fig. 12.1). Centralized leadership occurs when a team has one leader (or a leading group comprised of people who represent different subgroups) that provides direction and facilitates the team (Carton & Cummings, 2012; Hogg, Van Knippenberg, & Rast, 2012). A central leader can prevent process conflicts by coordinating the teamwork process and acting as a facilitator between subgroups by pointing out the need and complementarity of different resources and their use to the overall task of the team (DeChurch & Marks, 2006). Furthermore, a central leader can create a psychologically safe environment for all team members by showing appreciation and by inviting lower status team members to join in the task (Nemphard & Edmondson, 2006). A constructive negotiation process and a safe team climate makes the outcomes for subgroups more predictable and increases the team members’ willingness to break down subgroup barriers and prevent process conflicts (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Centralized leaders facilitate and soothe intergroup processes (Hogg et al., 2012). Together this leads us to propose the following:

Proposition 6: In global teams, centralized team leadership moderates the positive effect of activated faultlines on process conflicts, such that stronger centralized team leadership weakens the positive relationship between activated faultlines and process conflicts.

Preparing and implementing centralized leadership. When considering centralized leadership, the first question to answer is who will be leading the team (see Table 12.2). Whether the answer is one particular person or multiple people, and whether they are already part of or new to the team, there will be specific challenges (for a review see: Hogg et al., 2012). The team leaders will have to develop the team strategy by setting a strong purpose and a clear statement on how different organizations, people, locations, and resources must work together to realize this purpose. Such a strategy prepares for a smooth team process (DeChurch & Marks, 2006). Team leaders should also develop a work order and time planning of activities, together with a communication plan for the team members, in order to provide structure and help team members deal with uncertainty (DeChurch & Marks, 2006). The communication plan and other team narratives (such as speeches and presentations) should emphasize the qualities and complementarities of team members and why the whole is greater than the sum of its parts (Hogg et al., 2012). Team members will then not only know why they need to collaborate, but also how.

As the team starts to work, the role of the leader transitions from strategy to team coordination. In this stage, the leader should primarily act as a role model of the desired collaborative behavior between team members (see Table 12.2; Hogg et al., 2012). As part of the coordination activities (DeChurch & Marks, 2006), the team leader can distribute and redistribute resources and update the team on the status and demands of all others; for example, across different locations or different fields of expertise. Most importantly, the leader acts as a facilitator and coach, with a main purpose of integrating and combining resources toward task completion (Hogg et al., 2012). Other tasks involve updating the team on future events, managing uncertainty in the team's external environment, and setting the sequence and timing of events. While on the task, experienced leaders can introduce their previous experiences of good global team collaborative practices and extend these to the current team (Hogg et al., 2012).

Overall, the theoretical model presented here advances the faultline framework to a faultline model that can be applied to deactivate faultlines in global teams. At a fundamental level, the model generates insights into how and why different conflicts in teams arise as a result of team faultlines and the contextual elements that render faultlines salient in teams. Next, we discuss the theoretical and overall managerial implications of the presented model.

Discussion and Conclusion

The concept of activated faultlines is important when explaining conflicts in global teams. Such conflicts have been largely associated with the occurrence of team faultlines (Thatcher & Patel, 2011). While exploration of activated faultlines is not new, prior studies have largely neglected the fact that team faultlines can be deactivated and that team conflicts as a result of activated faultlines can be prevented. Furthermore, studies have largely overlooked how conflicts in global teams can be effectively prevented. The model presented here advances the team faultline literature by offering a

model that deals with the dynamics of faultline deactivation and conflict prevention in global teams. Our model of faultline deactivation has implications for theory, practice, and future research, each of which we discuss below.

Theoretical Implications

Overall, we show that conflicts as a result of activated faultlines in global teams can be prevented. We have introduced a typology of faultline deactivators and specifically explained that different types of conflicts have different origins, which means that they require different faultline deactivators. We have also shown that activated faultlines and faultline deactivators provide a systematic framework with which to explain conflicts and the prevention thereof in the applied context of global teams.

These theoretical developments have implications for research into team faultlines and global teams. The proposed model challenges the underlying assumption found in much of the extant research that faultlines will mostly lead to team conflicts. Studies have found that team faultlines have numerous negative effects (c.f. Thatcher & Patel, 2011), whereas other studies have found faultlines to have beneficial results, such as increased team learning (Gibson & Vermeulen, 2003) and safety perceptions (Bezrukova et al., 2009). Our faultline model suggests that applying a faultline deactivator is one way to effectively deal with faultlines. We suggest that the right deactivator can be selected based on the team's activated faultlines and the team's structural and social context. Deactivating faultlines reduces team conflicts and makes them more productive.

Our model refines the view on the team's task context by distinguishing structural and motivational deactivators. The team's task context strongly influences faultlines and their consequences (Lau & Murnighan, 1998; Pearsall et al., 2008). However, the concept of the team's task context remains rather vague in the team literature. In the present chapter we have described the structural and motivational context as two distinct elements that directly affect team faultlines. This distinction enables researchers to search for more specific deactivators of team faultlines and detail the theory on faultline deactivation. Further scrutiny of the teams' structural and social context for activators and deactivators could point to elements that have previously remained unidentified and can now be established as faultline activators and deactivators.

We related activated faultlines to different types of team conflicts and showed that different faultline deactivators facilitate the prevention of specific relationship, task, or process conflicts. Task conflicts, for example, originate from having different views on a task, which often result from different technical backgrounds, experiences, or education. Direct communication systems help to overcome activated faultlines on these characteristics by facilitating knowledge exchanges between groups. These insights can be used to assess activated faultlines and determine

which deactivators will be most effective in preventing relationship, task, and process conflicts.

Global teams are characterized by strong faultlines caused by differences in values, beliefs, and attitudes resulting from the presence of multiple nationalities in the teams. Furthermore, team members are often in these teams because of their specific knowledge or experience and their access to different resources. Given that global team members represent different companies, are globally dispersed, and use virtual means to connect, it is no surprise that these faultlines are often activated. Our model primarily guides the assessment of the structural and motivational environment of the team in order to explore different faultline deactivators. Specifically, we suggested that superordinate team identity and diversity training are structural and motivational deactivators to prevent relationship conflict; task reflexivity and direct channels for knowledge sharing to prevent task conflicts; and collective team trust and centralized leadership to prevent process conflicts.

Managerial Implications

This chapter has discussed how the various faultline deactivators can be prepared for and implemented into the daily practice of global teams. Each of these deactivators can support the prevention of team conflicts. However, it is the combination of these deactivators as a complete package, along with team member selection, that will enable effective conflict management in global teams. It is essential to conduct a cost–benefit analysis to decide which of the deactivators to implement. While it is, of course, possible to implement the whole package, close consideration of the team’s activated faultlines, structural, and motivational context will help when making decisions about which measures to take, as each of these factors will have associated costs. Decisions on structural deactivators can be made in the early team phase and fine-tuned once the team is up and running, together with the implementation of motivational deactivators. Complete, reliable, and timely information about team faultlines, deactivators, team processes, and outcomes are essential for preventing conflicts in current and future global teams.

We provide measures of the introduced motivational deactivators (see Appendix); superordinate team identity (Mael & Ashforth, 1992), reflexivity (Schippers et al., 2007), and collective trust (Kirkman et al., 2006). The outcomes of structural deactivators (see Appendix) can be assessed through cognitive, affective, and behavioral learning for diversity training (for an overview and measures see: Bezrukova et al., 2012). Technology support (Kirkman et al., 2006) and behavioral integration (Li & Hambrick, 2005) can help quantify direct channels for knowledge sharing. Measuring the concern for opportunism (Murtha, Challagalla, & Kohli, 2011) and intergroup competition (Mael & Ashforth, 1992) can help to identify the need and direction for centralized leadership. Prior studies have also provided reliable measures for team faultlines (Thatcher, Jehn, & Zanutto, 2003), activated faultlines

(Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010), and team conflicts (Jehn, Greer, Levine, & Szulanski, 2008). These measures assist in decision making on changes in team composition, adjusting or adding faultline deactivators.

Future Research

Research on global teams distinguishes between virtual teams, globally dispersed teams, and colocated teams (McDonough et al., 2001). In the present chapter, we have essentially dealt with teams consisting of global team members, but have only dealt indirectly with the effects of virtual team work, global dispersion, and interorganizational teams. Faultlines and their effects have been studied in international joint venture management teams and student teams that are globally dispersed; however, faultline deactivators have not been part of that (Li & Hambrick, 2005; Polzer et al., 2006). Future research could extend the work on faultline deactivation in global teams to the specific contexts of teams that are globally dispersed or work together in a virtual environment. The structural and motivational environment of these teams differs greatly across these types of teams; understanding their effects on team faultlines would create further understanding of team conflicts and, ultimately, team performance in global teams.

A particularly interesting avenue for future research is the effect of team faultlines and faultline deactivation over time. We have shown how a faultline deactivator can change the effect of faultlines on team conflict, while previous work on team faultlines has shown that faultlines can also be easily activated (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010; Pearsall et al., 2008). For example, Pearsall et al. (2008) found that a gender-related task, such as working on a male razor-blade advertising campaign can easily trigger gender-based faultlines in teams. In addition, identification with subgroups can be very temporary because it is so context specific (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Therefore, future studies could focus on the interplay between faultline activation and deactivation, and determine the difficulty of activating and deactivating faultlines. We consider it likely that the presented deactivators might also work to prevent activated faultlines. Therefore, studies that determine which deactivators work most effectively with activated faultlines are also encouraged.

Although we have made a first step by introducing a set of faultline deactivators, we suggest that future research would benefit from testing the propositions articulated in this article and investigating the different faultline deactivators over various applied contexts. We have presented a set of six faultline deactivators that relate directly to the characteristics of activated faultlines and the mechanisms that turns these into relationship, task, and process conflicts in global teams. Future research could trace the origins of these types of conflicts for teams in different applied settings in order to provide a deeper understanding of faultline deactivation and identify faultline deactivators tailored to that setting. Also, within the setting of global teams, there are likely to be other faultline deactivators that relate to task, process, and relationship conflict, or even a combination of these that future studies could reveal.

Conclusion

Despite recent advances in the literature on global teams and team faultlines, the ways in which the negative effects of team faultlines in global teams can be prevented remain largely unclear. By developing a conceptual model of faultline deactivation that relates to activated faultlines and different types of conflicts, the present chapter has identified how faultline deactivators are essential for preventing conflicts in global teams. We have set the stage for a structured approach to team faultlines and faultline deactivation in global teams for both researchers and practitioners. Ultimately, we hope to increase the effectiveness of teams in organizations and the pleasures of teamwork by providing a better understanding of conflict management in global teams.

Appendix: Measurement of Faultline Deactivators

Deactivator	Measurement
Superordinate team identity	Superordinate Team Identity (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010)
	– When someone criticizes the team, it feels like a personal insult
	– I am very interested in what others think about the team
	– When I talk about this team, I usually say “we” rather than “they”
	– This team’s successes are my successes
	– When someone praises this team, it feels like a personal compliment
Diversity training	– If a story in the media criticized the team, I would feel embarrassed
	Diversity Training Outcomes (Bezrukova, 2012)
	Cognitive learning: Have team members acquired knowledge? Affective learning: Have team members changed diversity attitudes and self-efficacy? Behavioral learning: Are team members able to apply the acquired knowledge and skills?
Task reflexivity	Task reflexivity (Schippers et al., 2007)
	– In our team we talk about different ways in which we can reach our objectives
	– In our team we work out what we can learn from past activities
	– We check whether our teams’ activities produced the expected results
	– In this team the results of actions are evaluated
	– The team often reviews its objectives
	– The methods used by the team to get the job done are discussed frequently
	– We regularly discuss whether the team is working effectively
– The team often reviews whether it’s getting the job done	

(continued)

Deactivator	Measurement
Direct channels for knowledge sharing	Technology support (Kirkman et al., 2006)
	– The team members have adequate technology to work together effectively
	– The team’s performance would greatly improve if members had better technology (R)
	– The team members are sufficiently trained to use the technology to its full potential
	Behavioral Integration (Li & Hambrick, 2005)
	– When major decisions are made affecting our work, team members collectively exchange their points of view
Collective trust	– In my team, team members frequently share their experience and expertise
	– All the team members have a voice in major decisions affecting our work
	Intrateam Trust (Kirkman et al., 2006)
	– My team members have a high degree of trust in each other
Centralized leadership	– My team members believe that others in the team will follow through on their commitments
	– My team members always do what they say they will do
	– My team members trust each other to contribute worthwhile ideas
	Concern for Opportunism (Murtha et al., 2011)
	I am concerned about my team members...
	– Exaggerating their needs to get what they desire
	– Taking undue credit for achievements of other team members
	– Altering the facts to get what they want
	– Trying to make me a scapegoat for problems within this team
	– Hiding important information from me
	Intergroup Competition (Mael & Ashforth, 1992)
	– There is a rivalry between groups in my team
	– Team members are constantly comparing and rating the groups
	– Team members point out reasons why their team is the best
– People in our team see each other as competitors based on their group membership	

References

Behfar, K. J., Peterson, R. S., Mannix, E. A., & Trochim, W. M. K. (2008). The critical role of conflict resolution in teams: A close look at the links between conflict type, conflict management strategies, and team outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(1), 170–188.

Bezrukova, K., Jehn, K. A., Zanutto, E., & Thatcher, S. M. (2009). Do workgroup faultlines help or hurt? A moderated model of faultlines, team identification, and group performance. *Organization Science, 20*(1), 35–50.

Bezrukova, K., Jehn, K. A., & Spell, C. S. (2012). Reviewing diversity training: Where we have been and where we should go. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 11*(2), 207–227.

Bradley, L. (2008). The technology that supports virtual team collaboration. In J. Nemiro, M. M. Beyerlein, L. Bradley, & S. Beyerlein (Eds.), *The handbook of high performance virtual teams: A toolkit for collaborating across boundaries*. San Francisco: Wiley.

- Brandl, J., & Neyer, A. K. (2009). Applying cognitive adjustment theory to cross-cultural training for global virtual teams. *Human Resource Management, 48*(3), 341–353.
- Bresman, H., & Zellmer-Bruhn, M. (2013). The structural context of team learning: effects of organizational and team structure on internal and external learning. *Organization Science, 24*(4), 1120–1139.
- Brewer, M. B. (2004). Taking the social origins of human nature seriously: Toward a more imperialist social psychology. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 8*(2), 107–113.
- Carton, A. M., & Cummings, J. N. (2012). A theory of subgroups in teams. *Academy of Management Review, 37*(3), 441–470.
- Choi, J. N., & Sy, T. (2010). Group-level organizational citizenship behavior: Effects of demographic faultlines and conflict in small work groups. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(7), 1032–1054.
- Crisp, R. J., Stone, C. H., & Hall, N. R. (2006). Recategorization and subgroup identification: Predicting and preventing threats from common ingroups. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin, 32*(2), 230–243.
- DeChurch, L. A., & Marks, M. A. (2006). Leadership in multiteam systems. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(2), 311–329.
- Doucet, L., & Jehn, K. A. (1997). Analyzing harsh words in a sensitive setting: American expatriates in communist China. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 18*(S1), 559–582.
- Earley, P. C., & Mosakowski, E. (2000). Creating hybrid team cultures: An empirical test of transnational team functioning. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*(1), 26–49.
- Edmondson, A. C. (1999). Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 44*(2), 350–383.
- Edmondson, A. C. (2012). Teamwork on the fly. *Harvard Business Review, 90*(4), 72–80.
- Ertug, G., Cuypers, I. R. P., Noorderhaven, N. G., & Bensaou, B. M. (2013). Trust between international joint venture partners: Effects of home countries. *Journal of International Business Studies, 44*(3), 263–282.
- Gibson, C., & Vermeulen, F. (2003). A healthy divide: Subgroups as a stimulus for team learning behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 48*(2), 202–239.
- Gratton, L., Voigt, A., & Erickson, T. (2007). Bridging faultlines in diverse teams. *MIT Sloan Management Review, 48*(4), 22–29.
- Greer, L., Caruso, H. M., & Jehn, K. A. (2011). The bigger they are, the harder they fall: Linking team power, team conflict, and performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 116*(1), 116–128.
- Harrison, D. A., & Klein, K. J. (2007). What's the difference? Diversity constructs as separation, variety, or disparity in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 32*(4), 1199–1228.
- Harvey, M. G., & Griffith, D. A. (2007). The role of globalization, time acceleration, and virtual global teams in fostering successful global product launches. *Journal of Product Innovation Management, 24*(5), 486–501.
- Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. J. (2000). Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. *Academy of Management Review, 25*(1), 121–140.
- Hogg, M. A., Van Knippenberg, D., & Rast, D. E., III. (2012). Intergroup leadership in organizations: Leading across group and organizational boundaries. *Academy of Management Review, 37*(2), 232–255.
- Homan, A. C., Hollenbeck, J. R., Humphrey, S. E., Van Knippenberg, D., Ilgen, D. R., & Van Kleef, G. A. (2008). Facing differences with an open mind: Openness to experience, salience of intragroup differences, and performance of diverse work groups. *Academy of Management Journal, 51*(6), 1204–1222.
- Homan, A. C., Van Knippenberg, D., Van Kleef, G. A., & De Dreu, C. K. W. (2007). Bridging faultlines by valuing diversity: Diversity beliefs, information elaboration, and performance in diverse work groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(5), 1189–1199.
- Huber, G. P., & Lewis, K. (2010). Cross-understanding: Implications for group cognition and performance. *Academy of Management Review, 35*(1), 6–26.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., & Leidner, D. E. (1999). Communication and trust in global virtual teams. *Organization Science, 10*(6), 791–815.

- Jehn, K. A. (1997). Qualitative analysis of conflict types and dimensions in organizational groups. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 42(3), 530–557.
- Jehn, K. A., & Bendersky, C. (2003). Intragroup conflict in organizations: A contingency perspective on the conflict-outcome relationship. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 25, 187–242.
- Jehn, K. A., & Bezrukova, K. (2010). The faultline activation process and the effects of activated faultlines on coalition formation, conflict, and group outcomes. *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes*, 112(1), 24–42.
- Jehn, K. A., Greer, L., Levine, S., & Szulanski, G. (2008). The effects of conflict types, dimensions, and emergent states on group outcomes. *Group Decision & Negotiation*, 17(6), 465–495.
- Kane, A. A. (2010). Unlocking knowledge transfer potential: Knowledge demonstrability and superordinate social identity. *Organization Science*, 21(3), 643–660.
- Kayworth, T. R., & Leidner, D. E. (2001). Leadership effectiveness in global virtual teams. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 18(3), 7–40.
- King, N., & Majchrzak, A. (2003). Technology alignment and adaptation for virtual teams involved in unstructured knowledge work. In C. Gibson & S. G. Cohen (Eds.), *Virtual teams that work: Creating conditions for virtual team effectiveness* (pp. 265–291). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kirkman, B. L., Rosen, B., Tesluk, P. E., & Gibson, C. B. (2006). Enhancing the transfer of computer-assisted training proficiency in geographically distributed teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(3), 706–716.
- Kulik, C. T., & Roberson, L. (2008). *Diversity initiative effectiveness: What organizations can (and cannot) expect from diversity recruitment, diversity training, and formal mentoring programs*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kunze, F., & Bruch, H. (2010). Age-based faultlines and perceived productive energy: The moderation of transformational leadership. *Small Group Research*, 41(5), 593–620.
- Lau, D. C., & Murnighan, J. K. (1998). Demographic diversity and faultlines: The compositional dynamics of organizational groups. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(2), 325–340.
- Li, J. T., & Hambrick, D. C. (2005). Factional groups: A new vantage on demographic faultlines, conflict, and disintegration in work teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(5), 794–813.
- Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13(2), 103–123.
- Marks, M. A., Mathieu, J. E., & Zaccaro, S. J. (2001). A temporally based framework and taxonomy of team processes. *Academy of Management Review*, 26(3), 356–376.
- Mathieu, J. E., Heffner, T. S., Goodwin, G. F., Salas, E., & Cannon-Bowers, J. A. (2000). The influence of shared mental models on team process and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(2), 273–283.
- McDonough, E. F., Kahnb, K. B., & Barczaka, G. (2001). An investigation of the use of global, virtual, and colocated new product development teams. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 18(2), 110–120.
- Meyerson, D., Weick, K. E., & Kramer, R. M. (1996). Swift trust and temporary groups. In R. M. Kramer & R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 166–195). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Montoya-Weiss, M. M., Massey, A. P., & Song, M. (2001). Getting it together: Temporal coordination and conflict management in global virtual teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(6), 1251–1262.
- Moreland, R. L., & McMinn, J. G. (2010). Group reflexivity and performance. In S. R. Thye & E. J. Lawler (Eds.), *Advances in group processes* (Vol. 27, pp. 63–95). Bingley: Emerald Group.
- Murtha, B. R., Challagalla, G., & Kohli, A. K. (2011). The threat from within: Account managers' concern about opportunism by their own team members. *Management Science*, 57(9), 1580–1593.
- Nederveen Pieterse, A., van Knippenberg, D., & van Ginkel, W. P. (2011). Diversity in goal orientation, team reflexivity, and team performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 114(2), 153–164.
- Nembhard, I. M., & Edmondson, A. C. (2006). Making it safe: The effects of leader inclusiveness and professional status on psychological safety and improvement efforts in health care teams. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27(7), 941–966.

- Okhuysen, G. A., & Eisenhardt, K. M. (2002). Integrating knowledge in groups: How formal interventions enable flexibility. *Organization Science*, *13*(4), 370–386.
- Oshri, I., Van Fenema, P., & Kotlarsky, J. (2008). Knowledge transfer in globally distributed teams: The role of transactive memory. *Information Systems Journal*, *18*(6), 593–616.
- Pearsall, M. J., Ellis, A. P. J., & Evans, J. M. (2008). Unlocking the effects of gender faultlines on team creativity: Is activation the key? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(1), 225–234.
- Pendry, L. F., Driscoll, D. M., & Field, S. C. T. (2007). Diversity training: Putting theory into practice. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, *80*(1), 27–50.
- Polzer, J. T., Crisp, C. B., Jarvenpaa, S. L., & Kim, J. W. (2006). Extending the faultline model to geographically dispersed teams: How collocated subgroups can impair group functioning. *Academy of Management Journal*, *49*(4), 679–692.
- Randolph-Seng, B., Casa De Calvo, M. P., Zaccchilli, T. L., & Cottle, J. L. (2010). Shared cognitions and shared theories: Telling more than we can know by ourselves? *Journal of Scientific Psychology* (December), 25–35.
- Rico, R., Sánchez-Manzanares, M., Antino, M., & Lau, D. C. (2012). Bridging team faultlines by combining task role assignment and goal structure strategies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *97*(2), 407–420.
- Rink, F. A., & Jehn, K. A. (2010). Divided we fall, or united we stand? How identity processes affect faultline perceptions and the functioning of diverse teams. In R. J. Crisp (Ed.), *The psychology of social and cultural diversity*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Riopelle, K., Gluesing, J. C., Alcordo, T. C., Baba, M., Britt, D., McKether, W., et al. (2003). Context, task, and the evolution of technology use in global virtual teams. In C. Gibson & S. G. Cohen (Eds.), *Virtual teams that work: Creating conditions for virtual team effectiveness* (pp. 239–264). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Rockmann, K. W., Pratt, M. G., & Northcraft, G. B. (2007). Divided loyalties—Determinants of identification in interorganizational teams. *Small Group Research*, *38*(6), 727–751.
- Salk, J. E., & Shenkar, O. (2001). Social identities in an international joint venture: An exploratory case study. *Organization Science*, *12*(2), 161–178.
- Schippers, M. C., Den Hartog, D. N., Koopman, P. L., & van Knippenberg, D. (2008). The role of transformational leadership in enhancing team reflexivity. *Human Relations*, *61*(11), 1593–1616.
- Schippers, M. C., Den Hartog, D. N., & Koopman, P. L. (2007). Reflexivity in teams: A measure and correlates. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *56*(2), 189–211.
- Simons, T. L., & Peterson, R. S. (2000). Task conflict and relationship conflict in top management teams: The pivotal role of intragroup trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*(1), 102–111.
- Stevens, L. E., & Fiske, S. T. (1995). Motivation and cognition in social life: A social survival perspective. *Social Cognition*, *13*(3), 189–214.
- Thatcher, S. M., Jehn, K. A., & Zanutto, E. (2003). Cracks in diversity research: The effects of diversity faultlines on conflict and performance. *Group Decision & Negotiation*, *12*(3), 217–241.
- Thatcher, S. M., & Patel, P. C. (2011). Demographic faultlines: A meta-analysis of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(6), 119–1139.
- Tjosvold, D., Hui, C., & Yu, Z. Y. (2003). Conflict management and task reflexivity for team in-role and extra-role performance in China. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *14*(2), 141–163.
- van Ginkel, W. P., & van Knippenberg, D. (2009). Knowledge about the distribution of information and group decision making: When and why does it work? *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *108*(2), 218–229.
- van Knippenberg, D., Dawson, J. F., West, M. A., & Homan, A. C. (2011). Diversity faultlines, shared objectives, and top management team performance. *Human Relations*, *64*(3), 307–336.
- van Knippenberg, D., & De Dreu, C. K. W. (2004). Work group diversity and group performance: An integrative model and research agenda. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*(6), 1008–1022.
- West, M. A., Garrod, S., & Carletta, J. (1997). Group decision-making and effectiveness: Unexplored boundaries. In C. L. Cooper & S. E. Jackson (Eds.), *Creating tomorrow's organizations: A handbook for future research in organizational behaviour* (pp. 293–316). Chichester: Wiley.
- Wilkesmann, U., Wilkesmann, M., & Virgillito, A. (2009). The absence of cooperation is not necessarily defection: Structural and motivational constraints of knowledge transfer in a social dilemma situation. *Organization Studies*, *30*(10), 1141–1164.

Chapter 13

Global Teams in the Military

Arwen H. DeCostanza, Jessica A. Gallus, and LisaRe Brooks Babin

Although teams play an important role in most organizations, teamwork in the U.S. military is absolutely vital to successful operations. From military training and education to on-the-job experiences, the value of teamwork is reinforced from the time of accessioning (i.e., military entry) through the duration of one's military career. Despite the level of interdependence among team members varying across Services, missions, and operations, the culture of most Services highlights teamwork as an integral part of effective performance (e.g., USMC Military Leadership Principles, U.S. Army Soldier's Creed).

While teamwork in general is a critical part of military functioning, understanding the role of military teams in a global context has become increasingly important. Joint, interagency, intergovernmental, and multinational (JIIM) operations are critical to achieving U.S. foreign policy objectives. From the Service members stationed in over 150 countries throughout the world (Odierno, 2013) to our lengthy wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, the global presence of the U.S. military shows no signs of

The views presented in this chapter are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of DoD or its components.

A.H. DeCostanza, Ph.D. (✉)
U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences,
2511 Jefferson Davis Hwy, Arlington, VA 22202-3926, USA
e-mail: arwen.h.decostanza.civ@mail.mil

J.A. Gallus, Ph.D.
US Army Research Institute,
2530 Crystal Drive, Fort Belvoir, VA 22202-3926, USA
e-mail: jessica.a.gallus2.civ@mail.mil

L.B. Babin, Ph.D.
U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences,
851 McClellan Avenue, Fort Leavenworth, KS 66027, USA
e-mail: lisare.b.babin.civ@mail.mil

waning. Such a presence highlights the critical need to build, train, and develop military teams capable of effectively operating anywhere in the world. However, understanding Service member requirements for meeting the demands of the current and future operating environment is no easy feat. As noted in the most recent U.S. Army Capstone Concept (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012), Service members will need to adapt to and overcome diverse threats from a wide range of actors (e.g., paramilitary forces, insurgents, terrorists, criminal organizations). Moreover, the leaders of the United States Military must lead troops from various nations and team with military and civilian allies from other countries in full spectrum operations.

To address the current operating environment, the military has invested in multiple programs of research to understand how to successfully engage in complex, global teamwork and to enhance performance of global teams in the military. These programs of research span a wide variety of topic areas, including the development of individual Soldier and leader competencies through selection and training, to team, multiteam system, and organizational processes impacting performance across echelons, at the tactical, operational, and strategic levels.

Military research on global teamwork is vast, but we suggest a framework for categorizing ongoing efforts that coincides with the lifecycle of a team (Tuckman, 1965). These categories include: Composing the Team, Building and Training the Team, and Monitoring and Improving Performance. The first category, Composing the Team, includes selection and classification related research relating to choosing team members with the right knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics and finding the right mix of individuals to work together on these teams. The second category, Building and Training the Team, includes research on team development and training, focused on improving team processes and fostering states conducive to effective performance. The final category, Monitoring and Improving Performance, consists of research focused on monitoring performance of teams over time, including defining and measuring effective performance and development of improvement methods to maximize and sustain performance over time.

The purpose of this chapter is to share insights gained through both research and experiences, providing an overview of the significant challenges faced by leaders of global military teams, followed by a description of some of the research being conducted to address these challenges. In this chapter, we will share insights gained through research, focusing on a discussion of understanding global military teams and different aspects of performance, the challenges of working in a global context, and recommendations for enhancing team effectiveness. The chapter begins with a definition to encompass 'global teams' found in the military and a description of the types of global teams composed by military members. Then, the significant challenges currently faced by leaders of global military teams are broken down into questions related to composing the team, building and training the team, and monitoring and improving performance. Within the discussion of these challenges, ongoing research focused on enhancing performance in global teams is presented and critical areas of focus for future research are discussed.

Defining Global Teams in the Military

Global teams in the military encompass an extremely diverse array of collectives, including size, relationship types, objectives, reporting structures, duration, and stability (among other characteristics). In this section, the description of global teams offered in the introduction of this book (multinational, multicultural, multiorganizational, and geographically distributed) is expanded to describe the vast array of military global teams. Understanding the various types of global military teams will aid understanding of the challenges faced by leaders of global military teams, which follows this section.

The various types of global teams in the military are so numerous that listing is not beneficial. However, providing some criteria for categorizing global military teams and describing a few examples of the types of teams helps depict the breadth of teams that may be encountered by military leaders. One way that global military teams can be categorized relates to differences in chain of command or reporting structures. Zaccaro, Salas, and Burke (2003) identified four types of multinational collaborative structures, including: *integrated multinational units*, *partnering national units*, *subordinated foreign national units*, and *embedded units*. In *integrated multinational units*, Service members and foreign nationals operate as part of the same unit, or team, with common operational missions (e.g., team from one nation with foreign liaisons). *Partnering national units* occur when one nation's units serve as partners with other national units. Each unit may have the same overall mission, with different operational missions; or the same operational mission with responsibility for different sectors in the operating environment. In *subordinated foreign national units*, foreign units are placed under the command of another national unit and commanding officer. Finally, *embedded units*, include a national unit that is embedded within and is operating within a foreign culture (e.g., Military Transition Teams are considered embedded units, typically tasked with training and advising the local military).

Another distinguishing factor among the numerous types of global military teams involves the echelon of the team and mission focus. Global military teams can be found at the strategic, operational, and tactical levels. The teaming of units or individuals at these levels serves different purposes. At the strategic level, alliances may be formed at the level of national government to gain international consensus on particular strategic interests. At the operational level, military and governmental leaders from multiple nations may build partnerships, working together to accomplish particular missions. An example of an operational level global team is a multinational division headquarters. A multinational division headquarters consists of hundreds of individuals from multiple coalition partner countries, where foreign liaison officers work alongside U.S. forces as staff members divided into functional cells such as operations, logistics, and intelligence. Within a multinational division headquarters, the staff cells, liaison officers, local subject matter experts, and other governmental and nongovernmental organizations work together to execute the mission. Global teams at the tactical level have a primary focus on developing interpersonal relation-

ships and supporting lines of effort, with one-on-one interactions in small teams. These teams are deployed within the host-nation populace or with host-nation security forces, working directly with host nationals, building relationships from the lowest level. For example, the military has leveraged the use of female engagement teams (FETs) to effectively engage host nationals. FETs were created to address the cultural restrictions of females being seen or even spoken to by foreign males. To conduct safe and culturally sensitive operations, the U.S. military developed teams of female Soldiers specifically trained to properly engage with the local population. This effort was very successful as it demonstrated to the local people the military's respect and appreciation for the Afghan's traditional values. The engagements helped to develop trust with the local people and enduring relationships that would facilitate improved communication and stability operations in the area.

Global teams in the military span the lowest to highest echelons, and can consist of three or four individuals or hundreds of individuals forming teams of teams, or a multiteam system. Therefore, focus cannot be placed on merely internal team functioning. Team inputs, states and processes, and performance outcomes must be considered in relation to the team's and individual team members' interconnectivity throughout an organizational system. Moreover, global military teams conduct a range of missions spanning the full spectrum of operations, including offensive, defensive, and stability or civil support. Most often, these missions are ill-defined and evolve over time, necessitating adaptability in how team members work together to accomplish missions. While global military teams fall under the definition of global teams provided in this book's introduction (i.e., multinational, multicultural, multiorganizational, and geographically distributed), comprehending the diversity and complexity inherent in military teams is critical to understanding the challenges faced by team members and the leaders of these teams. That said, we expect that such challenges will, in many instances, generalize to other types of teams (i.e., civilian) operating throughout the world.

Challenges for Leaders of Global Military Teams

While distinct differences between military and civilian global teams are apparent, the types of challenges faced by these teams and our recommendations for enhancing performance will often apply across organizational boundaries. The main body of the chapter is broken down into three sections that roughly correspond to the lifecycle of teams from inception through performing the mission: composing the team, building and training the team, and monitoring and improving performance. Each section follows a particular structure, where we identify our findings regarding significant challenges for leaders of global military teams and discuss ongoing research focused on dealing with some of these challenges.

Composing the Team

Given the current operating environment, the military must consider team composition for teams operating in global contexts. How can the U.S. military best equip its Service members to meet the demands required in global contexts? What capabilities does each Service member need to effectively navigate such environments? Are there particular team characteristics that help facilitate performance in what are oftentimes high-threat, high-stakes situations? What can military leaders do to ensure that their team members have the needed skills and abilities to accomplish the mission? This section highlights some of these challenges and provides a high-level overview of the most critical capabilities needed for successful team performance in global contexts. Recommendations are provided for leaders responsible for building global teams, focused on understanding what knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs) service members need to operate effectively no matter the location. Finally, potential long-term military strategies for optimizing team composition and performance are discussed.

What individual knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs) are important for global teamwork in the military? Service members must have a versatile toolkit to effectively operate in a global context unlike most encountered by those working in more traditional organizations. Service members oftentimes operate in international settings where uncertainty is the norm and consequences of poor decision-making may incur significant injury or death of team members and others with whom they are working. The challenges of such environments are many and range from working with multiple counterparts (e.g., other Services, coalition forces, foreign militaries, host nationals, and a variety of nongovernment organizations [NGOs]) to balancing military missions with the needs of the host population, to operating in ambiguous contexts where the enemy seldom stands out from the rest of the population. The fact that Service members frequently operate in teams, and that these teams often deploy to dangerous areas of the world, adds an additional layer of complexity to global military operations. Given these challenges, Service members operating in global teams require a broad set of capabilities that encompass both team-related as well as cross-cultural elements that will enable effective working relationships across cultural boundaries. It understandably takes a multitude of KSAOs to effectively navigate complex environments such as those encountered by deployed Service members. Such environments require that Soldiers learn ‘how to think’ rather than ‘what to think.’ In other words, identifying which questions to ask to make sense of one’s surroundings will oftentimes be more critical to successful performance than gathering specific facts about a particular culture. This section will first focus on those individual capabilities related to working across cultural boundaries and then review related research specifically addressing the problem of composing and staffing teams for different contexts.

Cross-cultural competence. One of the difficulties in determining the KSAOs needed for effective teamwork in global contexts lies in the unique challenges faced

by Service members operating abroad. Over the years, the complexity of competencies required for Service members has expanded greatly as the nature of warfare has shifted from an emphasis on attrition and maneuver warfare toward a focus on asymmetric warfare and wide area security operations which encompasses a broad spectrum of military operations (Abbe, 2008). In the last decade alone, the focus on stability, security, reconstruction, and transition (SSRT) operations has highlighted the need for Service members capable of quickly adapting to and reconciling the sometimes vastly different roles in which they find themselves. Today's Service members may need to transition from training foreign military and security forces to engaging in direct combat operations to meeting with local villagers—sometimes all in a day's work. Additionally, the positions for which they have been trained do not always align with the tasks or missions they are asked to perform while in theater. For example, a group of Soldiers trained in contracting may be responsible for buying supplies to rebuild a local school. While they may be well equipped to execute the tasks needed to finance the project, they may not be as prepared to negotiate with town officials or to resolve conflicts among members of the host population with discrepant views on where the school should be built. Such interactions oftentimes take place in areas of the world with completely different laws, beliefs, and traditions than those Service members are accustomed to.

The complexity of this operating environment coupled with the U.S.'s continued presence in areas of the world vastly different than our own has given rise to a surge of research and training efforts related to increasing cross-cultural competence, or 3C. Although 3C has also been labeled in various ways in the psychological literature (i.e., intercultural competence, cultural intelligence, cultural agility, and intercultural sensitivity; Ang, Van Dyne, & Koh, 2006; Dearthoff, 2006; Hammer, Bennett, & Wiseman, 2003), 3C is generally understood as the "knowledge, skills, and affect/motivation that enable individuals to adapt effectively in cross-cultural environments" (Abbe, Gulick, & Herman, 2008, p. 2). In a military context, 3C concerns a Service member's ability to effectively operate across cultures, no matter the culture. Researchers have proposed a number of 3C models highlighting the KSAOs needed for effective cross-cultural performance (for an in-depth review, see Burrus et al., [under review](#)). While the main components across many of these models highlight similar components (Abbe et al., 2008; McCloskey, Behymer, Papautsky, Ross, & Abbe, 2010; McCloskey, Grandjean, Behymer, & Ross, 2010; Reid, Kaloydis, Sudduth, & Greene-Sands, 2012), recent research efforts have articulated which KSAOs are common across models and have also proposed additional factors that may influence 3C including metacognition (i.e., awareness, processing, and monitoring), contextual (e.g., area of operations, threats, type of mission), and organizational influences (e.g., leadership support, policy, strategy; see Fig. 13.1; Burrus et al., [under review](#); Ratwani, Beaubian, Entin, Feyre, & Gallus, [under review](#); Wisecarver, Foldes, Adis, Gallus, & Klafehn, [under review](#)).

3C Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities. Before describing what KSAOs are needed in global contexts, first defining what is meant by knowledge, skills, and abilities is important. Knowledge is "a body of information, usually of a factual or procedural

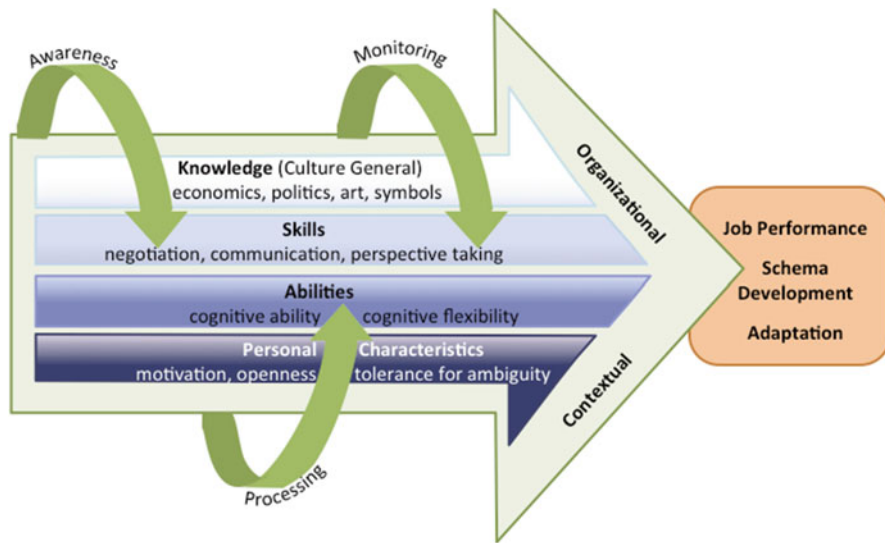


Fig. 13.1 Cross-cultural competence conceptual model

nature that makes for successful performance of a task” (Gatewood & Field, 1990, p. 347). Cross-cultural knowledge involves an understanding of the various factors that comprise different cultures (e.g., political systems, economics, history, etc.). With cross-cultural knowledge, the main focus is on the general components of culture, rather than knowledge about a particular region or area of operations. Knowing what to be mindful of (e.g., cultural symbols, art, religion) and what questions to ask oneself can be instrumental in gaining rapid situational awareness in new environments. Current research efforts being conducted in this area may provide Service members with some of the basic tools needed to ascertain the types of questions that should be asked to quickly adapt to and effectively navigate cultures different than one’s own (Nolan, 2014). Providing Service members with prompts for better understanding common cross-cultural situations (e.g., adjusting to new cultures, sharing meals, meeting with local leaders, resolving conflicts) can greatly assist in facilitating effective communication, negotiation, and rapport building across cultures.

Skills are defined as “an individual’s level of proficiency or competency in performing a specific task” (Gatewood & Field, 1990, p. 347). Cross-cultural skills include interpersonal skills, communication (e.g., verbal and nonverbal), and perspective taking, or one’s ability to perceive and recognize the feelings and circumstances of others. In a global context, these skills often require a level of interpersonal savvy or ingenuity that one may not need to demonstrate during operations that happen in garrison. For example, a Marine carrying supplies from a Forward Operating Base (FOB) to a Combat Outpost (COP) may be working with a third country military to complete the mission. If the Marine and his cultural counterparts

do not speak the same language, he may need to draw a map to illustrate where the convoy needs to take the supplies. In this type of situation, the effective use of non-verbal skills can make the difference in terms of the team's ability to get the job done. In the same way, the ability to negotiate, influence others, and build rapport with counterparts are also paramount to mission success. The criticality in developing these competencies is reflected in both formal and informal mechanisms, from the inclusion of cross-cultural curriculum in professional military education (PME) to the creation of materials and products aimed toward self-development (e.g., computer-based training, pocket guides).

Unlike skills, abilities are more enduring in nature and include traits or capabilities that someone possesses at the start of a task (Gatewood & Field, 1990). Abilities are thought to be less malleable or trainable than cross-cultural knowledge and skills. In situations where having particular abilities is critical, assessing and selecting for those abilities where possible is important. Some of the main abilities that facilitate effective adaptation or adjustment in cross-cultural situations include cognitive ability (i.e., intelligence), cognitive flexibility (i.e., the ability to incorporate new information into existing perceptions and the ability to restructure the way one thinks in response to demanding situations) and emotion-regulation, or the extent to which one can temper how they feel, even under stressful circumstances (Abbe et al., 2008; Ross, 2008).

Other Characteristics. In addition to the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed to successfully navigate cross-cultural situations, there are a number of other factors that influence effective performance and adaptation. These include openness to experience, motivation to learn about and interact with members of other cultures, empathy, resilience, and self-efficacy (Caligiuri, Noe, Nolan, Ryan, & Drasgow, 2011; Hechanova, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2003; Van der Zee & van Oudenhoven, 2000). Research with expatriates has shown a positive relationship between tolerance for ambiguity, or one's ability to withstand unknowns or nonstructured situations, and adjustment (Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Additionally, self-efficacy, or an individual's belief that they can successfully perform in a given situation, has been found to be positively related to cross-cultural adjustment (Ross & Thornson, 2008). Resilience may also play an important role in one's cross-cultural performance as well as one's development following cross-cultural experiences. Recent research by Gallus and Klafehn (2013) provides initial qualitative support for resilience mitigating the relationship between negative cross-cultural experiences and resulting negative psychological and organizational outcomes.

Not surprisingly, motivation and openness to experience play a large role in one's ability to successfully operate in other cultures (Caligiuri et al., 2011). While a Service member may have the requisite knowledge, skills, and abilities to be successful, if they lack the motivation to learn about other cultures or engage foreign counterparts, the other capabilities of such Service members may be rendered null. Good leaders understand that motivation is not something you can order a team member to do, it has to be sincere. The best global team members, military or otherwise, need to be able to be flexible, adaptive, and trustworthy in their interactions with others. The motivation to understand another culture and learn from it is key to

a successful engagement. Finally, although empathy has been found to predict success for those working in global contexts (Jun & Gentry, 2005), the utility of developing an empathetic military is somewhat controversial. In addition to empathy being perceived by many as incongruent with a warrior ethos, the negative impact of understanding or sharing the feelings of others needs to be explored more fully in the research. While empathy is certainly needed in particular cross-cultural situations that involve Service members (e.g., working with displaced persons, responding to natural catastrophes), the downsides of relating to others' pain or tragedy may in some cases be detrimental to mission accomplishment or Service member safety.

With knowledge of the KSAOs necessary for effective cross-cultural teamwork, leaders of global teams can utilize developmental activities or selection-type assessments to begin bringing together individuals capable of success in global teams. Though the Department of Defense has highlighted the importance of developing and assessing cross-cultural competence (Chiarelli & Michaelis, 2005; Panetta, 2011), much work remains to be done in this area (McCloskey, Grandjean et al., 2010). The majority of current 3C assessments are self-report in nature; that is, they ask Service members to rate their performance or expected performance on a number of cross-cultural dimensions (e.g., communication, cultural awareness, working with interpreters). Unfortunately, individuals are oftentimes unable to accurately rate their competence (or lack thereof) and as such, the utility of using such instruments for developmental or selection purposes is limited (Kruger & Dunning, 1999; Ziegler, MacCann, & Roberts, 2011). More recent efforts have attempted to identify creative means for assessing cross-cultural competence without introducing the biases inherent in most self-report measures (Burrus et al., *under review*). These efforts will ultimately help more accurately identify which individuals are more likely to succeed in cross-cultural encounters, and perhaps more important, which personnel may create cross-cultural problems in global encounters.

How do military leaders compose a team of service members with the right mix of knowledge, skills, and abilities for cross-cultural performance? At the core of team composition is determining how to combine individuals to create an optimal configuration of team member attributes for the team. Research demonstrates that team composition involving multiple deep-level characteristics, such as personality, values, and abilities, impacts team performance (Bell, 2007). As such, staffing teams with members that have the KSAOs identified as important to global teamwork (described earlier) is likely to have a positive impact on performance in global military teams. However, this approach is simplistic in that it utilizes an individual approach to composing teams.

Team-based approaches to team composition consider team members' KSAOs collectively, rather than in terms of individuals' fit. For example, researchers have employed indices of central tendency (Barrick, Stewart, Neubert, & Mount, 1998; Devine & Philips, 2001) and diversity of member attributes (Jackson, 1992; Jackson et al., 1991) as predictors of team effectiveness. Military research on team composition incorporating a team-based approach into staffing of military teams demonstrates the importance of (1) recognizing that team performance is a joint function of

members' individual job performances and their contributions to combined team activities; (2) incorporating the relative interdependencies of members' individual job performances in a network fashion; and (3) differentiating members' job vs. team related KSAOs (Donsbach et al., 2009; Orvis & Zaccaro, 2007). This research culminated in the development of a generic, customizable team composition optimization algorithm that models team composition-effectiveness relationships and a methodology for making an optimal team composition decision. While this research advances our ability to make team composition decisions, additional research is needed to better understand the dynamics over time between individual characteristics in regards to team states, processes, and outcomes to better develop algorithms for optimal staffing of teams.

Way ahead. While understanding global team composition is a complex challenge, global team composition in the military is inherently more complex than merely deciding who should be on what team, because of constraints on selection decisions. Of primary concern is that military leaders seldom have the autonomy to choose team members (e.g., Soldier assigned to fill a particular position in unit). Additional and related constraints that generalize across organizations include candidate availability (e.g., candidates unavailable/busy/not local), missing information (e.g., about the candidate/team; about the task/mission), costs (e.g., recruiting, candidate compensation requirements), lack of time (e.g., deadlines for putting a team in place), and timing of the decision (e.g., right person, wrong time; Donsbach et al., 2009). Due to these constraints, extensive focus must be placed on working with available resources and positively shaping team states and processes to achieve desired performance.

Building and Training the Team

Given most military leaders' limited autonomy in choosing team members, the core focus in enhancing performance in global military teams centers on building and training the team once formed. This includes a focus on establishing goals of the mission for the team; identifying core responsibilities for each team member; and facilitating team states and processes before, during, and after the mission. Much of the success of building a team relies on the strength of the leadership for meeting these objectives. The following section will discuss some of the challenges military leaders face in building and training global teams and present some tools and solutions developed through military research initiatives.

What behaviors should leaders encourage to enhance cross-cultural skills?

A common challenge for leaders is determining critical areas for mentorship and what tasks the team should be able to perform in the cross-cultural domain. A distinction between culture-specific vs. culture-general approaches to training has emerged (Abbe & Halpin, 2010). The military services have adopted both approaches, with predeployment cultural training tending to be tailored to the country and

cultures that personnel will encounter on deployment, while professional military education employs regional or culture-specific elements in addition to more general principles and skills (Abbe & Gouge, 2012). However, the benefits of culture-specific training for Service members are sometimes elusive due to ill-defined, evolving missions and last minute changes in deployment locales. Recent research suggests that military teams operating in global contexts often feel training received prior to deployment did not adequately prepare them for the tasks and situations encountered during deployment, particularly in regards to cross-cultural interactions (Ratwani et al., [under review](#)). Although only encompassing one aspect of necessary training, better understanding of cross-cultural training requirements may provide leaders with knowledge of key areas of focus for training and development.

Moving toward culture-general training, few efforts have been made to define the broader and more complex culture-related performance requirements necessary for mission success. While some efforts to date have used a top-down approach to training development (e.g., collecting input from SMEs, cultural instructors, etc.), a complementary, empirical bottom-up approach to defining culture-related tasks provides more generalizable results for understanding training requirements. Research by Wisecarver et al. ([under review](#)) has taken the first steps at empirically defining the culture-related performance domain. As part of this effort, Soldiers were asked what tasks they were performing on their jobs that had a cultural component and how critical these tasks were to meeting the mission (via questions about the frequency with which tasks were conducted and the importance of such tasks to the mission). Results provide preliminary support for 14 different culture-related performance domains (see Table 13.1) and provide the first data-driven approach to understanding what should be trained from a cross-cultural perspective.

Once the performance requirements have been defined, a variety of training methods can be considered to meet those requirements and bring the team to an optimal predeployment performance level. Fortunately, a plethora of training options are available (e.g., lectures, computer-based training, role playing, and high-fidelity simulations) to help Service members develop their cross-cultural capability. Military training is ongoing, iterative, and specialized to individuals depending on their jobs. Service members attend institutional training at regular intervals in their career progression, which is incorporating the research on culture-general knowledge for effective global teamwork. Given the dynamic skill set needed for operating across cultures, training exercises that provide Service members with opportunities to question their assumptions, practice interpersonal skills, and confront ethical challenges with other members of their unit may be particularly beneficial. The military's Combat Training Centers (CTCs; e.g., Joint Readiness Training Center, National Training Center) are just a few of the resources used to prepare teams for cross-cultural encounters before the teams deploy. One of the major benefits of leveraging CTCs to build cross-cultural capability is that leaders can design their training programs in advance of arriving at the CTC to ensure that training exercises cover skills essential to the upcoming deployment (e.g., negotiation, key leader engagements, advising host nationals or foreign militaries) and provide opportunities for building team cohesion and strengthening areas of vulnerability. While indi-

Table 13.1 Culture performance domains

Taxonomy dimension	Definition
Demonstrate cultural awareness	Use knowledge about another culture to correctly predict and interpret others' behavior
Build rapport	Build relationships with people from another culture by showing consideration and respect for their welfare, feelings, and viewpoints
Adjust behavior to fit cultural context	Adjust own behavior to match the cultural customs and norms of others (e.g., depending on their age, rank, gender, tribal affiliation, etc.)
Collect cultural information	Collect cultural information from different sources (e.g., interactions with locals, talking with a guide/interpreter, the internet, books, etc.)
Use nonverbal communication	Use and interpret nonverbal language to communicate when verbal language is not shared
Work with an interpreter	Work with interpreters to interact with people from another culture; prepare an interpreter for meetings and evaluate his/her capabilities
Influence others	Use culturally appropriate influence tactics to change the opinion or actions of others and/or convince them to willingly follow one's leadership
Negotiate with others	Use culturally appropriate negotiation tactics to achieve successful negotiations (e.g., for supplies and other resources)
Resolve conflicts	Prevent and/or resolve conflicts between others in a multicultural situation; recognize where areas of potential conflict might exist and manage situations accordingly
Handle ethical challenges	Confront ethical concerns by discussing them with locals in a nonjudgmental manner
Manage perceptions	Manage how U.S. personnel and operations are perceived by locals in Area of Responsibility (e.g., manage the flow of information; incorporate sociocultural factors into planning and tactics)
Manage stress	Recognize and manage stress from being in cross-cultural situations or working with cultural or language differences
Lead across cultures	Reinforce to your unit the importance of culture and cultural interactions for the success of the mission

viduals rotate through institutional training and units regularly build up to a CTC rotation, culture-general training may not reach all Service members through these means. Training can also occur at the unit level with internal and local experts and mobile training teams. The vast majority of training, however, place a heavy emphasis on self-development and include 'smart cards,' or cultural 'how to' handbooks, tailored reading lists, as well as a plethora of online games or simulations organized as 'choose-your-own-adventure' scenarios. The self-development aspects of these training examples introduce limitations on training impact, but may reach wider audiences (i.e., outside of schoolhouses) and/or complement learning objectives in institutional training. Despite these and the many other cultural training opportunities available to Service members, more research is needed to assess the efficacy and validity of such programs and tools so that military personnel can make informed decisions about how best to allocate their time.

How do leaders quickly build an effective, highly interdependent team? While mentoring and training on cross-cultural skills and interactions can help prepare a

team for missions involving global teamwork, one of the common challenges for military leaders of global teams is quickly building an effective, highly interdependent team. Common characteristics of a high performing team are mutual trust, working together for a common goal, completing tasks quickly and completely, going above the required standards, motivating each other to meet challenges, and reinforcing pride in a job well done (U.S. Department of the Army, 2006a). Complexity in developing a high performing team is compounded in many global military teams, where team members vary greatly in cultural norms and values and have little to no contact before they must perform and work together for a fairly brief period of time. Building rapport and trust among team members, understanding team members' strengths and weaknesses, and other processes facilitating performance take time to develop, challenging military leaders to accomplish goals in a compressed timeframe. Additionally, team members may never work together again and often come together from diverse agencies (e.g., nongovernmental organizations, host nation military), which reduces team members' motivation to build the interpersonal relationships and consensus necessary to work most effectively in teams. Finally, all efforts to develop the team must be balanced with individual training needs. This is particularly salient in the military, where individuals may be assigned to a global team based on specific skills that they possess (e.g., cultural expert, improvised explosive device [IED] specialist, specific military occupational specialty [MOS]) requiring additional individual training on mission-required elements (e.g., weapons training).

To better prepare leaders to effectively bring diverse personnel together on global teams, the military has incorporated more complex elements into their training. For instance, the Command and General Staff College incorporates leadership practices from coalition partners (e.g., Great Britain, Australia) by including multinational forces in the classroom. Officers from coalition partner nations learn how to understand the other's decision making processes to better function as partners in global teams. To further enhance the cross-cultural training, American officers may go to the NATO School in Oberammergau to learn about the diversity in cognition and behaviors related to multinational military operations. This training helps team members of global teams to communicate better, be more understanding of different ways to lead, and appreciate the skills each bring to the mutual fight.

Additionally, there are a number of programs of research within the military that focus on developing effective teams quickly. Generally, these projects focus on building general teamwork skills, or the states and processes identified in past research as critical to effective team performance. One such research program, Scenario Training for Agile Teams (STAT), was developed to help new teams develop shared understanding of the task, goals, strengths, weaknesses, and commander's intent; quickly learn to build trust; and effectively act on common agreement. The teambuilding exercise uses a leader-led discussion centered around provided scenarios, with details on how to direct scenario discussion toward learning objectives (e.g., shared understanding or trust; Orvis, Ruark, Pierce, & Goodwin, [post peer review](#)). STAT scenarios focused on situations encountered specifically by global military teams have been developed for use with transition teams. Team

Dimensional Training (TDT) was originally developed for building teamwork skills on naval ships. This training utilizes guided self-correction to develop critical teamwork skills including information exchange, communication, supporting behavior, and initiative/leadership (Smith-Jentsch, Zeisig, Acton, & McPherson, 2006). Improved teamwork behaviors directly coinciding with team goals set in TDT debriefs were observed in training evaluation. Although this training does not specifically address teamwork in global teams, the training on teamwork skills is likely to generalize to different types of teams.

Additional research focuses on teams with diverse membership, such as global military teams, where developing a shared understanding and acceptance of who is doing what, where, when, and with what resources is critical to effective performance (Cianciolo, LaVoie, Foltz, & Pierce, 2009). Research on interagency planning in teams working abroad (Cianciolo & DeCostanza, 2010) and trust building in joint, interagency, intergovernmental, multinational (JIIM) teams (Cianciolo & DeCostanza, 2012) suggests that the process of consensus building can help diverse team members achieve a unified approach to work. Experienced interagency team members adopt general (not culture-specific) strategies to achieve success, including setting the right conditions (e.g., ensuring that the appropriate stakeholder representatives have been identified, developing relationships, clearly defining roles and responsibilities), assessing one's readiness to collaborate, distinguishing between interests and positions, managing conflict in real time, and employing open communications (e.g., separating people from problems, defining problems as shared, and exposing hidden agendas with a win-win mind-set; Cianciolo & DeCostanza, 2010). To appropriately set the stage for work in global teams and manage conflict as it arises, this research suggests that leaders of global teams would benefit from training in consensus building and interest-based negotiations (e.g., Interagency Consensus Forum [ARI Research Product]; Cianciolo & DeCostanza, 2010). Value may be added if global team leaders also develop the skills in their team members (note that this research focused on the planning process, where many other skills may be more beneficial for other tasks).

How do leaders optimize the team states and processes critical to performance throughout the lifecycle of the team? While developing the necessary elements of the team quickly are important, a related challenge deals with optimizing the team states and processes critical to performance throughout the lifecycle of the team. Literature on teams has reached consensus on a number of emergent states (e.g., cohesion, trust, cognition) and processes (e.g. monitoring, backup behavior, coordination, conflict; Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001; Salas, Sims, & Burke, 2005) that impact team performance. However, specific knowledge of the attitudes and behaviors congruent with optimal levels of these constructs remains a challenge, particularly in more complex teams. For example, trust is beneficial for information sharing and collaboration. However, too much trust can lead to performance failures such as acceptance and use of inaccurate information (Evans, Cianciolo, Hunter, & Pierce, 2010; Parasuraman & Riley, 1997). Similarly, strong team cohesion could lead to issues among the chain of command, inappropriate fraternization, and groupthink (Building a cohesive team, 2013; Janis, 1983; Mullen, Anthony, Salas,

& Driskell, 1994; Zaccaro & McCoy, 1988). Likewise, shared situation awareness is clearly important and critical to success in missions, but the plethora of information available to enhance shared situation awareness can actually lead to cognitive overload (Endsley, 1995).

Recent research has focused on several of these factors to begin exploring how team states and processes unfold over time. In a 4-year Army effort, researchers explored the question of how to appropriately calibrate trust in distributed command and control, or decision-making teams. Situational factors including team composition (diversity), structure (hierarchy vs. separation of powers), and technology (shared/interoperable or separate/noninteroperable) were found to collectively influence team members' risk management strategies or trust-related behaviors (Cianciolo & DeCostanza, 2012). Within global teams, subgroups exist that vary similarly in their architectural characteristics (i.e., composition, structure, and technology). For example, the core problem-solving body within Army command and control teams consists of Army personnel who are colocated and share information displays, while multinational subgroups are comprised of military personnel, but are not colocated and do not share many approaches to work, including technology, terminology, and rules of engagement. The findings of this research suggest that leaders of global teams may find value in concentrating on the following learning objectives in training to help appropriately calibrate trust in their teams over time:

1. Heightened awareness of the challenges that diverse team members face when demonstrating their capability to contribute to team performance
2. Improved ability to effectively present contrasting viewpoints and conflicting information
3. Improved ability to act inclusively in course of action development and wargaming
4. Heightened awareness of one's own strategies for coping with concerns about others' ability to contribute to the mission
5. Improved ability to employ constructive, calibrated strategies for coping with concerns about others' ability to contribute to the mission.

As part of this project, a web-based experiential learning training platform focused on these learning objectives was developed to strengthen the global teamwork skills central to calibrating trust over time. The training platform includes didactic instruction and trainee assessments, with a focal exercise including representatives from multiple stakeholder organizations making decisions in a simulated mission command planning environment.

Another relevant body of research focuses on building cohesion in Army units (battalions, companies, platoons) over time, throughout the deployment cycle. This includes unit reset, where the majority of personnel are new to the unit and leadership changes; the train/ready phase, where the unit is progressively building from individual to collective training; and deployment, where the unit is executing a mission. Although not focused on global teams, specifically, research reveals that different factors influence the development and sustainment of cohesion, as it relates

to enhanced performance, over time (Grossman et al., 2013). This suggests that leaders may need to alter their approach to enhancing cohesion over time, depending on the lifecycle of the team. Consequently, a pocket guide was developed for military leaders that presents common cohesion-related challenges (and recommendations) occurring at particular points throughout a unit's lifecycle (Cianciolo & DeCostanza, 2012). Leaders of global teams may benefit similarly from understanding the challenges that are most likely to exist at different points throughout a team's lifecycle and proactively conduct activities to help preclude decreased cohesion and morale in the unit.

Way ahead. While these examples demonstrate the military's investment in optimizing performance over time, there are a number of additional constraints on leaders of global military teams that necessitate continual focus in research and training development. First, many leaders of global teams in the military do not have official authority over all of the team members, making it difficult to alter performance through formal mechanisms such as performance-based awards. Take, for example, a military transition team, where U.S. military members advise local security force members to conduct independent operations. Success of the transition team depends on the behaviors of the local security forces, but the leader of this team has no direct authority over local security forces, resulting in the potential for rewarded behaviors that are counter to team effectiveness. Collective training efforts can also prove difficult in global military teams. Because global military teams are distributed and often come together from multiple organizations, collective training exercises with real-world fidelity are extremely costly and very difficult to organize. Different organizations often have varying degrees of buy-in to the training process and therefore, these diverse team members may not come to the training fully prepared to engage in learning. In the military, small teams such as advisor or transition teams train together prior to deployment, but the training takes place outside of the larger context, where in theatre, they are part of a much larger team striving toward broad objectives, with little to no prior experience with each other. Finally, an additional challenge with a continual focus on performance improvement over time includes the fluid nature of global military teams. The fluidity of global military teams is characterized by team members coming in and out of specific roles over time, individuals leaving the team prior to task completion (e.g., redeployment), integration of new team members throughout, and collaboration with different agencies over time. This makes advancements through training difficult, as interdependencies between team members must constantly be relearned. Focus on building generic team-related competencies in U.S. Service members and global partners may continue to enhance the ability to perform effectively in global teams, however these challenges also stress the need to develop more focused, and innovative techniques for quickly building synergies to promote highly interdependent collective performance. Solutions could take the form of team-specific training or advancements in team assignment and composition, as discussed earlier.

Because of these characteristics of global military teams, the way team interactions and performance are measured is evolving to focus on patterns of relationships

over time, rather than performance by a core set of individuals conducting a specific mission. The next section of this chapter describes the challenges inherent in measurement and continual monitoring of performance over time, critical for leaders of global teams to improve performance throughout the lifecycle of the team.

Monitoring and Improving Performance

After the team has formed, the leader is responsible for monitoring team performance over time and making adjustments (e.g., training, changes to membership, incentives, etc.) to continually improve performance. The final set of challenges discussed in this chapter, commonly faced by leaders of global military teams, relates to monitoring performance over time for continual improvements.

What should leaders focus on when assessing team performance? One major challenge related to monitoring performance of global military teams surrounds the issue of what to focus on when measuring performance. Too often, leaders are made aware of poor performance in teams when something critical does not get done, a major mistake is made that potentially costs lives, or specific missions take longer than expected or end in results counter to the commander's intended actions. By continually measuring performance through monitoring behavior, as opposed to waiting for results on specific actions, leaders can intervene prior to catastrophic or negative events occurring. However, the ability to measure these behaviors in global teams is extremely complicated.

Central to this challenge is determining what to measure in terms of performance of the team. One of the easiest ways to assess team performance is to focus on quantifiable outcomes such as IEDs recovered, targets hit, and response time, but outcomes capture only a small slice of performance, lack diagnostic specificity, and typically indicate performance after the fact. The U.S. Military has developed tools over the last 10 years to try to measure more effectively the more complex factors that result in a successful mission. Some of these are "After Action Reviews" (AARs) that detail the things that were done well during the military operation and things that could be improved on next time. These are conducted immediately after a mission by the team and/or in conjunction with a trained review team that helps to highlight how to improve behaviors for later missions. At higher levels, briefs are given about "success stories" from the field that highlight best practices for other teams and any lessons learned that would improve mission success.

Capturing the specific behaviors that lead to successful outcomes can be more generalizable (e.g., a team that communicates well should be more highly adaptable across situations) and provide information prior to a mistake occurring, but some behaviors may be more complex, thus more difficult to measure. It is important to consider that desired behaviors must be explicitly defined (e.g., behaviorally anchored rating scales), which is labor intensive, but worthwhile. Adding to the complexity of determining what to measure, research suggests specific behaviors

(e.g., information sharing) lead to more desirable outcomes, but often these behaviors and outcomes can be misaligned, particularly in complex, global teams. For example, taking time to engage locals to understand customs, culture, etc., is critical when working in other nations for long-term partnerships. However, if your valued outcome is focused on near-term objectives such as locating a cache of weapons known to be in the area as quickly as possible, then the desired behaviors might become incongruent with your measured outcomes. In some ways, the U.S. military has tried to address these issues by creating “Running Estimates” that help to track and gauge ongoing operational success. Rather than focus on solely short-term goals, running estimates recognize the importance of measuring success over a longer period of time, demonstrating if operations are resulting in changes (better or worse). For example, human terrain teams might engage the local population to measure perceptions of upcoming elections, a running estimate that changes over time based on analysis of the population’s anticipated voting behavior. However, running estimates are still primarily focused on desired outcomes rather than the specific behaviors leading to those outcomes.

Performance measurement challenges are exacerbated in global teams due to the difficulty in defining what effective performance looks like across both organizational and cultural boundaries. The U.S. House of Representatives Committee on Armed Services (2008) highlights these problems in a review of Provincial Reconstruction Teams. In particular, the lack of agreed upon objectives among stakeholders, difficulty linking to operational and strategic goals (which may conflict between agencies), and definitions of effectiveness that are too globally defined to develop performance metrics lead to challenges associated with measuring effectiveness in global teams. These challenges point to the importance of defining effective performance beyond a single organization’s goals. Focusing on the behaviors necessary to achieve objectives across organizational and national boundaries might be most beneficial to these teams.

Specific knowledge of the behaviors that are both important and desirable within the team is essential for performance measurement. Research on teams in general (e.g., Marks et al., 2001) identifies the processes involved in effective teamwork. Better understanding of how these processes unfold and impact performance in global military teams is critical to advancing performance assessment. Additionally, technical performance is often the focus of leaders, but in global military teams, effective performance is also contingent upon cultural and interpersonal behaviors that facilitate performance. While critical behaviors will be unique for each team, ARI research on the key performance domains of military advisors provides one example of the cultural and interpersonal behaviors of focus for leaders of global teams. Specifically, Zbylut et al. (2009) conducted an in-depth job analysis of military advisor teams to describe the “human” aspects of advising. The results of this research indicate that critical behaviors include: establishing credibility, serving as positive role models, demonstrating consideration and respect, using/instructing through an interpreter, speaking common words and greetings in the other language, detecting manipulation, interpreting nonverbal behavior, cross-cultural comparisons, and identifying training needs. Several important outcomes and recommendations

stem from this research that impact our current knowledge of what to assess in regards to performance in global military teams:

1. Cultural and interpersonal behaviors are critical to success in global teams
2. Leaders should consider the cultural and interpersonal behaviors (as opposed to only outcomes) that facilitate performance when developing metrics of performance in global teams
3. Traditional job analysis techniques should be utilized in appropriate contexts to identify the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs) critical for performance in global teams
4. KSAOs identified through detailed analyses can influence selection, assignment, training, and performance evaluation practices of leaders of global teams.

How do leaders measure performance? Once a leader determines what to measure, the second part of this challenge concerns how to capture the relevant performance metrics. Assessments of behaviors are difficult to capture in both training and deployed environments. In the Army, OCTs, or “Observer, Coach, Trainers” and analysts, are tasked with following unit members and taking performance notes, completing behavioral checklists, etc. in most collective training exercises to capture team processes. Notes on performance are usually at the discretion of the individual OCT, with no standard protocol, but capitalize on the OCT’s expertise in identifying good performance or areas needing improvement that align with the key learning objectives in the exercise. Behavioral checklists are more standardized, including a set of behaviors expected in a particular scenario (e.g. completion of steps in a standard operating procedure for “troops in contact”). While some research has looked into automation of this task (particularly applicable in virtual training; see Dwyer, Fowlkes, Oser, Salas, & Lane, 1997 for example), our current methodologies are labor intensive, subject to rater biases, and generally nondeployable. In deployed settings, where performance is most critical, monitoring of behaviors rests primarily on the commanders or unit leads. As the size and distribution of the team increases, a leader’s ability to monitor behaviors becomes more difficult. Leaders of small, face-to-face teams have fewer confines to observing behaviors, but many global teams in the Army are large (>100 personnel) and distributed.

The increased use of technology in global military teams simultaneously provides benefits and challenges to monitoring and impacting performance. In some ways, the increased use of technology expands the potential flow of communication and allows leaders to continually influence the processes critical for effective teamwork. At the same time, leaders are not able to spend as much face-to-face time with all team members when they are distributed. Some research suggests this might be beneficial for performance because it empowers lower level leaders and results in more shared leadership throughout the chain of command (Shuffler, Wiese, Salas, & Burke, 2010). But, this also places limits on the leader’s ability to monitor performance over time, which is particularly important in this environment. In global distributed teams, process losses and conflict are more prevalent due to enhanced risk factors stemming from technology-mediated communication, including ineffective interactions and exchanges and difficulty building trust among team members

(Zaccaro & Bader, 2010). However, Zigurs (2010) suggests that the enhanced technologies available to leaders can create opportunities for thinking about leadership in new ways while simultaneously minimizing the potential for these negative outcomes. For example, simple communication support technologies like email, chat, and group displays are progressing rapidly, leading to a continual reconceptualization of how leaders and team members interact. Similarly, advancements to and use of information processing tools (e.g., to analyze strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) and process structuring tools (enforcing the process by which teams interact and promoting necessary interdependencies) can revolutionize the leader's role in the team. Recognizing the opportunities that exist, the Army invests in a wide array of these technologies for use at the tactical, operational, and strategic level.

In complex, multinational teams, Army leaders may struggle to understand what “looks right” when given the chance to observe. Within global teams, assessment of behavioral patterns may provide more important, actionable, and reliable data on how the team is performing in comparison to concentrating on individual performance or achievement of specific outcomes. The interdependencies inherent in global military teams are more complex than a traditional organizational view of work teams, where individuals are nested within teams, nested within units, ultimately nested within a single organization. Global teams span cultural, unit, and organizational boundaries, making interdependence and goal achievement extremely complex phenomena, suggesting that desirable individual and intermediate team outcomes may need to remain ambiguously defined as team members interact to reach higher level objectives. Neither reliance on measurement of individual performance, nor assessment of specific global outcomes, in this context, provides an accurate picture of how the team is performing. Examination of the patterns of cognition, affect, and behavior between team members and how these properties combine over time in a nonlinear fashion to impact desired outcomes is a more appropriate indicator of how the team is “performing” or working together (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Techniques in social network analyses are evolving to capture the patterning of relationships over time for specific measurement purposes, but leaders of global teams can also benefit from heightened focus on the complex relationships among team members stemming from cultural, unit, and organizational differences and monitoring how these relationships evolve to impact performance over time. For example, when shared situation awareness between team members is critical to the mission, a leader may closely monitor communication patterns to ensure diverse team members are (1) obtaining critical information from team members, (2) processing the information in useful ways, and (3) utilizing the information to impact their actions. While assessment of effectiveness needs to take distal outcomes into account, considering the patterning of relationships among team members over time should help leaders of global teams to more fully understand effective performance and enact top-down practices that impact the emergence of desired group behaviors.

What are the ethical considerations in performing in cross-cultural contexts?

As performance in global teams unfolds over time, numerous issues arise that necessitate a continual focus of leaders on improving performance. One of the most

salient challenges in global military teams relates to ethical considerations inherent in performing in cross-cultural contexts. Global military teams are faced continuously with ill-defined, challenging, and life-altering choices, where they must rely on ethics to make sound, effective, and defensible choices. Due to the nature of military engagements, ethics are well articulated in various documents that military members abide by (e.g., Army Values, the Uniform Code of Military Justice, Laws of Land Warfare, etc.). However, concerns associated with how individuals interpret and make decisions in these ethically salient situations remain significant. Moreover, complexity in these decisions arises when working on global military teams, where cultural differences can blur the interpretation of ethical principles and/or intensify team conflicts related to ethical decision making. A recent postdeployment survey of military advisors (advisory teams) indicates that advisors deal with ethical challenges more than once a month and dealing with those challenges is important to effectiveness (Zbylut, Metcalf, & Brunner, 2011). Understanding some of the issues that arise in global military teams may be particularly helpful in understanding ethical considerations in other cross-cultural contexts.

Explicit code of ethics. When working in global military teams, members stem from diverse organizations and cultures, where a single code of ethics does not apply. Team members are required to abide by their own organization's code of ethics, but differing ethical standards create challenges in these teams (Metrinko, 2008). U.S. military advisory team members in Iraq and Afghanistan described ethical dilemmas on their teams where they observed bribes for contract awards, theft of fuel and money, payments for dispensing paychecks, and general corruption among ranks. In some instances, the U.S. military team leaders tried to change the behaviors of team members engaged in these practices. Although these practices were not acceptable according to U.S. military ethical guidelines, certain behaviors were left alone and considered 'acceptable' based on cultural knowledge, degree of harm, and impact on the mission (Zbylut et al., 2011).

Determining what behaviors should be considered tolerable is challenging given the complexity of many cross-cultural situations and the potential for values and norms to differ across cultures. Leaders are in the difficult position of having to navigate such challenges with their foreign counterparts and must also consider how such experiences may negatively impact team members. In some instances, team members may feel that the behavior they are witnessing (e.g., perceived corruption) should not be acceptable at any level. In other cases, disagreements over how to effectively respond in such situations may cause conflict among team members. As such, leaders will need to help team members engage in perspective taking, sense making, and reflection as a means of better understanding their experiences and the context in which they must perform (Jordan, Messner, & Becker, 2009). When possible, leaders should assist team members in making sense of cultural differences as the experiences are occurring. Additionally, After Action Reviews may serve as a very useful tool for gauging team responses and reactions, and, if conducted appropriately, can provide a forum for increasing cultural awareness (Salter & Klein, 2007). Leaders who effectively help team members process and reconcile these difficulties will likely have teams who are better able to withstand the potential negative impact of cross-cultural challenges.

Implicit ethical and moral decision-making. While explicit differences in unethical behaviors can be salient across cultures, team member's implicit ethical and moral values impact decision making, ultimately affecting team states and processes. Different cultures possess different understandings of what constitutes ethical vs. unethical behavior. Military doctrine states directly that U.S. military working with host nationals should anticipate encountering what they will perceive to be "corruption" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2006b, 2009). Similarly, other nations may view U.S. team member behaviors as unethical. Thomson, Adams, B. D, Taylor, and Sartori (2007) describe the impact of cultural influences on cognition, emotion, motivation, and behavior in multinational military teams. They suggest individuals from different cultures are likely to have different mental models regarding moral obligations and the actions or nonactions that are expected as a result, exacerbating morally ambiguous decisions. For example, if the situation is perceived as morally obliging by one team member, but not the rest of the team, these differences could ignite significant discord within the team. They also highlight challenges in anticipating how diverse team members will behave in morally sensitive situations. For example, if diverse team members enter a negotiation situation as a unit, but with different views regarding an acceptable outcome to a moral situation, failure to anticipate team member behavior is likely to impact coordination and hinder performance.

Research conducted with military advising teams resulted in behavioral markers for effective and ineffective performance for multiple performance domains, including ethical challenges, that may provide leaders of global teams with useful information to improve performance in regards to ethical behaviors in global military teams (Zbylut et al., 2011). Specifically, the behavioral markers start to provide some information to leaders of global teams regarding how to deal with ethical challenges that may arise throughout the lifecycle of the team. Table 13.2 summarizes the authors' findings generalizable to other contexts to provide recommendations to leaders of global teams.

Way ahead. In summary, some of the main challenges in global military teams relating to monitoring and improving team performance relate to the assessment of performance over time in these complex environments and dealing with issues, such as ethical concerns, as they arise. As the importance of monitoring team performance over time continues to compound in the military, with greater complexity in teams, a growing interest in the ability to unobtrusively monitor team processes and performance is apparent. This is particularly relevant to the future of global military teams, as they are often distributed and collaborating via technologies that allow for systematic collection of communications data. The military has begun investing in the use of unobtrusive data captured through continually advancing technologies, including physiological data (e.g., skin reactance, heart rate, pupil dilation, brain activity) and communications data (e.g., email, chat, radio, phone, loudspeaker, document sharing, face-to-face through sociometric badges). These systems are producing enormous amounts of data which can be used to monitor individual and team performance within organizations over time. Orvis, DeCostanza, and Duchon (2013) have demonstrated promising results in the ability to assess team states critical to performance (e.g., shared mental models, shared situation awareness, cohesion)

Table 13.2 Summary of ineffective vs. effective behaviors in dealing with ethical challenges

Ineffective	Effective
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Refuses to accept differences exist between cultures with respect to what is defined as “corruption” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understands differences exist between cultures with respect to what is defined as “corruption”
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Does not take a big picture view of the overarching mission in determining whether to allow or take action against “corruption” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understands the difference between “corruption” that is a systemic part of the culture (difficult to change) and “corruption” that is part of an individual’s behavior (more options available to the leader to address)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cannot find a balance between maintaining relationships and addressing “corrupt” behaviors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adopts a big picture view of the overarching mission in determining whether to allow or take action against “corruption”
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Generalizes unethical behavior of one individual to the entire culture 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Brings ethical issues to the attention of team members
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fails to comprehend the multiple influences (e.g., cultural, organizational, personal, situational) that contribute to “corruption” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uses culturally appropriate methods to bring up ethical concerns
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gives up on improving relationships after encountering unethical behavior 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When accusing individuals of corruption, behaves in a professional and dignified way rather than a self-righteous way
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Personally engages in unethical behavior 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Examines the multiple cultural, organizational, personal, and situational factors in a situation that cause ethical issues to arise and determines how (or if) to deal with the situation

using communications data by combining a number of behavioral indicators of a particular construct to form a “measure.” While focusing on measurement of the states and processes critical to performance (e.g. Marks et al., 2001) is a good starting point, unobtrusively monitoring of performance in global military teams will require additional validation. For example, an indicator of trust in a U.S. military team may include use of a particular C2 technology suggesting competence. However, this indicator may not be applicable with global partners who are not expected to use the technology (Cianciolo & DeCostanza, 2012). As technologies become increasingly present in team interactions and advance along with analytical techniques, leaders of global teams can capitalize on this to more effectively monitor team performance over time in future operating environments.

Conclusion

Based on our expertise in different aspects of global teamwork in the Army, we have provided leaders of global teams with a number of challenges to consider across three categories: Composing the Team, Building and Training the Team, and Monitoring and Improving Performance. In response to these challenges, we have

also shared a brief overview of a portion of the core research being conducted within the Department of Defense to address these challenges. It should be noted that the research discussed here does not comprehensively cover the breadth of past and ongoing work, particularly in the Services other than the Army. However, the information shared in this chapter can be utilized to inform civilian and military leaders of global teams. To facilitate the linkage between the information provided and best practices for leaders of global teams, the following table is presented in summary:

Challenges to Consider	Recommendations
<i>Composing the team</i>	
What are the critical KSAOs for global teamwork?	Focus on cross-cultural competencies, rather than culture-specific knowledge for enhanced performance across multiple contexts.
How do leaders compose global teams with the right mix of individuals?	Consider team member KSAOs collectively, rather than in terms of individual fit.
<i>Building and training the team</i>	
What key behaviors should leaders promote?	Define the broad, complex, culture-related tasks global teams engage in to develop training applicable to a wider audience.
How do leaders develop effective global teams quickly?	Develop general teamwork skills early and take steps to ensure team situation awareness (goals, mission, roles, standard operating procedures).
How do leaders optimize team states and processes over time?	Monitor the link between behaviors and outcomes to ensure team states and processes foster desired performance outcomes.
<i>Monitoring and improving performance</i>	
What metrics should leaders use to assess performance?	Continually assess performance by monitoring behaviors, as opposed to waiting for results on specific actions.
How do leaders best assess performance in global teams?	Consider unobtrusive methods that examine the patterns of states and processes impacting performance over time.
What factors should leaders consider to continually focus on improved performance?	Anticipate common issues in global teams, such as ethical considerations, and continually focus on effective vs. ineffective behaviors in these domains.

References

- Abbe, A. (2008). *Building cultural capability for full-spectrum operations* (Study Report 2008-04). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Abbe, A., & Gouge, M. (2012, June–July). Cultural training for military personnel: Revisiting the Vietnam era. *Military Review*, 9–17.
- Abbe, A., Gulick, L. M. V., & Herman, J. L. (2008). *Cross-cultural competence in army leaders: A conceptual and empirical foundation* (Study Report 2008-01). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Abbe, A., & Halpin, S. M. (2010, Winter). The cultural imperative for professional military education and leader development. *Parameters*, 20–31.
- Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Koh, C. (2006). Personality correlates of the four-factor model of cultural intelligence. *Group & Organization Management*, 31, 100–123.

- Barrick, M. R., Stewart, G. L., Neubert, M. J., & Mount, M. K. (1998). Relating member ability and personality to work-team processes and team effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 377–391.
- Bell, S. T. (2007). Deep-level composition variables as predictors of team performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 595–615.
- Building a cohesive team*. (2013, April). *Army*, 63, 67–71.
- Burrus, J., Brennehan, M., Carney, L., Ezzo, C., Klafehn, J. L., Gallus, J. A., et al. (under review). *Development of an assessment of cross-cultural competence (3C): Expanded literature review* (Tech. Rep.). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Caligiuri, P., Noe, R., Nolan, R., Ryan, A. M., & Drasgow, F. (2011). *Training, developing, and assessing cross-cultural competence in military personnel* (Tech. Rep. No. 1284). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Chiarelli, P. W., & Michaelis, P. R. (2005). Winning the peace: The requirement for full-spectrum operations. *Military Review*, 85, 10.
- Cianciolo, A. T., & DeCostanza, A. H. (2010). *Augmented performance environment for enhancing interagency coordination in stability, security, transition, and reconstruction (SSTR) operations: Phase II* (Final Research Rep. 1934). Alexandria, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Cianciolo, A. T., & DeCostanza, A. H. (2012). *Assessing interpersonal trust in networked teams* (Tech. Rep. No. 1270). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Cianciolo, A. T., LaVoie, N., Foltz, P., & Pierce, L. G. (2009). *Augmented performance environment for enhancing interagency coordination in stability, security, transition, and reconstruction (SSTR) operations*. (Tech. Rep. No. 1246). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 10, 241–266.
- DeCostanza, A. H., Estrada, A. X., Harvey, J., Morath, R., Bryson, J., & Brusso, R. (under review). *Unit cohesion pocket guide* (ARI Research Product). Fort Belvoir, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Devine, D. J., & Philips, J. L. (2001). Do smarter teams do better: A meta-analysis of cognitive-ability and team performance. *Small Group Research*, 32, 507–533.
- Donsbach, J. S., Tannenbaum, S. I., Alliger, G. M., Mathieu, J. E., Salas, E., Goodwin, G. F., et al. (2009). *Team composition optimization: The team optimal profile system (TOPS)* (Tech. Rep. 1249). Alexandria, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute.
- Dwyer, D., Fowlkes, J., Oser, R. L., Salas, E., & Lane, N. E. (1997). Team performance measurement in distributed environments: The TARGETS methodology. In M. T. Brannick, E. Salas, & C. Prince (Eds.), *Team performance assessment and measurement: Theory, methods, and applications* (pp. 137–153). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Endsley, M. R. (1995). Measurement of situation awareness in dynamic systems. *Human Factors*, 37, 65–84.
- Evans, K. M., Cianciolo, A. T., Hunter A. E., & Pierce, L. G. (2010). *Modeling interpersonal trust in distributed command and control teams*. Proceedings of the 15th International Command and Control Research & Technology Symposium, Santa Monica, CA.
- Gatewood, R. D., & Feild, H. S. (1990). *Human resource selection* (2nd ed.). Chicago, IL: Dryden.
- Gallus, J. A., & Klafehn, J. L. (2013). Service member development following negative cross-cultural experiences. In A. Greene-Sands & R. Greene-Sands (Eds.), *Cross-cultural competence in the 21st century U.S. military*. Lexington, KY: Lexington Books.
- Grossman, R., Thayer, A. L., Burke, C. S., DeCostanza, A. H., Estrada, A. X., & DiRosa, G. A. (2013, April). *Conceptualizing cohesion at multiple levels: A theoretical model*. Poster presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Houston, TX.

- Hammer, M. R., Bennett, M. J., & Wiseman, R. (2003). Measuring intercultural sensitivity: The Intercultural Development Inventory. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 27, 421–443.
- Hechanova, R., Beehr, T. A., & Christiansen, N. D. (2003). Antecedents and consequences of employees' adjustment to overseas assignment: A meta-analytic review. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 52, 213–236.
- Jackson, S. E. (1992). Team composition in organizational settings: Issues in managing an increasingly diverse workforce. In S. Worchel, W. Wood, & J. Simpson (Eds.), *Group process and productivity*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Jackson, S. E., Brett, J. F., Sessa, V. I., Cooper, D. M., Julin, J. A., & Peyronnin, K. (1991). Some differences make a difference: Individual dissimilarity and group heterogeneity as correlated of recruitment, promotions, and turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 675–689.
- Janis, I. L. (1983). *Groupthink: Psychological studies of policy decisions and fiascoes* (2nd ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Jordan, S., Messner, M., & Becker, A. (2009). Reflection and mindfulness in organizations: Rationales and possibilities for integration. *Management Learning*, 40, 465–473.
- Jun, S., & Gentry, J. W. (2005). An exploratory investigation of the relative importance of cultural similarity and personal fit in the selection and performance of expatriates. *Journal of World Business*, 40, 1–8.
- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Klein, K. J. (2000). A multilevel approach to theory and research in organizations: Contextual, temporal, and emergent processes. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 3–90). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kruger, J., & Dunning, D. (1999). Unskilled and unaware of it: How difficulties in recognizing one's own incompetence lead to inflated self-assessments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77, 1121–1134.
- Marks, M. A., Mathieu, J. E., & Zaccaro, S. J. (2001). A temporally based framework and taxonomy of team processes. *Academy of Management Review*, 26, 356–376.
- McCloskey, M. J., Behymer, K. J., Papautsky, E. L., Ross, K. G., & Abbe, A. (2010). A developmental model of cross-cultural competence at the tactical level (Tech. Rep. 1278). Alexandria, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute.
- McCloskey, M., Grandjean, A., Behymer, K., & Ross, K. (2010). *Assessing the Development of Cross-Cultural Competence in Soldiers* (Tech. Rep. 1277). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Metrinko, M. J. (2008, August). *The American military advisor: Dealing with senior foreign officials in the Islamic world* (PKSOI Monograph). Retrieved July 5, 2011, from the Strategic Studies Institute, Army War College website: <http://www.strategicstudiesinstitute.army.mil/pubs/display.cfm?PubID=869>
- Mullen, B., Anthony, T., Salas, E., & Driskell, J. E. (1994). Group cohesiveness and quality of decision-making: An integration of tests of the groupthink hypothesis. *Small Group Research*, 25, 189–204.
- Nolan, R. W., LaTour, E., & Klafehn, J. L. (2014). A framework for developing rapid situational awareness in the field. (Research Report). Fort Belvoir, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Odierno, R. T. (Speaker). (2013). *CSA remarks to AUSA Wiregrass Chapter Breakfast* [Transcript]. Retrieved May 20, 2013, from http://www.army.mil/article/100937/April_2_2013_CSA_remarks_to_AUSA_Wiregrass_Chapter_Breakfast/
- Orvis, K. L., Ruark, G. A., Pierce, L., & Goodwin, J. (post peer review). *Scenario training for agile teams (STAT): Development of a company leadership team training tool* (Research Report). Arlington, VA: United States Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Orvis, K. L., DeCostanza, A. H., & Duchon, A. (2013, December). *Developing systems-based performance measures: A rational approach*. Paper presented at the Interservice/Industry Training, Simulation and Education Conference (IITSEC), Orlando, FL.
- Orvis, K. L., & Zaccaro, S. J. (2007). Team composition and member selection: optimizing teams for virtual collaboration. In J. Nemerino, M. M. Beyerline, L. Bradley, & S. Beyerlein (Eds.),

- The handbook of high performance virtual teams: a toolkit for collaborating across boundaries.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Panetta, L. (2011). Memorandum for the Secretaries of the Military Departments, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, Under Secretaries of Defense, Commanders of the Combatant Commands, Director Cost Assessment and Program Evaluation, General Council of the Department of Defense, Directors of the Defense Agencies, Directors of the DOD Field Activities. Washington, DC: Department of Defense.
- Parasuraman, R., & Riley, V. (1997). Humans and automation: Use, misuse, disuse, abuse. *Human Factors*, 39, 230–253.
- Ratwani, K., Beaubian, J., Entin, E., Feyre R., & Gallus J. (under review). *Identifying dynamic environments for cross-cultural competencies* (Tech. Rep.). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Reid, P., Kaloydis, F. O., Sudduth, M. M., & Greene-Sands, A. (2012). *Executive summary: A framework for understanding cross-cultural competence in the Department of Defense.* DEOMI Technical Report No. 15-12, Washington, DC.
- Ross, K. G. (2008). *Toward an operational definition of cross-cultural competence from interview data (ADA488616)*. Patrick Air Force Base, FL: Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute.
- Ross, R., & Thomson, C. (2008). *Internal report number CCC-08-3, Toward an operational definition of cross-cultural competence from the literature.* Patrick Air Force Base, FL: Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute.
- Salas, E., Sims, D. E., & Burke, C. S. (2005). Is there a big five in teamwork? *Small Group Research*, 36, 355–599.
- Salter, M. S., & Klein, G. E. (2007). *After action reviews: Current observations and recommendations.* Vienna, VA: Wexford Group International.
- Shuffler, M. L., Wiese, C. W., Salas, E., & Burke, C. S. (2010). Leading one another across time and space: Exploring shared leadership functions in virtual teams. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de Las Organizaciones*, 26(1), 3–17.
- Smith-Jentsch, K. A., Zeisig, R. L., Acton, B., & McPherson, J. A. (1998). Team dimensional training: A strategy for guided team self-correction. In J. A. Cannon-Bowers & E. Salas (Eds.), *Decision making under stress: Implications for individual and team training* (pp. 271–297). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Thomson, M. H., Adams, B. D., Taylor, T. E., & Sartori, J. E. (2007). *The impact of culture on moral and ethical decision-making: An integrative literature review* (DRDC Toronto CR 2007-168). Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Department of National Defense.
- Tuckman, B. W. (1965). Developmental sequence in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, 63, 384–399.
- U.S. Department of the Army. (2006a). *Counterinsurgency (FM 3-24)*. Washington, DC: Author.
- U.S. Department of the Army. (2006b). *Army leadership: Competent, confident, and agile (FM 6-22)*. Washington, DC: Author.
- U.S. Department of the Army. (2009). *Security force assistance (FM 3-07.1)*. Washington, DC: Author.
- U.S. Department of the Army. (2012). *The U.S. Army Capstone Concept (TRADOC Pam 525-3-0)*. Washington, DC: Author.
- U.S. House of Representatives Committee on Armed Services. (2008). *Agency Stovepipes vs. Strategies Agility: Lessons We Need to Learn from Provincial Reconstruction Teams in Iraq and Afghanistan*. Washington, DC: Author.
- Van der Zee, K. I., & van Oudenhoven, J. P. (2000). The Multicultural Personality Questionnaire: A multidimensional instrument of multicultural effectiveness. *European Journal of Personality*, 14, 291–309.
- Wisecarver, M., Foldes, H., Adis, C., Gallus, J., & Klafehn, J. (under review). *Sociocultural performance requirements in the U.S. Army.* (Special Report). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Yamazaki, Y., & Kayes, D. C. (2004). An experiential approach to cross-cultural learning: A review and integration of competencies for successful expatriate adaptation. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 3, 362–379.

- Zaccaro, S. J., & Bader, P. (2010). E-leadership and the challenges of leading e-teams: Minimizing the bad and maximizing the good. *Organizational Dynamics*, *31*, 377–387.
- Zaccaro, S. J., & McCoy, M. C. (1988). The effects of task and interpersonal cohesiveness on performance of a disjunctive group task. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *18*, 837–851.
- Zaccaro, S., Salas, E., & Burke, S. (2003). *Training and developing attributes for effective multinational and multicultural leadership* (Tech. Rep.) Alexandria, VA: Mirum Corporation.
- Zbylut, M. R., Metcalf, K. A., & Brunner, J. (2011). *Advising foreign security forces: Critical incidents describing the work of advisors* (Research Report 1951). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Zbylut, M. R., Metcalf, K. A., McGowan, B., Beemer, M., Brunner, J. M., & Vowels, C. L. (2009). *The human dimension of advising: An analysis of interpersonal, linguistic, cultural, and advisory aspects of the advisor role* (Tech. Rep. 1248). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Ziegler, M., MacCann, C., & Roberts, R. D. (2011). *New perspective on faking in personality assessment*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Zigurs, I. (2010). Leadership in virtual teams: Oxymoron or opportunity? *Organizational Dynamics*, *31*, 339–351.

Part IV
A Look Ahead

Chapter 14

Looking Forward: Meeting the Global Need for Leaders Through Guided Mindfulness

Richard L. Griffith, Mary Margaret Sudduth, Agnes Flett,
and Thomas Scott Skiba

Experience—not genetics, not training programs, not business school—is the primary source of learning to lead.

—Morgan McCall

Work is a central force in most of our lives that impacts both our activities and our identities. While we may work to live and/or live to work, the underlying motivation and processes surrounding work differ greatly across the globe (Gelfand, Leslie, & Fehr, 2008). However, from an individual perspective, the end of one workday seems very much like the beginning of the next. Yet, as constant as the experience of work is in our daily lives, the sands of work shift steadily under our feet and constantly evolve. The meaning of work and the way work is accomplished has changed greatly over time. These changes are well documented (e.g., Donkin, 2010; Howard, 1995). We have progressed from agrarian cultures to the industrial revolution and on to economies driven by the information age. Each new work era brings new needs for skills of those who fill the role of worker. Disciplined training and highly valued skills in one age may not translate to success in another and eventually those skills become substandard or obsolete.

Perhaps nowhere is this more apparent than in the role of leader. While the day-to-day experience of a leader may also have a steady, constant feel, the definition of leadership has evolved and shifted over time. Leadership once meant commanding followers, but over time shifted to motivating followers and now is more aligned with cultivating engagement and influencing sense making (Drath, 1998).

R.L. Griffith, Ph.D. (✉) • A. Flett • T.S. Skiba
School of Psychology and Institute for Cross Cultural Management,
Florida Institute of Technology, 150 West University Boulevard, Melbourne, FL 32901, USA
e-mail: griffith@fit.edu; aflett2012@my.fit.edu; tskiba2011@my.fit.edu

M.M. Sudduth, Ph.D.
School of Psychology, Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute,
150 West University Boulevard, Melbourne, FL 32901, USA
e-mail: mmsudduth@gmail.com

In the twenty-first century, a leader that stands still is a leader that gets passed by. Leaders that can adapt to changing environments have become more valuable, partly driven by the need for adaptation and partly driven by supply and demand. There is a growing need to develop leaders, especially global leaders that can drive international initiatives. According to Mendenhall and colleagues (Mendenhall, Reiche, Bird, & Osland, 2012), the context of global leadership involves three main characteristics: (1) a workforce that spans geographic locations and time zones; (2) high levels of complexity that involve highly ambiguous situations resulting from the fluctuating interdependencies of a diverse sets of stakeholders; and (3) an overflow of information from which global leaders must identify relevant content and adjust their strategy accordingly. Unique sets of competencies are needed to succeed within this context, and as such, organizations are finding that global leaders are in very short supply (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2006; Charan, Drotter, & Noel, 2001).

There have been developments in leadership training to meet these demands, but they generally lag behind, rather than keep pace with, the rapid changes in the global economy. Historically, formal leadership skills were acquired through exposure to declarative knowledge in structured workshops. Those individuals at the executive level were educated in university-based MBA style developmental programs at prestigious business schools (Conger, 2010). Largely these structured types of developmental opportunities have fallen short of leader expectations (Dotlich & Noel, 1998), because the personal objectives and relevancy for each leader were not made explicit. Today's business leaders are agile and seek learning and insight through real-world experiences that move quicker than chalk on the blackboard or yet another power point presentation. These techniques don't reflect the urgency or agency of professional learning and are not flexible enough to adapt to changing conditions. More contemporary leadership development approaches such as coaching and action learning hold more promise, but enrollment in these programs is limited to the top of the organizational pyramid and to those individuals identified as high potentials. If we are to develop the next generation of global leaders, and develop a large number of them, we will need to rethink approaches to leadership development. In the race to develop global leaders it doesn't seem wise to be driving last year's model.

Rather than adopting the role of futurist and try to predict what may come next, we offer a flexible framework for the development of global leadership skills that may prove useful across changes in context and demands. In this chapter we will discuss the current environment for global leaders, the shortage of acceptable candidates in the leadership pipeline, and the current approaches for leadership development. Finally, we will introduce the concept of Guided Mindfulness, an approach to leadership development that may meet the needs of twenty-first-century organizations.

The Global Leadership Gap

Much has been written about the shortage of global leaders. In recent research the lack of global leadership candidates has been identified as the top barrier to the expansion of international business (e.g., Cohen, 2010; Corporate Executive Board,

2012; Daniel & Kedia, 2003). In the private sector, the growth of emerging economies has opened new markets, new supply chains, and new talent pools for organizations seeking to capitalize on opportunities in the global economy (Kumar, Mudambi, & Gray, 2013). However, organizations have been slow to capitalize on these opportunities, because they do not have enough people with the necessary skills to lead global initiatives (Boatman & Wellins, 2011). The gap in the global leadership pipeline not only threatens growth and stability in the private sector, but it also equally challenges nonprofit and government entities (Bikson, Treverton, Moini, & Lindstrom, 2003). We now face threats on a global scale that no one individual, no one organization, or no one country can handle alone. To successfully handle the trials of the twenty-first century we will need a multitude of leaders prepared for the complexities and challenges that lie ahead.

What are these challenges? What makes a successful global leader? First, leaders must overcome distance. In the past followers could be found in the same room. Now they can't be found in the same time zone. Geographic challenges have become commonplace in the lives of modern leaders. Their followers are dispersed, which means they must rely on a different set of influence tactics and motivational tools (e.g., Hertel, Geister, & Konradt, 2005). The ability to read their followers, and to adapt in the moment, is now mediated through miles of fiber optic cable.

Second, modern leaders must overcome cultural distance. The tried-and-true methods of leadership that have become comfortable to a leader may not be effective in a new cultural context (Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, & House, 2006). The leadership style that was effective in Chicago may fall on deaf ears in São Paulo and be completely demotivating in Shanghai (Fu et al., 2004). Global leaders must adapt to the local conditions in which they lead, maintain their authenticity, and be able to take that show on the road in any country in which the organization needs them.

Finally, and perhaps most challenging, are the intellectual demands on twenty-first-century leaders. Leaders throughout time have faced hard decisions, but the level of complexity facing modern leaders is unprecedented (Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, & Maznevski, 2008). The number of variables and the rate these variables change has increased dramatically, and rather than suffering from a shortage of information, leaders now find they are flooded with information. However, in an age where metrics are critical, many of these variables are ill defined and escape measurement. When organizational, economic, and cultural systems are so closely interrelated, this ambiguity and uncertainty make prediction of future states close to impossible.

The competencies necessary to be a global leader are quite different than those of domestic leaders and will likely require different developmental experiences (Martins & Schilpzand, 2011; Robinson & Harvey, 2008). Global leaders will need to bring a sense of humility, relationship building, and ability to communicate their vision consistently using a variety of communication styles and mediums, while taking into account a variety of contextual factors (Gundling, Hogan, & Cvitkovich, 2011). They will need to learn to temper their assertiveness and thoughtfully manage the absorption, synthesis, and utilization of information within cross-cultural contexts. Moreover, all of this frame and style shifting must still occur during authentic and genuine interactions with followers and peers.

In summary, we need more leaders and these leaders must master an increasingly difficult set of skills in a number of novel environments. Thus, our developmental efforts must meet the seemingly incompatible demands of high volume, complexity, and customization.

Just Make More Leaders?

While the role of the leader has changed rapidly, the methods to develop leaders have progressed more slowly. Contemporary developmental opportunities for leaders have gone through a few evolutions. Initially leadership development was equated to workshops held by training organizations or inspirational speakers (Conger, 2010). Executives were often developed using university-based programs offered by business schools. Both of these methods had the drawbacks of being instructor centric, content driven, and generic. As a result, leaders found them to be less relevant to their specific business questions and, therefore, less useful (McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988). In addition, the learning from these programs was short-lived, with a temporary improvement following training all too often followed by a relapse into old behavioral patterns (Day, 2001).

Two major advances in the area of leadership development were the coaching revolution and action learning. The practice of coaching is now commonplace, with roughly half of senior executives involved in coaching practices (American Management Association, 2008). While definitions vary, coaching is often framed as a dialog during which a coach uses questioning techniques to improve the self-awareness and insight of the leader. Coaches also help facilitate learning through goal setting and accountability. Thus, the process of coaching is often viewed as a collaborative effort to improve performance and facilitate professional growth (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenbeck, 1999). Paired with multirater feedback systems, coaching has become a staple of leadership development programs. Action learning is a developmental activity during which participants work in a group over an extended period of time to address an organizational problem (Dotlich & Noel, 1998). During action learning, participants are challenged to reflect on their work in a supportive environment of peers while they tackle real-world problems in tight time frames (Dilworth & Willis, 2003). This type of developmental opportunity is used frequently as a method to develop high potentials. As a learning method, it has much promise if the event is relevant and structured, the amount of action vs. learning is balanced, and formal assessment is part of the developmental sequence (Conger & Toegel, 2002).

While popular, little research supports the effectiveness of coaching and action learning (Conger & Toegel, 2002; Day, 2001). One reason for lackluster results is that the success of these programs is largely influenced by the quality of the coach and the learning curriculum. Both activities refer more to a philosophy than a rigorous, standardized method of instruction. Moreover, coaching is often more of a method of remediation than development with as many as 75 % of assignees in danger of derailment (Day, 2001). In addition, these activities are generally limited

in accessibility to a chosen few. Coaching is a one-on-one activity, which ultimately financially caps the number of high potentials and leaders that can be developed. Action learning programs are a focused singular learning experience (Conger & Toegel, 2002) designed to accommodate only a small cohort. In a recent leadership development engagement, we worked with the 32 young leaders who were identified as high potentials of a company of 15,000 people with revenue of 11 billion dollars a year. Even within the scope of a single company, that number fell far short of their expanding need for leaders. 3 M, which has one of the most robust corporate action learning programs, completed seventy-one projects in 9 years across 23 cohort sessions (Paul, Johnson, & Karls, 2014). In a company with almost 90,000 employees across the globe, however, this effort remains a drop in the development bucket. Thus, neither coaching nor action learning has the capacity to be the vehicle through which to build the next generation of global leaders.

Of all the global development methods commonly employed today, perhaps the most demanding, but potentially most impactful, is the live fire exercise of the international “stretch” assignment (Day, 2001). Both long-term and short-term overseas assignments are viewed as a way to expose high potentials and other leadership candidates to different business units and give them a chance to lead an organization far away from the friendly confines of headquarters. Important outcomes linked to international job assignments include: building a professional team, practicing influence skills across cultures, elevating planning and thinking to strategic levels, and managing competing agendas from local and global stakeholders (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). However, international assignments are risky for both the organization and the assignee. Roughly \$2 billion dollars a year are lost to expatriate failure (Ornoy & Tarba, 2013). Other intangible costs include the loss of a potential leader due to derailment, career disruption, and family challenges (e.g., Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison, & Ren, 2012). Few companies measure the return on investment for international assignments (McNulty, De Cieri, & Hutchings, 2009)—perhaps with good reason. Without the addition of some structure and objectives, these assignments may be a losing proposition. Stretch assignments have the potential to be a very effective method for development. However, this experiential learning does not include structured reflection, and therefore, it is simply an opportunity to develop tacit knowledge (Shamsie & Mannor, 2013).

Taken together, the developmental approaches of classroom learning, coaching, action learning, and stretch assignments run the continuum of cheap and safe (but less effective) to expensive and risky (but potentially high impact). Perhaps, if used in the right ratio, the benefits of one approach can offset the risks of another.

70-20-10 and Blended Learning

An influential model of leadership development has been the 70-20-10 model that evolved from work at the Center for Creative Leadership (Lindsey, Homes, & McCall, 1987). This model suggests that the minority of learning experiences should

occur in a formal setting. Thus, only 10 % of learning should occur in workshops, lectures, reading books, etc. For global leadership training workshops don't come close to the real-life experiences that leaders have while living and working abroad (Littrell, Salas, Hess, Paley, & Riedel, 2006), however, they are valuable in building foundations for later learning (Tarique & Caligiuri, 2009). Leaders enrolled in workshops can gain self-awareness and knowledge about how leadership styles may differ around the globe. Thus, these workshops build basic skills that may allow leaders to sense-make while abroad. Ideally these workshops should provide practice experiences, simulations, and feedback that will not only enhance the leader's knowledge but also their comfort in new contexts.

Slightly more emphasis is placed on relationship-based learning (e.g., coaching and mentoring), with a suggested allotment of 20 %. Relationship-based learning has proven to be a strong determinant of global leadership success. One of the top success factors of global executives identified by McCall and Hollenbeck (2002) was learning from experienced colleagues. In organizations with extensive international experience, mentoring programs can be both powerful developmental and retention strategies. Leaders returning from assignments abroad or with global virtual teams have a wealth of insights, tools, tips, and stories that can greatly assist in the development of the next generation of global leaders. Mentors cannot eliminate costly mistakes, but they can increase the probability that the same mistake is not made again. A mentor's tacit knowledge offers great value for a leader's first global team experience, and organizations should capitalize on this value. Overseas assignments are quite expensive, and effective knowledge transfer can help to offset that cost, dispersing the learning throughout the organization. In addition, mentoring programs help retain returning leaders by providing them an opportunity to share their experiences and further make sense of the overseas assignment. As a leader progresses from mentee to mentor, they are able to see global leadership roles from several perspectives. This perspective taking is a key competency of global leadership (Mendenhall et al., 2012).

Finally, the vast majority of learning should be accomplished by doing. In the 70-20-10 model, 70 % of learning should be realized through on-the-job experience while advancing the organization's mission. Experiential learning is conceptualized as a cycle of deriving lessons from concrete experiences. Global leaders benefit from engaging in multiple ambiguous experiences that can be emotionally charged and full of novel information. They must then reflect upon the experience including the responses of others to their actions and their own internal states. This reflection allows them to develop sets of abstract conceptualizations (or hunches) to explain how to behave in future situations and then experiment by changing their behaviors and decision-making to find a more adaptive alternative to their new settings (Kolb, 1984). Leaders will differ in their propensity and ability to engage in the experiential learning steps (Li, Mobley, & Kelly, 2013; Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). As successful global leaders accumulate lessons from their experiences, the process of experiential learning becomes easier because they are better at distinguishing critical information in the present moment and comparing it to their wealth of knowledge (Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009).

The concept of learning while doing has many advantages. First, the content of training is inherently more relevant, because it is based on actual experiences rather than off-the-shelf case studies. Off-the-shelf materials provide a two-dimensional stimulus that lack the complexity and range of possible experiences associated with real-life problems. Second, the problem of training transfer is eliminated. Learning on the job ensures a one-to-one correspondence between newly acquired skills and the challenges faced by leaders, eliminating the minutia and filler often encountered in workshops. Third, experienced-based development is more powerful, because real-world challenges and constraints provide more variability, which results in more integrative and longer lasting learning that can be applied across more contexts (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002). While it is possible to daydream through a workshop or coaching session, life requires your attention if you are to be successful. This focused attention is a key mechanism we will return to shortly in this chapter.

Few would argue against the maxim that the best teacher of leadership is experience. However, as McCall (2010) so eloquently stated, “it turns out that using experience effectively to develop leadership talent is a lot more complicated and difficult than it appears to be” (p. 3). While there are many upsides to emphasizing the 70 % of learning that occurs by doing, there are also several important pitfalls. First, because life events often come at us in unpredictable ways, learning is unstructured. While these ambiguous learning opportunities can enhance development (Antal, 2014), no two individuals learn the same lessons. Second, for global leaders, there can be an insulation problem. The status and day-to-day demands of global leaders likely reduce their access to close contact experiences with a variety of members of other cultures. This “hand-holding” by staff abroad can inhibit global leaders’ opportunities to have highly engaging and novel cultural experiences (Mendenhall & Osland, 2012). Without those close contact experiences, global leaders are not exposed to information that disconfirms their previous assumptions and stimulates the development of a more complex understanding of the environment (Rosenblatt, Worthley, & MacNab, 2013). Third, without a guiding competency framework this unstructured learning is difficult to evaluate. Competency frameworks provide a unifying structure for learning and evaluation that is missing in tacit learning; ensuring that learning is relevant to the organizations goals and that leaders can be compared on their progress. Fourth, the idiosyncratic nature of experienced-based learning can lead to unintended consequences. We often judge the success of our learning by the associated outcomes and, as much as we would like to believe otherwise, sometimes we just get lucky. A leader with a reserved and indirect communication style assigned to the Shanghai office may find the transition goes smoothly and then may attribute her success internally. Assign the same leader to Brazil, and the same leadership approach may lead to less than desirable outcomes. If you ask a leader to learn from their experiences, they will likely selectively attend to personally relevant self-enhancing moments and not necessarily to those experiences directly tied to the strategy of the organization. Fifth, and perhaps most importantly, leaders are so busy “doing” that they rarely engage in the focused attention and reflection necessary for effective experiential learning. Much of our day-to-day experience relies on automatic processing developed through repetition and heuristics. We simply don’t pay

enough attention to our environment and behaviors to effectively learn from them. For a leader to gain anything from the 70 % component of the model, they must focus their attention and be mindful of their development.

The utility of this blended approach is that it is grounded in experiential or tacit learning. Benefits of the 70 % component of this model may potentially mirror that of stretch assignments; however, there remain the hazards of ambiguity and time press, which may result in the loss of potential lessons learned. An integral component to the prevention of this loss and successful learning on the job is the concept of mindfulness.

Mindfulness

Unfortunately, the term mindfulness has now slipped into the area of management science that is often labeled “fad” or “fringe.” However, the concept is steeped in philosophical tradition and backed by sound theory and research. Mindfulness is a heightened state of awareness and focused attention on internal states and situational cues (Thomas, 2006). Mindful Individuals are more aware of their physical arousal, cognitions, and emotions. They are better able to decouple their sense of self-worth from events, emotions, and momentary experiences (Glomb, Bhawe, Miner, & Wall, 2011). As a result, mindful individuals are less preoccupied with evaluating the environment in regards to what it means for them and instead focus attention on understanding the causal chains of events around them. By inhibiting extraneous activation that drains cognitive processing resources, mindful individuals are less likely to rely upon their preexisting assumptions and habits to interpret information and to determine their behavior (Siegel, 2010). When this automatic processing of stimuli is suspended, more attention can be focused on contextual factors affecting behavior and communication. This focus leads to a more robust understanding of situational influences and the impact of the leader on the situation.

Our understanding of mindfulness draws on both Eastern traditions and cognitive psychology, particularly the concept of self-regulation (Thomas, 2006). Boyatzis and McKee (2005) suggested that mindfulness is essential for developing and sustaining strong leadership and that it allows leaders to “consciously develop the capacity for deep self-awareness, noting and building on our understanding of our experiences” (p. 3). Essentially, mindfulness can enhance each stage of the experiential learning process for global leaders. The cornerstone of mindfulness training is learning to be in the present moment. Mindful individuals focus their attention on the task at hand and have high levels of sensitivity toward the material and social stimuli in their surroundings. Therefore, they utilize more cognitive resources for identifying relevant information. Additionally, they are better able to suspend their biases and assumptions from narrowing their frame of reference. As a result, they gain more novel and meaningful information from their concrete experiences that can be used to adjust and add complexity to their frames of reference (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002). Furthermore, the increased empathy, social awareness,

and authenticity displayed by mindful individuals improve their ability to develop relationships across boundaries, yielding more access to social information. When reflecting on their experiences, mindful individuals are more flexible and utilize more effortful processing in order to reach deeper, more complete understanding of the experience (Siegel, 2010). The improved insights from reflection can be used to develop more comprehensive and accurate abstract conceptualizations for understanding why a sequence of events occurred. Through active experimentation, mindful global leaders can more quickly identify the correct set of assumptions and behaviors for a given situation. In addition to enhancing learning through experience, mindfulness has been linked to a host of other value-add outcomes such as affect regulation, response flexibility, social connectedness, persistence, and task performance (Glomb et al., 2011). Stanley (2010) linked enhanced mindfulness to improved cultural competence, situational awareness, task adaptability, reduced stress, and reduced emotional reactivity. Finally, mindfulness is associated with more ethical decision-making that seeks to satisfy strategic goals while maintaining the needs, welfare, and dignity of others (Ruedy & Schweitzer, 2010). As a result, mindful global leaders should be better at developing sustainable strategies and relationships across boundaries.

So while many practitioners suggest that effective learning only occurs through experiences, and 70 % of our effort should be focused there, we suggest that effective learning can only occur by being *mindful of our experiences*. Only when leaders are focused on the situation, their impact on their followers, and their internal states, can they make good use of the 70 % rule. Otherwise this time is likely to be just as ineffective as classroom experiences and as inconsistent as coaching, as the demands, complexity, and ambiguity of global leadership distract potential global leaders and inhibit learning. With a mindful approach, the impact of stretch assignments can truly be realized. Rather than just stretch a young executive thin through confusion and stress, mindful assignments can stretch the capacity of the leader to attend, learn, understand, take multiple perspectives, adapt, and act. These will be the truly influential competencies of the next generation of global leaders.

If mindfulness could simply be switched on, our problems would be solved. Unfortunately, mindfulness is an effortful activity/skill that can take time to fully develop. Mindfulness has traditionally been learned through Eastern philosophy and practices such as meditation, yoga, and martial arts. However, no mystique need be attached to the development of mindfulness; it can be fostered through everyday activities. The mechanism of mindfulness is similar to the muscle metaphor used to describe self-regulation (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). Repeated practice of focused attention strengthens the muscle and improves the ability to attend to relevant factors and suppress negative states. With effort, this mechanism can be leveraged in everyday activities that do not require dedicated time or Eastern practices (Kabat-Zinn, 1994), which might be a hard sell for busy executives.

Incorporating mindfulness into potential learning experiences presents an interesting dilemma in that we must remember to be mindful, which requires a little mindfulness. Additionally, the time demands and cognitive load of leadership roles often necessitates more doing and less learning. But what if we had a little technology-based assistance? What if our mindfulness was guided?

Guided Mindfulness

In an ideal world, leaders would attend to their experiences, reflect on their performance, and document their learning so that this data could be accessed later for self-review or review by a coach. However, the pace and demands of the business world often take precedence over learning, and developmental opportunities are often lost. Executives are quite busy and have little time to dedicate to learning. Adaptive learning systems can meet this challenge. Through the process of prompts, a computer aided learning platform can motivate learners to consider events before they happen (Hedberg, 2009), maintain presence during encounters (Schon, 1987), and guide reflection and after action review (Daudelin, 1996). Through this process of sense making, the learner can gain insight during each event as well as across multiple events. With the integration of a little technology into the “70 %” quotient dedicated to experiential learning, we may be able to effectively prompt and guide mindfulness until the learner has developed sufficient self-regulation “muscles.”

An ideal computer aided mindfulness platform would entail a cloud-based app prompting a leader prior to a scheduled business activity (i.e., an intercultural event). The prompt would ask questions requiring reflection on the leader’s expectations, the competencies necessary for successful performance, his or her level of proficiency on those competencies, and possible “land mines” that may interfere with successful performance. The data captured during this session would be stored in a database for subsequent review. Following the event, the app would prompt the leader with questions requiring reflection on the event. This data would also be captured. Over time the system would gather data over multiple events that could be sorted by event, competency, problem areas, etc.

In the following section we will describe our vision for a technology-assisted system of learning that we call Guided Mindfulness (GM). We will first present a general overview of the system (see Fig. 14.1) and then move to a discussion of the benefits of such a system for the development of global leaders.

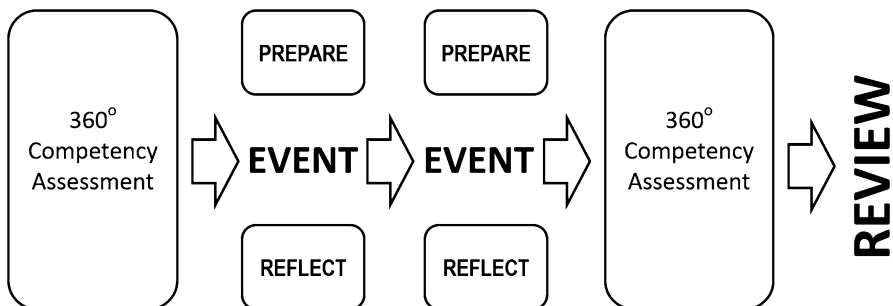


Fig. 14.1 Guided mindfulness

Our presentation of a GM learning system can be viewed as a year-long developmental sequence beginning with assessment and ending in review of the lessons learned throughout the year. Sandwiched by assessment and review is event-based learning, the cornerstone of the GM approach. Each distinct event has associated preparation and reflection activities. We will discuss each element of the approach in more detail in the following passages.

Competency Assessment

At the heart of any systematic learning initiative is a delineation of desired outcomes and a system to measure those outcomes. To maximize experiential learning, we suggest that the GM approach be based on an identified system of competencies tied to the strategic goals of the leader's organization. One of the drawbacks of "free range" tacit learning is that it is not coupled to formal learning objectives that are relevant and valued. Therefore, learning is haphazard and the leader is left to sift through experiences and map them onto their organizational responsibilities. A clearly defined set of competencies reduces this jumbled learning into more streamlined, coherent, and actionable knowledge. A number of global leadership competency frameworks have been proposed (e.g., Bird & Macfarlane, 2011; Bird & Osland, 2004; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002; Gundling et al., 2011; Gundykunst, 1991; Mendenhall & Osland, 2002; Mendenhall et al., 2012). However, a GM approach to learning is content free and any set of competencies may be used.

Once the competencies have been chosen, leaders should be assessed using a multirater (360° degree) performance measurement tool. This assessment provides a baseline to evaluate learning and can also provide feedback to the leader that will increase self-awareness of their standing on the competencies (Yammarino & Atwater, 1997). Feedback from key stakeholders with different perspectives and cultural backgrounds can be an invaluable tool to address blind spots and identify developmental areas (London & Smither, 1995). These developmental areas then can be operationalized into specific goals for the year.

Event-Based Preparation and Reflection

The GM system is event based. Events can be conceptualized as any on the job activity that may provide a learning opportunity. Events can be major crucible events (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002), such as the negotiation of a large contract abroad. Other events can be relatively minor such as a brainstorming session with international peers. The leader can identify which events will be targeted based on their developmental goals and enter the date of the event into the learning system.

Prior to the date of the event, the system would prompt the leader to prepare for the event. Through a series of eliciting questions, the system will guide the leader through a number of reflective exercises to more deeply process the actions necessary for successful performance during the event. For instance, the system may ask the leader to identify which competencies will be used during the event as well as their strengths on those competencies. The system could also prompt the leader to clearly define what success will look like for the event. Responses from the leader can be captured by the system, and this data can be reviewed by the learner (leader or high potential) or their coach or mentor at a later date.

During the event, leaders must maintain focus on the challenges at hand. Distractions at this stage interfere with the leader's ability to have authentic, genuine interactions with their followers and counterparts. However, leaders should resist the temptation to "wing it" during these interactions. Schon's (1987) research suggested that leaders remain in a mindful state through reflection in action by concentrating on their goals, sense making through observation (Osland & Bird, 2000), and relationship dynamics. If incorporated into a cognitive prompt or mantra, leaders can be reminded of these key success factors while remaining in the moment.

At the conclusion of the event, the GM system will prompt the leader to reflect on the activity through another series of questions. Leaders may be asked to self-assess their performance on the targeted competencies and discuss barriers or stumbling blocks to successful performance. Additionally, leaders may be asked if the experience of the event matched their expectations of the event and to expound on the congruence and disconnects between their experience and expectations. Responses are also collected and stored during the postevent reflection stage.

This process is then repeated for each event. Throughout the year the leader is guided to engage in mindful anticipation and evaluation of their work activities. Many leaders already engage in this type of metacognitive dialog; however, few approach the exercise in a systematic way and even fewer document their learning. The advantage of the GM system is that the learning is organized around a common core of competencies identified by the organization and that the insights of the learner are captured and can be used to advance learning at a later point in time.

Final Assessment and Review

After the events for the year are completed, the leader is again assessed using a multirater system, which should provide useful metrics regarding improvement and areas for continued development. Once the final 360 is completed, the leader can begin the task of review and sense making. To maximize learning the leader can revisit the data from the year to assess where progress was made, to analyze what experiences had the most impact, and to synthesize learning across types of events, situations, and competencies. A data driven system would facilitate sorting of the data on a number of key dimensions including time, competency, etc. Ideally, if the leader or organizations employs a coach, the coach can access this data prior to coaching engagements to fully prepare to assist the leader in deeper learning.

Benefits of a Guided Mindfulness Approach

The notion of learning by doing and reflection is not new. The concepts underlying the GM framework have been successfully applied in educational settings in which teachers were encouraged to think about their daily classroom goals and reflect on the classroom experience to modify their goals in future performances (Korthagen & Vasalos, 2005). The technique has also been successfully applied to management training (Cunliffe, 2004; Hedberg, 2009). The Guided Mindfulness technique is essentially an individual-level parallel to the team-level intervention known as guided team self-correction (Smith-Jentsch, Cannon-Bowers, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 2008) that has been shown to vastly improve team processes and performance. However, with the integration of technology, it is possible to develop an adaptive system that can maximize learning and, perhaps, serve as a possible mechanism to meet the challenges of developing a generation of global leaders.

The proposed GM approach has several benefits worth noting. First, the system is scalable. There are not enough seats in workshops or qualified coaches to develop the number of global leaders necessary to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century. Even if there were, the cost in time, resources, and revenue would be prohibitive. While data-driven learning platforms can be expensive, the cost per learner can be driven down substantially through volume. While additional users mean additional servers and maintenance, these costs are small compared to the costs of coaching, designing action learning programs, and the salaries of leaders engaged in more time-consuming action learning. Using a technology-mediated GM approach the number of leaders who can be maximizing the 70 % component of their learning can be in the thousands rather than the 30-40 participants in a typical action learning program.

Second, the GM approach is mobile, allowing for agile just-in-time learning. Having led hundreds of executive workshops, we can confidently say that top leaders dislike spending time in workshops and often actively avoid coaching. It is not that executives do not want to learn. In fact, they are hungry for development that will help them meet their personal and organizational targets. The issue is one of time. A cloud-based system would allow GM activities to be conducted via smartphones, tablets, and other mobile technology. Rather than spending time locked in a workshop, executives can now engage in learning activities while in a taxi, at an airport, or during other down time where 15-min opportunities for reflection may arise.

Third, the system allows for learning that is real world and in real time. Even state-of-the-art action learning programs take the learner out of their natural environment. All of the learning accomplished through GM is relevant to the job, because it is being accomplished during the course of work, not in removed, special settings. Thus, lessons learned through GM are more meaningful because of the congruence of the learning stimuli and the challenges leaders face in their day-to-day lives. Learners are more motivated, because they see the direct tie between the effort of learning and outcomes on the job. In contrast, coaching and action learning often require leaders to apply abstract principles to specific contexts, which can be effortful and on occasion fruitless.

Fourth, a system such as the one described would not only facilitate learning on an individual level, but the data gathered could also be aggregated and analyzed across individuals to maximize learning at a unit or organizational level. Thus, organizations could capture organizational wisdom regarding the threats, opportunities, and lessons learned through data mining of the aggregated data set. This data could then be fed back into the system creating an organization wide intranet of specific, relevant knowledge.

Fifth, the described system is flexible and can adapt to events and organizational changes that have yet to unfold. Models of leadership change. Competency frameworks change. Best practices change. While content-based approaches to development need content revisions to remain current, an event-based reflection approach is relatively content free. Rather than employ an army of instructional designers to keep up with new leadership challenges, the GM approach ensures that all learning is customized to the learner at a fraction of the cost. In addition, the GM approach can be modified for different levels of the organization, allowing for leadership development strategies to be implemented earlier in developmental sequences, further filling the leadership talent pipeline. While we developed the concept of GM to address the challenges of leadership development, it should also be noted that the approach could be used to facilitate the learning of any complex skill.

Finally, enhancing mindfulness has several value-added benefits. Mindfulness is related to reductions in emotional exhaustion (Hülshager, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2012) and other variables related to maintaining a positive mental state (Brown, Ryan, & Creswell, 2007). For global leaders, helping them buffer the effects of high job demands is a critical factor for sustaining long-term performance. Additionally, one of the greatest challenges for global leaders is determining and sustaining ethical decision-making across borders (Stahl, Pless, & Maak, 2012). Global leaders are often forced to identify the correct choice that maintains the parent company's ethics and interests while conforming to the legal and ethical differences present in different cultural contexts. Furthermore, highly goal-oriented pursuits can result in less ethically minded decision-making posing a major risk to the investments and reputations of large organizations (Ordóñez, Schweitzer, Galinsky, & Bazerman, 2009). Importantly, mindfulness does not simply enhance task performance by leaders, mindful leaders are also better able to resist the temptations for immediate gains and make decisions based on the needs of many stakeholders (Ruedy & Schweitzer, 2010).

Accelerating Global Leadership Development

The shortage of global leadership may be one of the most pressing contemporary issues facing organizations. Success starts at the top, and unfortunately for organizations desperately seeking to expand in today's global market, there are many seats that need to be filled in succession and expansion plans, which it will be no small quandary to fill. The skill of leading multiple stakeholders across geographic,

technical, and cultural borders is quite complex, defying current methods of leadership development. However, the need for these leaders is immediate: we need to develop more leaders, and we need to develop them faster. To adequately address the need for more and better global leadership, researchers and practitioners must address two main issues: volume and quality. We must design systems that can develop a large number of leaders; our approach must be scalable. We must provide high quality developmental experiences, ensuring that they are timely, relevant, transferable, and delivered in an efficient fashion. Thus, the future of global leadership training must adapt to current conditions and address the need for efficient, accelerated, high impact, and pertinent learning experiences. The Guided Mindfulness approach can meet these requirements and provide a flexible approach to develop the next generation of global leaders. Cho and Egan (2009) stated that “organizational survival is dependent on learning keeping pace with or advancing beyond the rate of change exhibited in the external environment” (p. 431). With careful design and implementation, the proposed solution can accelerate global leadership development and give organizations a fighting chance to survive and thrive in the twenty-first century.

References

- American Management Association. (2008). *Coaching: A global study of successful practices—current trends and future possibilities, 2008–2018*. New York: AMA.
- Antal, A. B. (2014). When arts enter organizational spaces: Implications for organizational learning. *Learning Organizations*, 6, 177–201.
- Bikson, T. K., Treverton, G. T., Moini, J., & Lindstrom, G. (2003). *New challenges for international leadership: Lessons from organizations with global missions*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation National Security Research Division.
- Bird, A., & Osland, J. S. (2004). *Global competencies: An introduction. The Blackwell handbook of global management: A guide to managing complexity* (pp. 57–80). New York: Blackwell.
- Bird, A. & Macfarlane, A. (2011, October). Mapping the way to global leadership competency: From assessment to coaching, successful models and practices. Symposium presentation at the International Leadership Association Global Conference, London, UK.
- Boatman, J., & Wellins, R. (2011). *Time for a leadership revolution: Global Leadership Forecast 2011*. Developmental Dimensions International: Pittsburgh, PA.
- Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2005). *Resonant leadership: Renewing yourself and connecting with others through mindfulness, hope, and compassion*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Brown, K. W., Ryan, R. M., & Creswell, J. D. (2007). Mindfulness: Theoretical foundations and evidence for its salutary effects. *Psychological Inquiry*, 18, 211–237.
- Caligiuri, P., & Tarique, I. (2006). International assignee selection and cross-cultural training and development. In I. Björkman & G. Stahl (Eds.), *Handbook of research in international human resource management*. London: Edward Elgar.
- Charan, R., Drotter, S., & Noel, J. (2001). *The leadership pipeline*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Cho, Y., & Egan, T. M. (2009). Action learning research: A systematic review and conceptual framework. *Human Resource Development Review*, 8, 431–462.
- Cohen, S. L. (2010). Acquiring a global leadership mindset: The new competitive advantage in the marketplace. *Development and Learning in Organizations*, 24(4), 277.

- Conger, J. (2010). Developing leadership talent: Delivering on the promise of structured programs. In R. Silzer & B. E. Dowell (Eds.), *Strategy-driven talent management: A leadership imperative* (pp. 281–311). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Conger, J., & Toegel, G. (2002). Action learning and multi-rater feedback as leadership development interventions: Popular but poorly deployed. *Journal of Change Management*, 3, 332–348.
- Corporate Executive Board. (2012). *Global leadership study*. Retrieved from <http://www.shl.com/us/the-global-view-of-leadership/>
- Cunliffe, A. L. (2004). On becoming a critically reflexive practitioner. *Journal of Management Education*, 28, 407–426.
- Daniel, S., & Kedia, B. L. (2003). *US business needs for employees with international expertise*. Conference on Global Challenges and US Higher Education at Duke University, Durham, NC.
- Daudelin, M. W. (1996). Learning from experience through reflection. *Organizational Dynamics*, 24, 36–48.
- Day, D. V. (2001). Leadership development: A review in context. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11, 581–613.
- Dilworth, R. L., & Willis, V. J. (2003). *Action learning: Images and pathways*. Professional practices in adult education and lifelong learning series. Melbourne, FL: Krieger.
- Donkin, R. (2010). *The history of work*. London: Palgrave.
- Dotlich, D., & Noel, J. (1998). *Action learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Drath, W. H. (1998). Approaching the future of leadership development. In C. McCauley, R. S. Moxley, & E. Van Velsor (Eds.), *Handbook of leadership development*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Fu, P. P., Kennedy, J., Tata, J., Yukl, G., Bond, M. H., Peng, T.-K., et al. (2004). The impact of societal cultural values and individual social beliefs on the perceived effectiveness of managerial influence strategies: A meso approach. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 35, 284–305. doi:10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400090.
- Gelfand, M. J., Leslie, L. M., & Fehr, R. (2008). To prosper, organizational psychology should... adopt a global perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29, 493–517.
- Glomb, T. M., Bhawe, D. P., Miner, A. G., & Wall, M. (2011). Doing good, feeling good: Examining the role of organizational citizenship behaviors in changing mood. *Personnel Psychology*, 64, 191–223.
- Gudykunst, W.B. (1991). *Bridging differences: Effective intergroup communication*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Gundling, E., Hogan, T., & Cvitkovich, K. (2011). *What is global leadership?: 10 Behaviors that define great global leaders*. Boston: Nicholas Brealey.
- Gupta, A. K., & Govindarajan, V. (2002). Cultivating a global mindset. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 16, 116–126.
- Hall, D. T., Otazo, K. L., & Hollenbeck, G. P. (1999). Behind closed doors: What really happens in executive coaching. *Organizational Dynamics*, 27, 39–53.
- Hedberg, P. R. (2009). Learning through reflective classroom practice. *Journal of Management Education*, 33, 10–36.
- Hertel, G., Geister, S., & Konradt, U. (2005). Managing virtual teams: A review of current empirical research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 15, 69–95.
- Howard, A. (1995). *The changing nature of work*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Hülshager, U. R., Alberts, H. J. E. M., Feinholdt, A., & Lang, J. W. B. (2012). Benefits of mindfulness at work: The role of mindfulness in emotion regulation, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98, 310–325. doi:10.1037/a0031313.
- Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., Sully de Luque, M., & House, R. J. (2006). In the eye of the beholder: Cross-cultural lessons in leadership from project GLOBE. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20, 67–90.
- Kabat-Zinn, J. (1994). *Wherever you go, there you are: Mindfulness meditation in daily life*. New York: Hyperion.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the resource of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

- Korthagen, F., & Vasalos, A. (2005). Levels in reflection: Core reflection as a means to enhance professional growth. *Teachers and Teaching, 11*, 47–71.
- Kraimer, M. L., Shaffer, M. A., Harrison, D. A., & Ren, H. (2012). No place like home? An identity strain perspective on repatriate turnover. *Academy of Management Journal, 55*, 399–420.
- Kumar, V., Mudambi, R., & Gray, S. (2013). Internationalization, innovation and institutions: The 3 I's underpinning the competitiveness of emerging market firms. *Journal of International Management, 19*, 203–206.
- Li, M., Mobley, W. H., & Kelly, A. (2013). When do global leaders learn to develop cultural intelligence: An investigation of the moderating role of experiential learning style. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 12*, 32–50.
- Lindsey, E. H., Homes, V., & McCall, M. W., Jr. (1987). *Key events in executives' lives*. Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.
- Littrell, L. N., Salas, E., Hess, K. P., Paley, M., & Riedel, S. (2006). Expatriate preparation: A critical analysis of 25 years of cross-cultural training research. *Human Resource Development Review, 5*, 355–388.
- London, M., & Smither, J. (1995). Can multi-source feedback change perceptions of goal accomplishment, self-evaluations, and performance-related outcomes? Theory-based applications and directions for research. *Personnel Psychology, 48*, 803–839.
- Martins, L. L., & Schilpzand, M. C. (2011). Global virtual teams: Key developments, research gaps, and future directions. In A. Joshi, H. Liao, & J. J. Martocchio (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management (research in personnel and human resources management)* (Vol. 30, pp. 1–72). Bingley, England: Emerald Group.
- McCall, M. W. (2010). Recasting leadership development. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 3*, 3–19.
- McCall, M. W., & Hollenbeck, G. P. (2002). *Developing global executives: The lessons of international experience*. Boston: Harvard Business.
- McCall, M. W., Lombardo, M. M., & Morrison, A. M. (1988). *The lessons of experience: How successful executives develop on the job*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- McNulty, Y., De Cieri, H., & Hutchings, K. (2009). Do global firms measure expatriate return on investment? An empirical examination of measures, barriers and variables influencing global staffing practices. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 20*, 1309–1326.
- Mendenhall, M. & Osland, J.S. (2002, June). An overview of the extant global leadership research. Symposium presentation at the Academy of International Business, Puerto Rico.
- Mendenhall, M. E., & Osland, J. (Eds.). (2012). *Global leadership: Research, practice, and development*. New York: Routledge.
- Mendenhall, M. E., Osland, J. S., Bird, A., Oddou, G. R., & Maznevski, M. L. (2008). *Global leadership: Research, practice, development*. London: Routledge.
- Mendenhall, M. E., Reiche, B. S., Bird, A., & Osland, J. S. (2012). Defining the “global” in global leadership. *Journal of World Business, 47*, 493–503.
- Muraven, M., & Baumeister, R. F. (2000). Self-regulation and depletion of limited resources: Does self-control resemble a muscle? *Psychological Bulletin, 126*, 247–259.
- Ng, K. Y., Van Dyne, L., & Ang, S. (2009). From experience to experiential learning: Cultural intelligence as a learning capability for global leader development. *Academy of Management Learning and Education, 8*, 511–526.
- Ordóñez, L. D., Schweitzer, M. E., Galinsky, A. D., & Bazerman, M. H. (2009). Goals gone wild: The systematic side effects of overprescribing goal setting. *The Academy of Management Perspectives, 23*, 6–16.
- Ornoy, H., & Tarba, S. Y. (2013). The relocation processes and international business travellers in the era of globalisation and their impact on employee experiences. *World Review of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development, 9*, 179–194.
- Osland, J. S., & Bird, A. (2000). Beyond sophisticated stereotyping: Cultural sensemaking in context. *The Academy of Management Executive, 14*(1), 65–77.

- Paul, K. B., Johnson, C., & Karls, K. (2014). Developing a pipeline of internal leadership talent at 3M. In C. D. McCauley & M. W. McCall Jr. (Eds.), *Using experience to develop leadership talent: how organizations leverage on-the-job development*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Robinson, D. A., & Harvey, M. (2008). Global leadership in a culturally diverse world. *Management Decision*, 46(3), 466–480.
- Rosenblatt, V., Worthley, R., & MacNab, B. (2013). From contact to development in experiential cultural intelligence education: The mediating influence of expectancy disconfirmation. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 12, 356–379.
- Ruedy, N. E., & Schweitzer, M. E. (2010). In the moment: The effect of mindfulness on ethical decision making. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 95, 73–87.
- Schon, D. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Shamsie, J., & Mannor, M. J. (2013). Looking inside the dream team: Probing into the contributions of tacit knowledge as an organizational resource. *Organizational Science*, 24(2), 513–529.
- Siegel, D. J. (2010). *Mindsight: The new science of personal transformation*. New York: Bantam.
- Smith-Jentsch, K. A., Cannon-Bowers, J. A., Tannenbaum, S. I., & Salas, E. (2008). Guided team self-correction: Impacts on team mental models, processes, and effectiveness. *Small Group Research*, 39, 303–327.
- Stahl, G. K., Pless, N. M., & Maak, T. (2012). Responsible global leadership. In M. E. Mendenhall & J. Osland (Eds.), *Global leadership: Research, practice, and development*. New York: Routledge.
- Stanley, E. A. (2010). Neuroplasticity, mind fitness, and military effectiveness. Bio-inspired innovation and national security, 257–279.
- Tarique, I., & Caligiuri, P. (2009). The role of cross-cultural absorptive capacity in the effectiveness of in-country cross-cultural training. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 13, 148–164.
- Thomas, D. C. (2006). Domain and development of cultural intelligence—The importance of mindfulness. *Group and Organizational Management*, 31, 78–99.
- Yamazaki, Y., & Kayes, D. C. (2004). An experiential approach to cross-cultural learning: A review and integration of competencies for successful expatriate adaptation. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 3(4), 362–379.
- Yammarino, F., & Atwater, L. (1997). Do managers see themselves as others see them? Implications of self-other rating agreement for human resources management. *Organizational Dynamics*, 25, 35–45.

Index

C

- Charismatic leadership, 55, 58, 212
- Coaching, 6, 8, 109, 114, 128, 136, 141–164, 201, 326, 328–331, 333, 336, 337
- Communication, 1, 13, 60, 92, 130, 141, 169, 199, 225, 254, 270, 298, 327
- Complex teams, 308
- Computer mediated communication technology, 257
- Conflict, 2, 5, 7, 8, 13–28, 41, 70, 72–74, 80, 93, 94, 96, 97, 98, 100, 109, 111, 112, 115, 133, 136, 141, 143, 146, 149–151, 155, 158, 173, 177, 183, 187, 190, 199, 203, 217, 228, 237–239, 244, 256, 263–265, 269–290, 300, 301, 306, 308, 312, 313, 315
- Cross-cultural
 - competencies, 6, 123–137, 202, 233, 237, 239, 240, 263, 299–301, 303, 318
 - leadership, 196, 197, 200, 208–216
 - management, 171, 254, 265
 - psychology, 5, 34, 36, 37, 39, 60
 - research methods, 115, 196, 197, 216
- Cultural agility, 300
- Culture, 2, 13, 33, 68, 92, 123, 141, 186, 197, 227, 253, 270, 295, 325

D

- Distribution, 1, 2, 6, 15, 18, 20–25, 27, 68, 70, 71, 75, 76, 79–83, 109, 110, 155, 157, 173, 174, 213, 228, 242, 270, 283, 313

E

- Executive coaching, 142, 143, 146–148, 153, 159, 160, 163
- Experiential learning, 8, 279, 309, 329–332, 334, 335

F

- Faultline
 - deactivation, 269–290
 - deactivators, 8, 270, 271, 273–276, 286–290
- Feedback
 - environment, 184–187, 189, 190
 - giving, 161, 177, 181, 182, 184, 187, 233, 281
 - seeking, 173–175, 180, 184–187, 189, 190
- Functional leadership, 7, 226, 227, 229, 235, 236

G

- Global leadership, 2, 33, 123, 142, 195, 326
- Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE), 5, 15, 33–61, 96, 151, 152, 161, 162, 196, 198, 200, 207, 209, 210, 212–214
- Global teams, 1, 67, 100, 137, 142, 170, 196, 227, 269, 296, 330
- Global virtual team (GVT), 5–7, 13–28, 67–83, 91–116, 142, 148, 149, 150, 157, 163, 199, 207, 208, 225–247, 253–266, 269, 330
- Guided mindfulness, 8, 325–339
- GVT. *See* Global virtual team (GVT)

I

- Immutable personality traits, 126
- Implementation, 16, 58, 92, 99, 100, 108, 115, 216, 217, 271, 277, 287, 339
- Implicit leadership theory, 38–39, 53, 59
- In-group, 7, 18, 38, 44–46, 51, 54–56, 75, 80, 112, 176, 212, 213, 239, 255–263, 271, 273

L

- Leader development, 131, 146, 154, 201, 326, 328, 329, 338
- Leadership, 1, 22, 33, 70, 96, 131, 142, 195, 225, 270, 304, 325
- Levels of analysis, 33, 35, 39, 40, 41, 45, 50, 53

M

- Management, 4, 24, 35, 70, 98, 124, 143, 174, 203, 243, 259, 270, 309, 332
- Managerial implications, 270, 285, 287–288
- Military, 1, 3, 8, 96, 108, 126, 295–318
- Mindfulness, 5, 6, 8, 161, 332–334, 338
- Multicultural, 1, 14–16, 39, 54, 68–70, 82, 92, 124–129, 133, 134, 148, 169–190, 198, 203, 228, 238, 239, 241, 297, 298, 306
- Multinational, 1, 14, 16, 33, 39, 59, 124, 164, 197, 198, 199, 201, 203–207, 212, 216, 297, 298, 307, 309
- Multinational teams, 22, 148, 198, 201, 203, 206, 207, 216, 314

O

- Organizational culture and climate, 129
- Out-group, 7, 80, 112, 176, 255–259, 261, 262, 273

P

- Performance management, 189
- Preparation, 58, 160, 163, 164, 271, 277, 279, 335–336

S

- Self-management, 124–125, 137, 144, 202, 234, 246, 247
- Self-regulation, 3–8, 180, 332, 333, 334

- Structure, 6, 14, 15, 23, 36, 43, 48, 50, 52, 68–79, 82, 83, 95, 97, 109–112, 127, 129, 151, 153, 174, 183, 184, 198, 199, 202, 205, 225, 228, 230, 233, 235, 236, 237, 247, 254, 260, 263, 265, 266, 270, 272, 275, 277, 278, 281, 282, 285, 289, 297, 298, 302, 309, 326, 328, 329, 331
- Subgroups, 7, 21, 23, 80, 81, 83, 269–279, 282–284, 288, 309

T

- Team
 - composition, 95, 150, 199, 229, 236, 237, 288, 299, 303, 304, 309
 - conflict, 112, 115, 141, 203, 228, 269–273, 276, 283, 285–288, 315
 - design, 23, 68, 70, 77, 82, 102, 104, 107, 110, 126
 - faultlines, 269–273, 279, 285–289
 - performance, 5, 8, 19, 24, 71, 72, 74, 76, 82, 92, 93, 95, 96, 99, 101, 102, 105–108, 112, 115, 149, 151, 188, 202, 203, 204, 207, 210, 226, 229–232, 234, 238, 239, 241, 243, 245, 246, 254, 262, 278, 280, 288, 299, 303, 307–309, 311, 316, 317
 - phases, 226, 284, 287
 - processes and emergent states, 2, 7, 72, 93, 115, 244
 - training, 6, 91–116, 231, 239, 240
- Teamwork, 4, 7, 15, 17, 68, 69, 72, 74, 83, 92, 95, 96, 99–104, 106–110, 113, 115, 116, 130, 132, 143, 152, 158, 199, 200, 225–247, 253, 254, 260, 262, 264, 274, 284, 288, 289, 295, 296, 299, 303, 305, 307–396
- Training, 5, 22, 58, 73, 92, 126, 147, 179, 195, 226, 263, 270, 295, 325
- Trust, 3, 18, 68, 92, 125, 145, 186, 205, 226, 253, 270, 298

V

- Values, 3, 15, 33, 69, 93, 125, 141, 170, 198, 253, 272, 295, 330
- Virtual, 2, 16, 67, 91, 134, 142, 199, 225, 259, 287, 313
- Virtuality, 2, 69, 78, 92–95, 98, 105, 108, 115, 199, 227, 239, 246
- Virtual teams, 5, 14, 68, 92, 142, 198, 227, 274