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best practices in executive coaching**

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Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

SUPPORTING LEADERSHIP SUCCESS IN A COMPLEX GLOBAL ECONOMY:
BEST PRACTICES IN EXECUTIVE COACHING

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Noushin Bayat

April 2018

Farzin Madjidi, Ed.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

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under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	vii
DEDICATION	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	ix
VITA	x
ABSTRACT	xi
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Background	1
Theoretical Foundations	8
Problem Statement	9
Purpose Statement	9
Research Questions	10
Significance of the Study	10
Limitation of this Study	13
Definition of Key Terms	14
Chapter Summary	16
Chapter 2: Literature Review	18
Complex Global Economy	18
Globalization	26
Leadership	32
Global Leadership	46
Global Leadership Competencies	60
Assessment of Global Leadership Competencies	95
Leader and Leadership Development	101
Executive Coaching	111
Chapter Summary	164
Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology	165
Introduction	165
Restatement of the research questions	165
Nature of the Study	166
Philosophical Assumptions	167
Characteristics, Strengths & Weaknesses	169
Methodology & Assumptions	172

Research Design	175
Human subject consideration.....	181
Data collection.....	183
Interview techniques	185
Interview protocol	190
Statement of Personal Bias.....	202
Data Analysis	203
Chapter Summary	207
Chapter 4: Findings.....	208
Participant Recruitment	208
Data Collection	210
Data Analysis	213
Data Display.....	213
Chapter Summary	307
Chapter 5: Conclusion & Recommendations.....	308
Summary of the Study	308
Summary of Findings	309
Key Findings.....	311
Implications	322
Researcher's Reflections.....	329
REFERENCES	332
APPENDIX A	386
APPENDIX B	387
APPENDIX C	394
APPENDIX D	396
APPENDIX E.....	397
APPENDIX F.....	400

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1. Defining Global Leadership in Scholarly Literature.....	53
Table 2. Empirical Research on Global Leadership.....	66
Table 3. Three Levels of Global Leadership Competencies	77
Table 4. Global Leadership Competencies Based on Personality Traits and Knowledge & Skills .	83
Table 5. Competency Distribution, Three Categories of Global Leadership Competency.....	87
Table 6. Competencies Allocated to Each Global Leadership Role.....	93
Table 7. Assessment Tools for Each Type of Competency.....	96
Table 8. Research and Interview Questions (Prima Facie)	197
Table 9. Research and Interview Questions (Peer Review Version).....	199
Table 10. Research and Interview Questions (Expert Review Version).....	200
Table 11. Interview Participants, Respective Organizations, Interview Date.....	209
Table 12. Coaching Certification Background of Participating Coaches	215
Table 13. Executive Education Background of Participating Coaches	216
Table 14. Assessment Instruments Used by Participating Coaches	217
Table 15. Theoretical Principles Used by Participating Coaches	218
Table 16. Position of Participating Coaches' Typical Clients.....	219
Table 17. Typical Reasons Global Leaders Seek the Coach.....	219

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1. Typology of global leadership roles	58
Figure 2. Integrative framework for global leadership competency	76
Figure 3. IQ1 - What is the secret to effectively coaching a global executive?	222
Figure 6. IQ3 - What are the challenges you face when implementing these strategies?	248
Figure 7. IQ4 - What is the toughest part about coaching a global executive?	256
Figure 8. IQ5 - What constraints do you face in coaching a global executive?	262
Figure 9. IQ6 - What's the toughest part about doing good coaching with a global executive?	267
Figure 10. IQ7 - What ethical dilemmas do you face when coaching a global executive?	271
Figure 11. IQ8 - What success criteria are you usually held accountable for?	276
Figure 12. IQ9 - How do organizations measure coaching against the success criteria?	281
Figure 13. IQ10 - How do you measure your coaching success?	284
Figure 14. IQ11 - If your clients were to thank you for their success, what would they say?	286
Figure 15. IQ12 - What are you most proud of in terms of supporting a global executive?	291
Figure 16. IQ13 - What suggestions would you give to other coaches of global executives?	296
Figure 17. IQ14 - What role do executive coaches play in facing global challenges?	301

DEDICATION

To love.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am because we are (Ubuntu).

VITA

EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Today's complex global economy is often referred to as VUCA (volatile, unpredictable, complex, ambiguous) to express the rapid pace of disruptive change and the unreliability of long held structures, processes and beliefs. These unprecedented changes are impacting global leadership practice. Leaders can no longer rely solely on decisive and authoritative decision making to help their organizations remain competitive. The rapid pace of unpredictable change and ambiguity of clear solutions is demanding more collaborative decision-making for today's toughest challenges. Executive coaches who support global leaders are increasingly in positions of trusted adviser to senior level executives. This qualitative study interviews a group of seasoned executive coaches to gain a deeper understanding of the best practices for supporting global executives, the challenges they face in implementing these practices, the ways in which they measure their success, and their recommendations to other executive coaches who wish to support global leaders. Findings, therefore, contribute to the growing scholarly field of executive coaching in a number of areas, including: (a) executive coaching scholarship, (b) executive coaching training programs, (c) graduate business school curriculum, and (d) leadership development programs.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Leading in a world of over seven billion people (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017), global leaders in public and private sectors face unprecedented change often characterized by the term VUCA – volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous (Johansen, 2012; Stiehm & Townsend, 2002). Surveys reveal a crisis of leadership, with over 80% of organizations doubting their leadership pipeline’s competency to meet current challenges (Kaiser & Curphy, 2013; Sinar, Wellins, Ray, Abel & Neal, 2015). The complex nature of today’s global conditions is challenging conventional Western leadership practices of hierarchical control and predictability (Collinson & Tourish, 2015; Grint & Jackson, 2010; Sinclair, 2008; Wilson, 2016), and executive coaching practices based on linear frameworks of cause and effect (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012). This qualitative dissertation research examined the ways in which 39 highly in-demand executive coaches from a wide array of disciplines and professional backgrounds support global leadership success during an era of unprecedented change, complexity and turbulence. This chapter presents the background, theoretical framework, problem statement, research questions, significance and definition of key terms.

Background

Today’s globalized world is described as one of “deep integration” between extensive and complex global production networks – a situation that is increasingly becoming the norm (Dicken, 2015, p. 1). Global leaders are navigating their organizations within environments where cause and effect relationships are unpredictable, unstable and ambiguous (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012), creating never before seen situations (IBM Global CEO Study, 2012). Such complex and chaotic spaces lead to experiences of confusion, anxiety and diminishing of trust (Cavanagh

& Lane, 2012; Smith, 2015), while people often “grasp at any story that holds potential to ameliorate the discomfort” (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012, p. 82).

While the definition of what constitutes a global leader has changed over time, Holt and Seki (2012) define global leaders as individuals who: (a) live away from their home countries to lead branches of an organization’s operations in other countries, b) live in their home countries while responsible for teams and operations across multiple countries, or c) are local leaders in economically burgeoning countries (such as India, China, Vietnam, Bangladesh) who hire people of closeby countries in order to develop products for a global base of customers” (p. 199).

Global and national reports continue to indicate that global leaders across all sectors are facing a crisis of confidence in dealing with the unprecedented levels of global interconnectivity and complexity. An IBM global survey of over 1,500 global leaders revealed that more than half of all senior officers doubt whether or not they are capable of managing complexity, and that nearly 80% foresee the complexity becoming greater, noting that they have “never faced a learning curve so steep” (IBM Global CEO Study, 2012, p. 18).

A 2014 survey of over 13,000 global leaders revealed that less than 20% of leaders are viewed as capable of managing their organizations effectively (Sinar et al., 2015). A study led by the Harvard Kennedy School of Public Policy (Rosenthal, 2012), found that in the U.S. the majority of people (70%) believe that there is a leadership crisis in our country and that we are at a risk of declining as a nation if our leadership does not improve (as cited in, Kaiser & Curphy, 2013, p. 295). Speculations about the cost of lackluster leadership are estimated to be around \$1.5 to \$2.7 million per senior executive who fails to provide effective leadership (Gaddis &

Foster, 2015; Kaiser & Hogan, 2011), in addition to costs resulting from severance packages and lost work opportunities (Gaddis & Foster, 2015).

VUCA. Scholars have been using key labels to explain the escalating pace, volume, and complexity of change facing global leaders, including: super-industrialism (Toffler, 1971), third wave (Toffler, 1980), permanent white water (Vaill, 1996), power shift (Toffler, 1990), new economy (Scharmer, 2000), VUCA (Steihm & Townsend, 2002), liquid modernity (Bauman, 2007), and a general crisis of industrialism (Toffler, 2007), among others. These descriptions convey a world of unpredictable and disruptive change where heightened complexity blurs decisive decision-making (Bauman, 2007; Scharmer, 2001; Toffler, 1990; Vaill, 1996).

The term VUCA frequently appears in scholarly literature, referring to conditions that are volatile, unpredictable/uncertain, complex, and ambiguous. Scholars explain that volatility refers to the high frequency and instability of change; uncertainty refers to the lack of understanding for the “meaningful ramifications” of change; complexity refers to the intricate interconnections that diminish the capacity to determine linear causality of change; and ambiguity refers to not knowing the “rules of the game” (Bennett & Lemoine, 2014, p. 313). The U.S. War College first used VUCA to refer to the changing dynamics of a post Cold War environment where a strategic focus on “Russia, Russia, Russia,” shifted to “VUCA, VUCA, VUCA,” noting the challenges inherent in strategic planning and preparation in lieu of a direct and clear enemy (Steihm & Townsend, 2002, p. 5-6). The term has since been used in many scholarly articles to refer to the nature of change facing global leaders today and its impact on leadership (Bennett & Lemoine, 2014; Gandhi, 2017; Hall & Rowland, 2016; Kauffman & Hodgetts, 2016; Petrie, 2014; Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2015; Wilson & Lawton-Smith, 2016).

Toffler (2007) noted that global leaders are in a post-colonial world where the economic bond between countries with high levels of technology and those with less technological development is rising rapidly. This is akin to Holt and Seki's (2012) contention that the enormous shifts in our world are positioning all leaders around the world as global leaders. Kellerman (2012) refers to this shift as a "predictable product of the trajectory of history... the tendency ... away from autocracy and toward democracy, which sometimes is fractious to the point of dysfunction" (p. 1). Toffler (2007) explains the shift as a "general crisis of industrialism" where old hierarchical structures and institutions are giving way to an emerging new world fueled by increasing consumer demand for instant gratification, global access to technology and social media, ecological awareness, and options in family planning (Toffler, 2007, p. 37).

Against this backdrop of complex trajectory toward democracy, scholars envision the decade ahead as a threshold, where old systems reach tipping points and lead to new opportunities and ways to engage within a globally connected world (Johansen, 2012). As such, thriving in the decades ahead requires global leaders across all industries to widen their scope and perspective to not only meet their own success mandates, but also create common cause for success among the larger inter-dependent systems (Arthur, 1996; Johansen, 2012).

Impact of complexity on global leaders. Defying linear rationality and rife with paradox, a VUCA world can often feel threatening to leaders from both an emotional and cognitive perspective (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012; Lewis, 2000; Smith, 2015; Vince & Broussine, 1996). Lane, Maznevski, Mendenhall, & McNett (2004) identify four dimensions to complexity – multiplicity, interdependence, ambiguity and flux – which together create business challenges that executives cannot foresee or predict (as cited in Mendenhall et al, 2013). In this general milieu,

leaders appear to be increasingly confronted with multiple competing goals and strategies such as collaboration vs. control, individuality vs. group loyalty, flexibility vs. efficiency, profit vs. social contribution (Fiol, 2002; Jarzabkowski & Sillince, 2007; O'Reilly & Tushman, 2011; Smith, 2015; Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith & Tushman, 2005). Smith and Lewis (2011) define such competing goals and strategies as paradoxes: “contradictory yet interrelated elements that exist simultaneously and persist over time” (p. 382).

Faced with such paradoxical situations, leaders are prone to experience difficult emotions because of a deep-seated need for consistency between attitude/behavior and cognition/action (Smith, 2015; Smith & Lewis, 2011). In lieu of such consistency, certain defense mechanisms such as denial, repression, humor or decision-making paralysis tend to arise as a mechanism to deal with the emotional discomforts inherent in contradictory situations (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012; Smith & Berg, 1987; Smith & Lewis, 2011; Vince & Broussine, 1996). Such intense situations often trigger experiences that some scholars refer to as transformational (Osland, 1995) or crucible (Thomas, 2008), demanding global leaders to experience new worldviews, mental models and perspectives.

Many scholars suggest that the acquisition of emotional and behavioral skills enables leaders to cope with the increasing demands of their work lives (Fugate, Kinicki, & Prussia, 2008; Gilley, McMillan, & Gilley, 2009; Goleman, 2000; Grant, 2014; Jamali, Sidani, & Zouein, 2009). Other scholars note that challenges of a VUCA world are adaptive in nature, instead of technical (Heifetz, 1994, 2002; Heifetz & Linsky, 2004; Helsing, Howell, Kegan, & Lahey, 2009; Kegan & Lahey, 2016; Petrie, 2014). While technical challenges demand a leader's vision and expertise to find the solution, adaptive challenges do not have a known solution yet and require

the participation of everyone involved in order to identify the best path forward (Heifetz, 1994, 2002; Heifetz & Linsky, 2004; Helsing et al., 2008; Kegan & Lahey, 2016). Adaptive challenges often require leaders to examine their own underlying beliefs, assumptions and values in order to chart a breakthrough solution (Heifetz & Linsky, 2004; Helsing et al., 2008).

Impact of complexity on leadership development. The VUCA world is challenging conventional models of leadership development that focus on developing specific individual traits as a means to successful leadership (Collinson & Tourish, 2015; Grint, 2005, Grint & Jackson, 2010; Sinclair, 2008; Wilson, 2016), and challenging the core principles of traditional top-down management practices and leadership development programs that focus on decisive control and predictable outcomes (Heifetz, 2009). What is emerging is thus viewing leadership as a collaborative process anchored and sustained within the organization's social capital, instead of solely within its human capital (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016; Collinson & Tourish, 2015; Grint, 2010; Holman, 2010; Sinclair, 2008). Scholars (McGuire & Rhodes, 2009; Petrie, 2014) thus use the terms horizontal and vertical to point to the differing approaches for developing technical skills to deal with technical challenges (horizontal development), and adaptive skills to deal with adaptive challenges (vertical development).

However, despite billions of dollars spent annually in supporting leaders through various forms of training programs, most do not succeed in producing effective results (Ardichvili et al., 2016; Kaiser & Curphy, 2013). Systems scholars (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016; Cavanagh & Lane, 2012; Holman, 2010; Scharmer, 2010) contend that in today's VUCA world, the missing link in leadership development is enabling leaders to collaborate with all stakeholders and include them from start to end in a process of identifying clear intentions and

charting innovative implementations across the system as a whole (Scharmer, 2010). The nature of problems facing global leaders in a VUCA world requires a more collective exploratory approach, instead of one based on a leader's decisive authority and expertise (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016; Cavanagh & Lane, 2012; Collinson & Tourish, 2015; Grint 2010; Holman, 2010).

Impact of complexity on executive coaching. As scholars (Cavanaugh & Lane, 2012) explain, the complex nature of problems facing global leaders challenges evidence based models of executive coaching that assume a predictable context with linear causation. Furthermore, complex problems challenge the inherent assumption that executive coaches have a privileged position which allows them the power of prediction and control as part of the profession. Most leadership and coaching programs operate on the assumption of a linear and stable playing field, focusing on predictable cause and effect scenarios, with an emphasis on supporting individual members of teams, instead of focusing on the interplay of all individuals within a system (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012; Susing & Cavanagh, 2013). However, these models are not practical within today's VUCA world of complexity, which demands methods that support leaders to navigate the complex and paradoxical landscape of today's business world. Gaining more clarity on the specific practices used by executive coaches would allow for better selection and matching of executive coaches to the specific needs of global leaders, in addition to contributing to strengthening global leadership development programs, graduate business school curriculum and executive coaching training programs. However, scholars point to a lack of consistency in coaching practice -- in terms of assessments and philosophical approaches (Bono, Purvanova, Towler, & Peterson, 2009) -- and a general disagreement about how to impact behavior change (Nieminen, Biermeier-Hanson & Denison 2013, p. 179).

Theoretical Foundations

This dissertation research was grounded within the perspective of complexity systems theory, where the rules of predictability, control and linear causation change. Therefore, mechanisms of engaging within the system also have to change to become more adaptive, flexible and capable of collaborating with emergence. To understand the nature of 21st century complexity, it is critical to discern between simple, complex and chaotic systems.

System refers to “a set of things - people, cells, molecules, or whatever - interconnected in such a way that they produce their own pattern of behavior over time” (Meadows, 2008, p. 2). A system is typically brought together to achieve something, yet it is always more than the sum of its parts (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012; Meadows, 2008). When the various parts interact, something new emerges as a result of the *interaction* of the parts and *not* from the parts themselves (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012). This *emergence* is a product of the system’s connectivity and interrelations between its parts (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012; Holman, 2010; Meadows, 2008).

While a simple system’s function and relationships between its parts are linear, repetitive, predictable and understandable; a complex system’s response to change is unpredictable in nature because its parts adapt in iterative ways; and a chaotic system deals with change that is so unstable and unpredictable it almost seems chaotic (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012). Scholars refer to the space between the rational linear system and the chaotic unstable system as the “edge of chaos” (p. 77). This is the space where human systems reside in ways that are self-organizing and adaptive to change. Stacey (1999, 2001, 2007) defines this space as a complex response mechanism akin to an ongoing conversation, and always changing in response to the changing context (as cited in Cavanagh & Lane, 2012). What emerge from

human systems are certain behaviors, roles, processes and outcomes in ways that are self-organizing in order to deal with external conditions (Morrison, 2000).

Problem Statement

Given the popularity of executive coaching, however, there is not much clarity about the specific practices and strategies that executive coaches utilize in times of complexity (Bono et al., 2009; Gebhardt, 2016). While the majority of executives participating in executive coaching rate their experience as valuable (Bono et al., 2009; McGovern, Lindemann, Vergara, Murphy, Barker, & Warrenfeltz, 2001), specific practices overlap in their theoretical foundations in psychology, mentoring and consulting fields (Bono et al., 2009; Dean & Meyer, 2002). Scholars suggest that this lack of clarity as to the specific executive coaching practices creates complications in terms of selecting an effective coach (Bono et al., 2009).

There is therefore a need for scholarly research to identify the “active ingredients” of executive coaching in terms of motivating clients and supporting them in strengthening specific capabilities (Bono et al., 2009, p. 393). Moreover, there is paucity of research in understanding the mechanisms of executive coaching in times of complexity where coaches cannot rely upon tried and tested protocols to pave the way (Cavanaugh & Lane, 2012). This study, through its series of interviews with executive coaches of global leaders, aimed to shed light on understanding the specific strategies and best practices they utilize, potentially contributing to the field of executive coaching scholarship.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to determine: (a) the strategies and best practices employed by executive coaches working with senior level executives in global organizations,

and (b) the challenges faced by executive coaches in implementing those strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations.

Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What are the strategies and best practices employed by executive coaches supporting senior level executives in global organizations?

RQ2: What challenges are faced by executive coaches in implementing those strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?

RQ3: How do executive coaches measure the success of their strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?

RQ4: What recommendations do executive coaches make for coaching senior level executives in global organizations?

Significance of the Study

The findings contribute to the growing scholarly field of executive coaching in a number of areas, including: (a) executive coaching training programs, (b) graduate business school curriculum, and (c) leadership development programs.

Potential benefits to executive coaching training programs. Although there is currently no specific regulatory body that mandates specific training for executive coaching, there is a need to identify the KSAs (knowledge, skills and abilities) that would enable executive coaches to best serve the myriad challenges facing global leaders (Bono et al., 2009). At its core, executive coaches must have strong listening skills and the ability to choose effective interventions to support their client (Gebhardt, 2016). Beyond that, the International Coaching

Federation (ICF, 2014) lists eleven core competencies that are at the heart of effective coaching. In developing specific curriculum that addresses the needs of global executives, executive coach training program developers must gain awareness of the specific components of a curriculum that best educates executive coaches in supporting global leaders in VUCA conditions. The findings from this study identify the core issues faced by global leaders, the reasons why they seek the services of an executive coach, and the specific strategies and best practices that these coaches utilize in best serving global leaders. These findings may therefore benefit the development of coach training programs that are focused on developing coach KSAs in supporting global executives.

Potential benefits to graduate business school curriculum. Worldwide, over the past few decades, business schools have offered courses on leadership and leadership development using a diverse array of theoretical approaches and teaching methodologies, including lectures, speaker series, case studies, coaching, developmental feedback, group projects and simulations (Collinson & Tourish, 2015; Murphy & Johnson, 2011). However, most of these programs utilize older models and assumptions of leadership that praise powerful individuals for single-handedly creating success (Collinson & Tourish, 2015; Jackson & Parry, 2011). Many business school programs informed by leadership models such as trait, transformational, situational, servant, spiritual and authentic leadership, make the implicit promise to students that they can become inspirational leaders in the world, able to make positive and powerful impact (Collinson & Tourish, 2015; Murphy & Johnson, 2011; Tourish, Craig, & Amernic, 2010).

Given the VUCA reality facing global leaders, such leader-centric assumptions do not address the social capital development that is necessary in order for global organizations and

leaders to stay competitive in today's world (Collinson & Tourish, 2015; Sinclair, 2008; Uhl-Bien, Marion, McKelvey, 2007; Wilson, 2013). Moreover, the emphasis on leader-centric leadership theories puts undue expectations on graduates who often feel disappointed in their application of leadership theories in the real world (Alajoutsijarvi, Juusola, & Siltaoja, 2014; Collinson & Tourish, 2015; Khurana, 2007; Pfeffer, 2013). The findings from this study may provide a deeper understanding into the real challenges facing global leaders and the best strategies and practices that executive coaches utilize to support them through those challenges. Invariably, findings may support business schools in developing leadership curriculum that more accurately reflects these daily challenges and highlights the coaching strategies that best support leaders.

Potential benefits to training and development programs. Scholars note that the primary aim of learning and development programs is to increase human capital capacity at the individual level in order to impact overall organizational performance (Ford, Kraiger, & Merritt, 2010; Jones, Woods, & Guillaume, 2016; Swart & Harcup, 2013). Executive coaching is a typical part of development programs and provides the mechanism of customization to specific employee needs (Jones et al., 2016; Salas & Kozlowski, 2010). There are, however, lingering issues in terms of how best to choose the right coach (Bono et al., 2009; Peterson, 2006), and the particular practices and strategies that are utilized by executive coaches to provide a development intervention (Jones et al., 2016). Scholars thus recommend understanding the specific needs of the executive and then to ask potential coaches how they would address those needs (Bono et al., 2009; Valerio & Lee, 2006). Findings from this study may provide a deeper understanding of the needs of global executives, and the key strategies and practices that executive coaches utilize to address those needs.

Limitation of this Study

Qualitative research, by nature, has limitations in terms of generalizability to the larger population. Thus the findings in this study are limited by the views and experiences of the 39 executive coaches selected to participate. In addition, the selection process limits representation of all types of executive coaches. Although thoughtful consideration was given to the creation of a selection algorithm that yielded maximum saturation, the selected sample does not represent the views and opinions of the entire executive coaching population.

Furthermore, although all participants shared the common characteristics of being a top tier executive coach with five or more years of full time executive coaching experience supporting senior leaders of global organizations, there was no consistency in their education or work experience. Some had no business training, while others had masters degrees in business or years of experience as c-suite executives. Moreover, the types of practices and methodologies they used were varied, drawing upon a mix of cognitive behavioral, existential, psycho-dynamic, transpersonal, ontological and neuro-linguistic programming.

In addition, the current sample of coaches participating in this study are overwhelmingly Caucasian and reside within the U.S. Future studies can expand into the African American, Asian, Middle Eastern, and African continents to explore coaching best practices from other non-Western dominant styles of practice. Given that the majority of empirical studies of leadership and executive coaching are through the western paradigm of leadership, there is a need to expand the exploratory research lens into other traditions. For example, the Ubuntu leadership style from Africa is gaining more prominence in literature (Nkomo, 2011; Ncube, 2010), together with more embodied and feminine approaches to leadership development

(Georgopoulos, 2016; Gerzema & D'Antonio, 2017; Lindemann, 2011).

Definition of Key Terms

The following is a brief definition of key terms used within this study:

Autocatalysis: This term refers to a process within complex dynamic systems where random interactions of various units lead to intelligent and creative behaviors that solve key problems (Clarke, 2013; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007).

Coaching: Coaching refers to formal ongoing conversations over a particular span of time that aim to strengthen specific skills, developmental perspectives and facilitate growth in the attainment of defined performance goals in a variety of fields (Barrett, 2014; De Haan & Nieb, 2015; Linder-Pelz & Hall, 2008; Page & de Haan, 2014; Outhwaite & Bettridge, 2009).

Dynamic Complexity: This type of complexity is recognized by three characteristics (Scharmer, 2010, p. 21): unclear pathways toward solutions, unclear pathways to delineate the problem, and unclear pathways to identify all the stakeholders involved.

Edge of Chaos: This term refers to the space that is in between the rational linear system and the chaotic unstable system (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012).

Emerging Economies: This term refers to a country that has shown two characteristics over the course of the past 15 years: (a) per capita GDP average lower than the world GDP average, and (b) per capita GDP average growth rate higher than the world GDP average growth rate, which currently include 38 countries (Saccone, 2017), including Albania, Bangladesh, Chile, Dominican Republic, Ethiopia, Ghana, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, Latvia, Morocco, Nigeria, Peru, Romania, Serbia & Montenegro, Tanzania, Uganda, Vietnam, and Zambia.

Equanimity: Equanimity refers to a tranquil even-mindedness that is not easily swayed in the face of diverse experiences, people or circumstances, thus allowing response without emotional agitation (Bhikkhu, 1996; Desbordes & Negi, 2013; Bodhi, 2000).

Global Mindset: Global mindset refers to the key leadership competencies required of global leaders and includes intellectual intelligence (business and management acumen) and global emotional intelligence (self management and cultural awareness), enabling leaders to not only have global intellectual capital, but also psychological and social capital, thus allowing them to suspend judgment, have empathy for all parties involved, and be able to hold multiple perspectives at once (Brake, 1997; Mendenhall, 2013).

Human Capital: Originally coined as early as 1691 by economist Sir William Petty to determine the economic cost of supporting human life (Kiker, 1966; Weisbord, 1976), the term human capital refers to the individual talents and competencies that organizations focus on developing in order to strengthen engagement, productivity and performance (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016).

Learning Organization: A learning organization refers to organizations that aim to strengthen employee capacity to respond to challenges through activities, policies and procedures that promote shared learning across all dimensions of the organization (Amy, 2008; Appelbaum & Gallagher, 2000; Garratt, 1999; Senge, 2006; Senge, Hamilton, & Kania, 2015).

Mental Models: Mental models refer to the array of internal assumptions and belief systems that people hold about the realities that exist around them, thus directly impacting their emotions and choice of behaviors (Argyris, 2008; Argyris & Schoen, 1996; Senge 2006).

Presencing: Presencing refers to the mechanisms by which individuals gain a deeper awareness of the present moment and thus access a wider range of innovative options with which to

address future challenges (Scharmer, 2001, 2009, 2010; Scharmer & Kaeufer, 2010; Scharmer & Kaeufer, 2013; Senge et al., 2015; Senge & Jaworski, 2005). The capacity for presencing, according to Senge and Jaworski (2005), requires individuals to cultivate their ability to suspend judgment and habitual streams of thought.

Social Capital: Social capital refers to the various ways in which individuals are connected with each other within an organization or a system, primarily through group cohesion and brokerage (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016). Group cohesion refers to how people are connected to each other within the same group through knowledge sharing and relational trust (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016; Fleming, Mingo & Chen, 2007). Brokerage refers to the bridges between different clusters of groups led by individuals who act as brokers, offering access and influence to information and how it is shared (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016; Burt, 2005).

VUCA: The acronym VUCA is used to refer to the global social, political and economic landscape characterized by volatility, unpredictability, complexity and ambiguity, or VUCA for short (Hesselbein & Shinseki, 2004; Johansen, 2012; Petrie, 2014; Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2015; Stiehm, & Townsend, 2002).

Chapter Summary

The volatile, unpredictable, complex, and ambiguous nature of today's global landscape is driving a paradigm shift in executive coaching and leadership development programs.

Conventional models of leadership development focus on developing specific traits within individual leaders, thus strengthening the human capital capabilities within an organization.

While inherently important, a focus on human capital alone will not support leaders in dealing effectively with the complex nature of change that is facing their organizations. What is

emerging is a view of leadership as situated within the complex network of human relations within an organization. Leadership development and executive coaching programs must therefore go beyond supporting leaders in addressing human capital challenges. In order to remain competitive, leaders must learn how to tap into the social capital of their organization - the diverse and complex networks of leadership - to influence and drive innovation and creativity. Findings from this study will contribute toward best practices of executive coaches who are supporting global leaders in these VUCA times.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter presents a scholarly exploration of key areas impacting leadership success in a complex global economy, including an overview of the historical evolution and definition of complex global economy, globalization, leadership, global leadership, leadership development and executive coaching.

Complex Global Economy

Complexity is at the heart of global leadership (Clark, 2015). A main driver of such complexity is the nature of today's global economy that is impacting the context within which public and private sector global leaders lead their organizations and influence their stakeholders. Today, developing and emerging economies are key players within the global economy, contributing to 85% of global population (6 billion), almost 60% of global GDP, and 80% of global GDP growth since the financial crisis of 2008 (Lagarde, 2016). Yet their economic growth prospects are slowing down in recent years, bringing to light the increasing dependence of the developed economies on trade and collaboration with developing and emerging economies. As trade between emerging and developed countries continues to surpass trade between developed countries, Lagarde (2016) explains that even a 1% slowdown of growth rate in emerging economies would decrease the growth rate of developed countries by an estimated 0.2% -- a grim outlook when global economic growth rates are at sluggish rates. Below is an overview of key economic factors that impact global leadership.

Economic theory. The economy refers to the overall system that provides people with the things they need to live, such as food and clothing, obtained through economic activity –

the making and using of those things (McGaughey, 2012). While economic activity within a hunter/gatherer society is as simple as a division of labor, more complex economic systems have more interconnected webs for producing, exchanging, distributing and consuming products. Scholars point to two contending economic theories that drive the complex nature of the global economy today, namely: free market and Keynesian economics (Pearce & Robinson, 2000). While free market (neo-liberal) theorists promote the deregulation of commerce, Keynesian theorists advocate for ensuring equity within the market through macroeconomics and government institutions such as the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank (Sullivan & Sheffrin, 2003).

While the free market theory of economics has been the driving force of global economic growth for the past five decades, scholars note the demise of Lehman Brothers in 2007/2008 brought the effectiveness of free market theory under question and initiated increasing government-imposed controls (Dicken, 2015). The complexity of the economic theories driving the changing landscape of today's global economy is beyond the scope of this literature review. However, this brief description supports an understanding of key points that are impacting global leaders. The following sections provide more details.

Defining a complex global economy. Scholars contend that although the complex interconnection of trade between nations has been in place for a long time – perhaps centuries (Dicken, 2015), there is now a distinct shift from an inter-national economy to a global economy (Dicken, 2015; Hirst & Thompson, 1996). While an inter-national economy refers to national economies that are connected through increasing levels of investment and trade with a distinct separation between their international and domestic policy, a global economy represents a

systematic interdependence of global production and consumer markets (Dicken, 2015; Strange, 1998). This systematic interdependence represents approximately 80% of international trade today, according to the United Nations World Investment 2013 Report (as cited in Yeung & Coe, 2014, p. 30).

Dicken (2015) defines a global economy as the worldwide “geography of production, distribution and consumption” that generates products for people’s daily lives (p. 1). Increasingly, over the past 50 years, this geography of production, distribution and consumption is becoming more complex, extensive and intricate (Baten, 2016; Black & Morrison, 2014; Clark, 2015; Dicken, 2015; Friedman, 2016). For example, it used to be that leading technology companies, such as IBM and HP, would design, develop and manufacture their products internally, thus capturing a significant share of innovation locally (Linden, Kraemer & Dedrick, 2009). Increasingly, however, well-established and start-up companies are outsourcing their product development and production activities to global production networks (networks of contract and design manufacturers), thus spreading “wealth far beyond the lead firm ... whose brand appears on the product ... [to include] partners in the firm’s supply chain and firms that offer complementary products or services” (p. 141).

In their report for the World Trade Organization, Elms and Low (2013) explain that while global trade and networks of production are centuries old, what makes today’s global economy complex is the sheer scale and speed of interactions around the world with large numbers of stakeholders involved in GVCs. Thus, the final price is a reflection of the value added by each stakeholder along the value chain (Linden et al., 2009). New players within the global economy include those countries that are increasingly transitioning to free market

economies, are focused on increasing their middle class and standards of living, and are increasing their cooperation with global trade organizations (Kvint, 2009). The World Bank 2017 Economic Prospect Report notes that three key points about the world's emerging economies: (a) they comprise 75% of global population; (b) they comprise 75% of those who live in poverty; and (c) they contribute to more than 30% of global GDP through their participation in global production networks and value chains (World Bank, 2017).

Value chains are thus defined as the initial-state to end-use processes by which raw materials turn into finished products (Gereffi & Fernandez-Stark, 2011; Liou, Lin, Chang & Hsu, 2016). While in the past, the full production process would take place in one physical location, in today's complex global economy most organizations divide the various components of their GVC (design and development, sales and marketing, etc.) and locate them in different geographic locations (Liou et al., 2016). Given this complex interplay of many countries in the development of products, global trade statistics are giving way to import statistics that determine intermediate goods imported within a country in order to produce its exports. For example, in East Asian countries, over half of all imports and exports include goods that are identified as intermediate products (Elms & Low, 2013).

Whether producer-driven (control of production by large manufacturers) or buyer-driven (control of production, pricing, product specifications, standards and delivery schedules by large buyers such as Nike, Gap, Walmart), global value chains have expanded into a wide array of sectors (such as agriculture and manufacturing) and service industries such as tourism, business processes, and finance (Barrientos et al., 2011; Stritz, Gereffi & Cattaneo, 2011). The fragmented nature and global scale of production across many industries prompted the World

Economic Forum to declare: GVCs have become the world economy's backbone and central nervous system" (Draper, Dadush, Hufbauer, Bacchus & Lawrence, 2012, p. 4).

Characteristics of the Complex Global Economy. Individuals who are leading global organizations or teams are keenly aware of two main characteristics of the global economy: its inherent volatility and its increasing interconnectedness of trade and investments (Dicken, 2015). Volatility refers to the rapidly changing nature of worldwide economic growth, with negative growth rates in certain years followed by expanded yet short-lived growth in ensuing years. For example, the 2008 global financial system crash was followed by declines in growth in 2009, yet a 14% growth in 2010, followed by a 5% growth the year after, with only 2% growth in 2013 (Dicken, 2015). Such worldwide volatility impacts the ability of leaders to make short-term forecasts or plans.

The second characteristic of the complex global economy is its increasing interconnectedness of trade and capital across nations. For example, not only is trade between countries outpacing national export rates, but foreign direct investments or FDIs (when one firm invests directly in a firm in another country with the purpose of controlling its operations) are surpassing the rate of trade between countries. For example, according to the World Bank, trade between countries was 24.5% of global GDP in 1960, but increased to 61% of global GDP in 2011 (Kaplinsky, 2004). While FDIs accounted for only 10% of the global GDP in 1990, they accounted for 30% of global GDP in 2011, with nearly a third of all global trade within the same firm (Subramanian & Kessler, 2013). FDIs are now identified as the primary source of interconnection in the global economy, yet the increasing levels of trade and FDIs have created structural imbalances in deficit and surplus around the world (Dicken, 2015).

While trade and FDIs have increased the economic growth rate of developing countries, the geographies of global trade are uneven. For example, 90% of global agriculture production is within 15 countries, over 80% of FDIs are generated from 15 countries (out of the total of 196 countries in the world, including Taiwan), USA and UK account for 30% of global FDIs, and 30% of all FDIs is received by China and Hong Kong (World Bank, 2013). Global leaders of teams and organizations across public and private sectors are thus highly aware of the economic profiles of their regions of the world and how it impacts their stakeholders. For example, scholars (Dicken, 2015; Subramanian & Kessler, 2013) point out some of the uneven geographies below:

- U.S.A.: As a dominant leader in the global economy for over a century, the U.S. is the largest FDI and exporter of commercial services and agriculture, yet its exports have fallen from 17% to 8% since 1963, and its imports have risen from 9% to 12%.
- Western Europe: As a whole, Europe is the world largest destination for FDIs, yet there are uneven growth rates across the various countries. While Germany has the strongest economy in Europe and is the fourth largest global manufacturer, it is the second largest exporter of manufacturing products and the third largest commercial services exporter and FDI source. The U.K. is the second largest economy in Europe and the tenth ranked manufacturer in the world, and holds as the second largest source of global FDI and exporter of commercial services.
- Eastern Europe: As the former Soviet bloc countries of Eastern Europe are continuing their transition to an emerging market economy, they have been experiencing slow and at times turbulent economic growth bolstered by increasing FDIs, and increasing

participation as low cost production networks for Western Europe's clothing and automobile industries.

- Asia: Over the past 50 years, Asian countries have demonstrated the fastest economic growth, including the rise of China as the largest global manufacturing and agricultural producer and the world's cheapest source of labor, Japan as the third largest manufacturing economy, the seven East Asian countries (Singapore, South Korea, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Malaysia, Taiwan, Thailand) with 13% of total manufactured global exports in 2011, and India as the 11th global manufacturing economy, with IT outsourcing services (call centers, software, data processing, etc.) as 56% of its GDP.
- Latin America: The diverse array of resource-rich countries in Latin America have not had steady economic growth over the past decades as compared to countries in Asia, Eastern Europe or Africa. Mexico, however, is showing steady economic growth, yet in heavy competition with China in exports.
- Africa: Countries in Africa are showing promising growth, with Sub-Saharan Africa at 5.6% growth rate in 2013, with the resource rich countries of Nigeria, Ghana, and Mozambique identified as among the fast growing countries in 2011. For those countries that are heavily dependent on commodities exports, however, slight changes in the economic growth of importer countries could prove damaging.

While the increasing interconnection of the world economy shows signs of promise for improving the economic conditions of the poorest regions of the world, a closer look at the types of workers involved in the global economy provides a deeper perspective into the complexities that global leaders must face in addressing employee health and wellness.

Public Impact of GVCs. While global production networks are infusing emerging economies with income, the overall positive impact on local employees and environment is still in question. The rising network of global production is bringing an increasing number of workers from African, Asian and Latin American countries into the global economy, either as factory and farm contractors or smaller homebased subcontractors in an array of industries such as apparel, agriculture or footwear (Barrientos et al., 2011; Gereffi, 1999, 2006). While GVCs are providing new source of income for poorer households in these emerging economies around the world (Barrientos, Dolan & Tallontire, 2003; Barrientos, Gereffi & Rossi, 2011; Raworth, 2004), most employment positions offer unprotected and unsecure positions for vulnerable populations (Barrientos et al., 2011). Therefore, as companies benefit from the global nature of production due to low cost wages, employees are often at a disadvantage (Barrientos et al., 2011; Rossi, 2011).

Addressing the quality of employment conditions and products takes into account a multiplicity of factors, including national labor market conditions, types of jobs, requirements (price, quality, delivery schedule) and codes of conduct by foreign buyers, national labor legislation and policies, and private systems in charge of auditing and monitoring (Barrientos et al., 2011). Competing pressures to improve quality while maintaining lower costs pose key dilemmas for global leaders in public and private sectors and require a deeper understanding of those involved in global value chain employment. Scholars identify five types of work typologies within global value chains, each with its unique characteristics, roles, and needs.

These include small-scale workers, low/medium/high skilled labor, and knowledge workers across an array of GPNs, mainly agriculture, apparel, automotive, information

technology, and business services (Barrientos et al., 2011). The complex mixture of various types of workers across the various industries paints a picture of the diversity of individuals involved in value chains across the globe. This diversity of participants poses challenges for global leaders in terms ensuring safe and equitable employment conditions that address their unique needs. For example, those employed in small-scale household based work settings make up the majority of labor-intensive production networks such as agriculture and apparel industries. They often work in their own households and rely on informal child labor as part of engaging in production activities. While the complexity of the global economy is evident in the uneven and highly interconnected geographies of production, trade and employment around the world, the next section discusses the processes that enabled this level of globalization.

Globalization

To understand the nature of dilemmas and challenges that global leaders contend with today, an explanation of the globalization of the world economy is in order. Today, a Google keyword search on globalization generates over 40 million entries, while a search in Amazon books results in over 40,000 entries. Some scholars define globalization by participation in the global economy as defined by three characteristics: multiplicity of stakeholders, interdependence of complex economic, technology and human systems, and informational ambiguity, relationships and cross-cultural norms (Caligiuri, 2006; Lane, Maznevski, Mendenhall, & McNett, 2004; Mendenhall et al., 2013). Other scholars, such as Dicken (2015) and Strange (1998), contend that globalization is not a specific term with a unique definition, but rather a complex concept derived from both the structural changes within the global economy and the ideological lens of the person defining it.

According to Dicken (2015), many global leaders of public and private sectors are impacted by the extreme views of “hyperglobalizers” on both the political spectrum’s far left and right (p. 1). For example, while those on the far right of the political spectrum (pro globalizers) view globalization as the ideology of free market capitalism which will solve global inequalities and create a flat and borderless world (Bhagwati, 2004; Friedman, 2005; Wolf, 2004), those on the far left of the political spectrum (anti globalizers) view globalization and free markets as the cause of global inequalities and advocate for market regulations and a focus on developing local markets (Greider, 1997). Aside from these extreme polarized views, there is also the view that globalization was much more robust prior to World War I, with large volumes of global migration, trade and investments between countries – a level not attained yet in today’s globalized economy (Hirst & Thompson, 1996).

Nature of relationships. What scholars do agree on is the extent, speed, and breadth of interconnections that set the nature of today’s global economy apart from that of the past century (Dicken, 2015; Friedman, 2016; Johansen, 2012). As described in the previous section, the global economy is increasingly reliant upon circuits and networks of production that are defined by unequal power relations and connections among all participants. The process of globalization is thus a deep and complex relational connection between three overarching domains that interact at local, national, regional and global levels: (a) the macro-structures of capitalist market systems (the array of multi-lateral agreements, trans governmental policy networks, and summits such as the G7, International Monetary Fund, North American Free Trade Agreement, World Bank, World Trade Organization); (b) the circuits and interactions within global production networks, transnational social networks, and their inherent power

relations; and (c) the uneven geographical distribution of goods -- as discussed in the previous section (Dicken, 2004; Mitchell 2000).

Global leaders of public and private sectors are involved within these interconnected relational dimensions of globalization that are, in effect, organizational fields where the various stakeholders create the structures of governance and organizational rules (Levy, 2008). Scholars identify the following five key stakeholders groups who are involved in contested and paradoxical relationships of collaboration and competition (Cumbers & Routledge, 2010, Dicken, 2015; Smith, 2014; Stopford & Strange, 1991): (a) transnational corporations (TNCs), (b) nation states, (c) labor, (d) civil society organizations, and e) consumers.

Therefore, global leaders of public and private organizations are invariably impacted by the complex relationships among the five key groups. While there are different types of business firms that participate in the global economy (state-owned public sector firms, small-medium-large national firms, TNCs), the coordination and control of global production networks is conducted by TNCs with heavy influence over local economies (Dicken, 2015). With over 100,000 TNCs in global operation, many TNCs surpass the economies of nations in annual revenues (Guillen & Garcia-Canal, 2012). For example, in 2014, 63 out of the top 100 nations and corporations with the highest revenues were a TNC, while only 37 were governments (Baum, Sanders, Fisher, Anaf, Freudenberg, Friel, Labonté, London, Monteiro, Scott-Samuel, & Sen, 2016). As scholars explain, a few factors are responsible for such a strong growth profile, including policies that liberate trade and provide subsidies for producers, and an increasing consumer demand in developing regions of the world (Baum et al., 2016).

Although production in the global economy is increasingly mobile, global production networks are grounded within specific physical locations, local cultures and social relationships. Therefore, each nation that hosts such production networks provides the regulatory and political structures at the national level and at multi-national levels (for example, institutions such as the the European Union and the North American Free Trade Association). The power relations between the TNCs and nation states is driven by dynamic and complex interactions between firms, between the firms and the nation state, and between different nation states. While TNCs are global and mobile in nature, the labor that fuels global production networks is usually grounded in local geographies and cultures. Given the global nature of TNCs, local labor unions typically face challenges in addressing TNC conduct that may harm labor, and often try to collaborate with other labor unions across national borders.

Global production networks are heavily driven by the varied and fragmented needs, wants and motivations of increasingly sophisticated consumers with access to information. TNCs are thus highly attuned to fluctuations in consumer demands. Consumer and labor groups tend to organize in order to balance their power differentials with global production networks and TNCs. These organizations include both local and global civil society organizations such as major NGOs (ex: Greenpeace and Oxfam), labor unions (ex: AFL-CIO), and corporate watch groups (ex: Global Exchange) that are continuing to influence corporate behavior. The extent of connection between the various stakeholder groups is highly driven by the ability to communicate at very high speeds with a more democratized access to information.

Impact of technology on globalization. A key driver of the economy's globalization is technological innovation, which has revolutionized the speed of computing, communication

and transportation systems worldwide, leading to what scholars explain as “accelerated geographical mobility” (Dicken, 2015, p. 74). Eric Astro Teller, CEO of Google’s X Research and Development Lab, cautions that the rate of technological innovation is exceeding the rate of human capacity to learn and respond to change (as cited in Friedman, 2016). Thus, scholars contend that global leaders of public and private organizations must not only strengthen their learning agility, but also develop the organizational capacities for agile and continuous learning (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015).

A recent report by Cisco (2016) announced the arrival of the Zettabyte Era where global transmission of data has exceeded one Zettabyte (1 million gigabytes). Whereas it took about 40 years to reach one Zettabyte of transmission, it is predicted that this rate will be doubled to two Zettabytes within the next four years (Cisco, 2016). Friedman (2016) calls this the Age of Acceleration where the phenomenal upgrades of microprocessor speed and storage capacities have ushered an era of unprecedented technological innovations and radically disruptive new platforms across all industries. In alignment with Gordon Moore’s (co-founder of Intel) prediction in 1965 that every 18 months there will be a doubling of the number of transistors that fit on a microchip (Dicken, 2015; Friedman, 2016), the number of transistors on a microchip has increased from 30 in 1964, to 3500 in 1971, to 42 million in the late 1990s, to 1.4 billion today (Dicken, 2015).

Accelerations in communication technology have been supported by both satellite and fiber optics, with 90% of all international telecommunications transmitted through fiber optics (Dicken, 2015). According to the Groupe Speciale Mobile’s (GSM, 2015) recent annual worldwide mobile usage report, mobile connections in 2015 exceeded 7.5 billion connections

and over 4.5 billion subscribers, yielding revenues greater than a trillion dollars, with a 63% global penetration, 43% in Sub-Saharan Africa, and 85% in Europe. GSM predicts that by the end of this decade, over 70% of people worldwide will be a part of a mobile subscription plan.

Over the years, technological innovation has followed what scholars explain as K-Waves or Kondratiev Long Waves (Freeman & Louca, 2001) which views economic growth as distinct waves of about 50 years each. For example, while K1 is associated with the 1700s and the economic growth that rose from water power industrialization, the K2 wave signifies the mid to late 1800s and the economic growth that resulted from the steam engine innovation, K3 signifies electricity in the early part of the 19th century, K4 signifies mass production in the mid 20th century, and K5 signifies the current era of global economic growth enabled by the convergence of both communications and computer technology (Dicken, 2015). There are four distinct phases within each wave, including: prosperity, recession, depression, recovery (Freeman & Louca, 2001). Therefore, each wave is associated with not only significant technological change, but also accompanying changes in the ways in which goods are produced and how organizations are organizing to ensure efficiency and effectiveness around the new innovations (Dicken, 2015).

With each wave of innovation, production systems have had to change to match the new technology. Scholars explain the movement from factory and machine-led production systems toward more and more flexible systems of production that require increasing teamwork, learning and multitasking (Hollingsworth & Boyer, 1997). Organizational systems such as modular production networks and virtual firm or cellular network organizations are offering more flat and non-hierarchical organizing in order to utilize the greater geographical

mobility that is inherent as part of the digital era (Berger, 2005). Global leaders are therefore compelled to learn new ways of leading their organizations within such a fast changing climate of technological innovation. The next section presents an overview of scholarly literature defining the construct of leadership and its impact on expectations imposed on global leaders.

Leadership

Scholars note that leadership appears to be a popular sought-after solution, independent of the problems we seek to solve (Sinclair, 2008; Wilson, 2016). In the context of global leadership, Black and Morrison's (2014) interviews with 40 global HR executives revealed that only 17% feel confident about their firm's global leader recruitment and development. This section provides an overview of the definition and historical evolution of the terms leader, leadership and leadership development.

Definition. A title word search on leadership results in thousands of electronic entries whether in the academic Business Source Premier database (over 12,000 scholarly articles), in Google (over 750 million entries), or Amazon Books (over 164,000 book titles). Yet a clear definition of leadership is challenging to identify. In the groundbreaking book, *Leadership*, James MacGregor Burns (1978), noted a "crisis of leadership" (p. 1) and a lack of intellectual, scientific or practical foundation to define the term. Over a decade later, Rost (1991) reviewed nearly 600 works of leadership over the 90 years of leadership research since 1900 and reported over 200 definitions of leadership. Rost (1991) concludes that within the industrial paradigm of leadership literature of the 20th century, a summary definition of leadership that has been consistently agreed upon by scholars and practitioners alike is akin to "leadership is good management" (p. 180). He thus urges leadership scholars and practitioners to clarify their

understanding of leadership, cautioning that continuation of “this kind of sloppy practice doesn’t help us understand the nature and practice of leadership” (p. 135).

Still today, nearly two decades later, scholars and practitioners contend that a clear definition of the concept of leadership is elusive and complex, with multiple dimensions, constructs and implications (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016; Bryman, Collinson, Grint, Jackson, & Uhl-Bien, 2011; Grint, 2005, 2010; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Meuser, Gardner, Dinh, Hu, Liden & Lord, 2016; Northouse, 2013; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; Uhl-Bien, Marion & McKelvey, 2007). In light of decades of research, scholars still do not have an agreed upon definition of leadership, though there is a vague agreement that leadership is a process of influence (Yukl, 1989; Wilson, 2013). Rost (1995) offers a definition of leadership that consists of three key elements - influence, intended change and shared purpose - for the 21st century post-industrial age: “Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and collaborators who intend real changes that reflect the purposes mutually held by both leaders and collaborators” (p. 133). He notes that given the changing paradigm of times, this definition might best usher a new era where followership is replaced with collaborators who intentionally gather to impact positive change. Sinclair (2008) acknowledges that the element of influence is a strong part of defining leadership, and adds: “Leadership is a relationship, in which leaders inspire or mobilize others to extend their capacity to imagine, think and act in positive new ways” (p. 270).

Critical scholars view leadership as socially constructed within a complex system of power, which carefully constructs definitions to address the necessities of societal needs throughout history (Collinson, 2012; Fletcher, 2004; Grint, 2005, 2010; Van Knippenberg &

Sitkin, 2013; Wilson, 2013). Viewed in this way, leadership is a continual process of invention throughout history with specific triggers and outcomes that can be studied to shed light on key cultural constructs and paradigms of the time - past and present (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Wilson, 2013). Moreover, the complex system of relations and interactions within which leadership takes place prompts the case for leadership as an emergent phenomenon. In other words, leadership emerges from interactions throughout an organization instead of from one person or group of supervisors (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007). As Sinclair (2008) explains, “Our task is not to perpetuate an unthinking set of assumptions about what makes a leader, but to probe deeper into where our hungers for leadership come from and what effects they have” (pp. 183-184). Thus, the next section provides a brief historical overview of the field of leadership as a way to understand its contextual, fluid and socially constructed nature.

Historical overview. Over the centuries, leadership has been studied, researched and defined through a multitude of philosophical, historical, practical, political, military, psychological and social scientific lenses depending on the underlying assumptions, beliefs and needs of the time (Bryman et al., 2011; Grint, 2011; Sinclair, 2008; Wilson, 2013, 2016). Leadership writings from a philosophical perspective typically focus on the *how to* of leadership with a non-empirical analytical framework, while historical perspectives typically focus on the lives of monarchs and other political/military leaders of the time without a theoretical underpinning (Wilson, 2013). Furthermore, practitioner-based analysis of leadership utilize anecdotal methods, while social scientists focus on formal theories and models of leadership with a heavy emphasis on positivist empirical findings and solutions (Wilson, 2013).

Scholars contend that our knowledge of history is mainly through written accounts of those who have won (Grint, 2011). For example, there are many more written accounts about the leadership of Alexander the Great who commissioned the writings himself, yet nearly nothing about the leadership that slave leaders practiced as they staged revolts during that time. Similarly, much is written by societies that were literate; while those with a strong oral tradition are mainly omitted or written about pejoratively by their literate oppressors (Grint, 2005, 2011). Thus, scholars (Grint, 2011; Sinclair, 2008; Wilson, 2016) highlight the necessity of being aware of the source of the writing for any classical or contemporary accounts of leadership, noting that such accounts are not purely factual, but rather partial and with a unique agenda depending on the specific needs of society. For example, there are few accounts of peaceful periods or ways in which various tasks were completed; however, there are many accounts of wars and transgressions - events that were deemed outside the norm of life (Grint, 2011). This reveals that there was a real need in creating models of leadership that would support the governance of life (Grint, 2011; Wren, 2007).

Classical. The challenges of governance were of particular interest across a multiplicity of societies, and thus many early accounts of leadership are about the construct of the ideal leader (Wren, 2007). The earliest documents focus a great deal on war and political leadership and appear as early as 3000 to 2334 BC, including writings by Sargon of Akkad (from the region known today as the Middle East) who was the first emperor of the Akkadian empire, Ramesses the Great who was the third Pharaoh of the Egyptian empire, and other military leaders in the Cretan, Harappan, and Huang Ho civilizations and settlements in the regions of Indus Valley and China (Grint, 2011). While the famous ancient Indian treatise, The Arthashastra (Mauryan

Dynasty, 321 BC), provides economic and military strategic advice for leaders, scholars contend that the most widely read classical writing on leadership is Sun Tzu's *Art of War*, from around 400-320 BC in the region of modern day China (Grint, 2011). The text focuses on the importance of the one man who leads others, and on the important characteristics of this person which must include: the ability to not engage in military warfare as much as possible, focusing on a critical success strategy of how to avoid conflict that is unnecessary (Grint, 2011).

In ancient Greece, however, references to leadership arise in the context of dealing with corrupt political leaders through the art of persuasive rhetoric. In fact, Aristotle (384-322 BC), in *Rhetorica*, outlines the principles of giving strong speeches that influence and lead the masses within a democratic type of government (Grint, 2011; Wilson, 2013). In ancient Greece, therefore, oratory skills were held in the same high esteem as military power in their impact to lead the masses. While Plato (Aristotle's teacher) viewed rhetoric as the "dangerous ... mischievous tool of the demagogue" (Grint, 2011, p. 6), Aristotle viewed rhetoric as a cornerstone of democracy and a skill that must be mastered by those who are or want to be leaders of people. Plato and Aristotle held differing views on the nature of people and their ability to participate in a democratic society. This differing assumption colored their views on leadership and the nature of leading. While Plato believed in the presence of a wise philosopher ruler to ensure the longevity of a good society, Aristotle believed in a democratic state and the necessity for politicians to reach the masses through proper and strategic rhetoric. In the nearby region of modern day Iran, in the 11th century, scholars such as Unsuru'l-Ma'ali (who wrote *Qabus-Nameh*) and Nezam Mulk Tussi (who wrote *Siyassat Nameh*) provided governance advice to kings (Gill, 2014)

Renaissance. Scholars (Wilson, 2013, 2016; Grint, 2011) note that as Europe moved out of the Medieval age and onto the Renaissance, the state of monarchy was threatened by the continual vulnerability to disease, population growth, and increasing literacy rates. There was thus a need to educate the young prince-leaders on the best ways to manage their burgeoning and increasingly intellectual populations without the typical reactionary pursuits of war (Wilson, 2013). A significant example of this type of leadership writing is by Niccolo` di Bernardo dei Machiavelli, born in Florence, Italy in 1469, who wrote *The Prince* in 1513-1514. He was a celebrated and effective administrator during the turbulent early days of the Italian Renaissance, often administering the commissioned works of Da Vinci, Galileo, and Raphael (Harris, 2010). His public career as an administrator and diplomat ended abruptly and painfully when he was in his early 40s, yet his writings began to flourish at that time. In *The Prince*, he mainly outlines key leadership skills for political leaders, emphasizing the ability to utilize any means necessary in order to act in the best interest of the country (Grint, 2011). Scholars (Harris, 2010; Keim & Hillman, 2008) note four key areas that relate to modern day business leadership practices: (a) the necessity of leaders to be realistic and refrain from making false promises; (b) the necessity to influence key decision-makers such as politicians, administrators, business owners and the public with accurate and timely information; (c) the necessity to implement policies and procedures that allow screening of environmental changes; and (d) the necessity to influence political process to achieve necessary ends.

Modern. A useful way of organizing modern definitions of leadership is through the following categories: (a) leader-centric, (b) follower-centric, (c) relational, (d) critical, and (e) complexity leadership. This section provides a brief overview of each category.

Leader-centric views of leadership. The leader-centric view includes the majority of leadership scholarship (such as Taylor, trait, behavioral, contingency, charismatic, and transformational approaches), which view leaders as powerful people who are able to achieve specific outcomes (Hollander, 1993; Mendl et al., 1985; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). A number of scholars (Grint, 2011; Sinclair, 2008; Wilson, 2013) attribute the rise of leader-centric views to the Industrial Age and Thomas Carlyle's tenure in the mid-1840's at the University of Edinburgh where he popularized the myth of the Great Men (Carlyle, 1840) and the Victorian-era notions of leadership as heroic, masculine, and individualistic (as cited in Grint, 2011). Thomas Carlyle's aim was to ensure obedience during an era where industrialization was promoting social mobility and a distancing from the teachings of the church (Daunton, 2011; Feldman & Lawrence, 2011; More, 2000; Wilson, 2013). Thus, during the late 1800s to the first decades of the 20th century, leadership equated to the abilities to control, centralize power and dominate (Grint, 2011; Northouse, 2013). A class of supervisory and managerial workers came into play armed with the tenets of management science to ensure productivity and compliance, utilizing the theories of Frederick Winslow Taylor which focused on assembly lines to severely cut costs and ensure competitive advantage (Grint, 2011; Sinclair, 2008).

Taylor (1947) believed that followers have sluggish mental capacities and need control and direction in order to be productive and effective (as cited in Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Viewing leadership from this perspective, leaders owned the knowledge which gave them power over the workers on the production line. Thus a typical definition of leadership cited in a 1927

leadership conference included “the ability to impress the will of the leader on those led and induce obedience, respect, loyalty and cooperation” (as cited in Northouse, 2013, p. 2).

Yet, as Sinclair (2008) posits, this myth took an unpopular turn with the rise of Hitler and Mussolini who referred to themselves as the great leaders and revealed the potential downside of following one man. There was thus an emergence of management science during the post World War II years, and the need to rebuild and prosper (Sinclair, 2008). This imperative required systematic processes and control of workers and production (Northouse, 2013), leading to the growth of organizational bureaucracies that rewarded compliance and adherence to performance management systems (Sinclair, 2008). Backed by empirical psychology and large scale surveys such as those conducted Ohio State University and University of Michigan (Fleishman, 1953; Stogdill, 1950), leadership as a concept in the mid to late 20th century upheld the belief that leaders can be developed, monitored and trained to become high performers (Locke, 1989, 1996; Sinclair, 2008; Wilson, 2013). These large-scale studies focused on two leader behaviors: task-oriented behaviors that focused on direction and goal, and relational-oriented behaviors that focused on caring and concern for followers (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004; Northouse, 2013; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

The behaviorist approach to leadership claims that leaders, by using the right proportion of task and concern behaviors, can learn the right combination in order to control, motivate and manipulate followers toward specific goals (Northouse, 2013; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). The contingency approach to leadership, such as the Decision Making or Normative Theory (Vroom & Jago, 1978), hold a view that followers are one of many factors or situations that leaders manipulate toward specific goals (Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). Thus, followers are

only needed in specific situations only in particular contexts in order to support the actions or directions chosen by leaders (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

The rise of Trait Theory (Gouldner, 1950) of leadership during the mid to late 20th century is what Northouse (2013) refers to as our century long obsession of determining the traits of successful leaders. Bolstered by Social Darwinism which claimed the many societal problems arising when individual traits are not properly matched to their roles (Bannister, 1979; Wilson, 2013), the trait perspective generally contends that leaders are either born with these traits or are able to acquire these traits, thus making them more effective leaders than others who do not possess these traits (Northouse, 2013; Wilson, 2013, 2016).

The 20th century thus boasts a number of leadership theories based on specific traits, namely: charismatic leadership, introduced by House (1977); transformational leadership, introduced by Bass (1985); visionary leadership, introduced by Bennis and Nanus (1985); authentic leadership, introduced by Luthans & Avolio (2003); and servant leadership, introduced by Greenleaf (1977). Wilson (2013, 2016) refers to these types of leadership theory as new leadership, citing their prominence in setting a performance standard for managers and followers in 20th century leadership development, training and thinking. Charismatic and transformational leadership have been studied extensively over the past quarter century (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013) with a number of meta-analytic studies confirming their effectiveness (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). Studies that focus on the charismatic quality of a leader (Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993), or the transformational quality of a leader (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978), or both charismatic-transformational (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Hunt, 1999) all emphasize an exceptional quality

or trait that is in the possession of the leader and this quality will positively impact followers and the organization in general. For example, charismatic leaders inspire followers through their display of confidence and clear expression of their vision, while being sensitive to follower needs (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Transformational leaders challenge, inspire and motivate followers to believe in a vision and commit to achieving goals toward that vision, while being sensitive to follower needs (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

Charismatic and transformational leadership theories, although praised for uplifting and energizing the field of leadership studies from its former focus on day to day management (Grint, 2005), face scholarly criticism for their construct validity and methodological lens despite nearly three decades of research (Grint, 2005; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Wilson, 2013, 2016). As scholars explain, these theories mainly focus on a model of leadership that relies upon a hero who works alone and independently (Clarke, 2013) and are becoming increasingly limited as organizations deal with the complexity of 21st century challenges (Clarke, 2013, 2012; Higgs, 2003; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). Complexity, in this context, refers to the unpredictable and ambiguous nature of today's globalized business environment driven by disruptive social and technological change, resulting in unstable environments which are increasingly interconnected and interdependent (Clarke, 2013; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007).

Follower-centric views of leadership. In response to leader-centric views listed in the previous section, follower-centric views define leadership as a socially constructed phenomenon and highlight the important role of followers in constructing the role of leader and leadership (Uhl-bien et al., 2014). For example, Meindl (1990) posits that followers create leaders by giving them a disproportional amount of credit for positive outcomes, making the

leader the primary focus of attention for the group. Scholars point to the psychological concept of social contagion that causes followers to attribute higher levels of charisma to leaders during times of stress or excitement (Meindl 1990, 2004; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Similarly, Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT) claims that followers hold specific assumptions and beliefs about what defines good leadership (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Lord, 1985; Rush, Thomas, & Lord, 1977; Schyns & Meindl, 2005). In this way, the extent to which followers rate leadership behavior is influenced a great deal by their own socialized views on what determines good leadership. Another example is Social Identity Theory that claims that follower's decision to cooperate with and support a leader greatly impacts the leader's influential abilities (Chemers, 2001; Van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Based on group behavior theory, Social Identity Theory claims that individuals develop their self-identity as a result of their group membership (Hogg & Reid, 2006). The degree to which an individual requires acceptance from the group impacts their conformity to group behavior and perspectives. Therefore, social identity theory describes leadership as a construction of group formation process and affiliation (Hogg & Reid, 2006; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016).

Relational views of leadership. Viewed from a relational perspective, scholars define leadership as a mutual process of influence that takes place between leaders and followers (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014) with a clear distinction between the leadership process and the individual leader (Hollander, 1971, 2012; Hollander & Offermann, 1990). Relational leadership scholars criticize the type of research that mainly focuses on leadership traits and behaviors, pointing out that this type of scholarship inherently leaves out the essential and important factors that cause certain followers to be influenced by certain leaders (Lord & Brown, 2001; Oc

& Bashshur 2013). There is thus reciprocity of influence between leaders and followers where leader behavior can be viewed as a by-product of this relationship (Lord et al., 1999; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). The connectionist perspective (Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001) views leadership as a process where various factors such as the task, personalities and context collectively impact follower expectations and evaluation of leadership. This, in turn, impacts the ways in which leaders behave and lead (Lord, 2013). Similarly, Weierter (1997) views the extent of a leader's charismatic leadership abilities dependent upon the follower's self-esteem, self-efficacy and self-awareness. Mary Parker (1924, 1995), an early and prolific leadership scholar, challenged the popular view that followers are subordinates to managers. Instead, she offered the concept of *power with* which explains authority as a collaborative interaction of forces, instead of domination and control.

Furthering the relational view of leadership, Leader-Member Exchange theory (LMX) explains leadership as a negotiated transaction between leaders and followers in order to achieve certain results (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). In this way, followers can actively participate as partners within a relationship of high quality (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). While valuing the importance of followers in determining the parameters of leadership, relational theories of leadership still hold the leader in a more privileged position as driving the process of relationship building (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

Critical views of leadership. Wilson (2013, 2016) labels contemporary studies of leadership that emphasize a leader's charismatic and visionary qualities as mainstream because there seems to be a general widespread blind acceptance of their methodology as being sound and valid (Wilson 2013). Clarke (2013) refers to the solo-heroic leadership models as

conventional and increasingly limited in the face of today's complexities. Such mainstream/conventional studies, though they number in the thousands, have produced little evidence of impact according to a number of scholars (Alvesson, 1996; Clarke, 2013; Jackson & Parry, 2011; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Wilson, 2013, 2016; Yukl 1999). Van Knippenberg & Sitkin (2013) questions the validity of the current definitions of charismatic-transformational leadership, noting that they focus more heavily upon the effects on followers (i.e., respect, motivation, innovation) than about a solid conceptual definition, and thus "de facto defined as what the MLQ measures" (p. 5).

In pointing out the social construction of leadership, van Knippenberg & Sitkin (2013) explain that our own implicit notions of what constitutes good leadership, such as inspiring, charismatic and high-performing, impacts what we deem as a definition of leadership. Therefore, definitions of charismatic or transformational are not a reflection of actual attributes, but rather a reflection of outcomes we hold dear when we think about those terms. Thus, while upholding the benefits of mainstream leadership research, scholars (Grint, 2010; Sinclair, 2008; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Wilson 2013, 2016) support the welcoming of a new era of leadership research that brings sound methodological structure to the construct, its definition, its mediating factors, and clear outcomes. The field of critical leadership studies is concerned with the unexplored power dynamics and definitions of leadership that are accepted as truth just because they fit a normalized notion of how things operate. Instead, critical leadership studies point to the inherent complexities involved in determining and examining leadership (Collinson, 2011). Normalized notions, if unexamined, have a way of limiting thinking

and behaving especially when dealing with “unequal power relations as leadership typically does” (Wilson, 2016, p. 6).

Wilson (2016) posits that the concept of leadership has in fact been a social invention throughout history and therefore “relies on a particular set of assumptions, incites a particular set of effects, serves a particular set of interests, and is implicitly designed to address a particular set of problems” (p. 2). She thus contends that leadership is “something that we can (re-)form in a manner which reflects our priorities and our values, should we conclude that existing forms don’t serve our interests well” (p. 2). Viewed in this way, the concept of leadership is more of a socio-political tool with the power to demand what the world should be and could be (Grint, 2010; Collinson, 2011; Wilson, 2013, 2016). Critical leadership theorists thus aim to examine leadership theory and ensure that it deals with the often ambiguous, complex, and contradictory nature of our relational selves in the contested contexts of our work environments (Wilson, 2016).

Complexity views of leadership. The emergence of complexity leadership theory is an attempt at viewing leadership in terms of the shifting needs from industrial-era top-down production paradigms to those that best suit a knowledge-based economy (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). In fact, these scholars contend that most of our assumptions are still over 50 years old and stuck in Industrial era systems of management and governance (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). While leadership is still viewed as a necessary and important tool in meeting the challenges of a complex new era, there is a dearth of information about what this new form of knowledge-era leadership should look like (Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). Drawing upon complexity theory and

complex adaptive systems (CAS), leadership scholars propose that leadership goes beyond positional authority, to include the complex interplay within the work collective (Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007).

In the field of complexity science, CAS is a naturally occurring unit of analysis that includes interacting networks and agents that are interdependent and focused on common goals, beliefs and needs. Multiple CAS are linked together in dynamic networks that interplay and impact each other. Scholars point to the capability of CAS to adapt to complex situations and creatively solve problems (Goodwin, 1994; Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). Within a complexity leadership theory framework, leadership is defined in one of three ways: (a) administrative leadership: focused on hierarchy, bureaucracy, and control; (b) enabling leadership: focused on structures that enable CAS to adapt, learn, and solve complex problems creatively; and (c) adaptive leadership: focused on creating dynamics that are generative and drive emergent change (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007).

Within complexity leadership theory, there is a distinction between leaders and leadership. While leaders are individuals that impact and influence the context and outcomes, leadership is an emergent and dynamic process (Clarke, 2013; Rost, 1991; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). When it comes to developing leaders, there is discernment between leader development and leadership development. First, an examination of global leadership is necessary in order to understand the distinguishing characteristics of its definition, context and competencies.

Global Leadership

Global leadership appears to be increasingly under attack, while simultaneously hailed as a necessity (Black & Morrison, 2014; Clark, 2015; Kellerman, 2012). Reiche, Bird, Mendenhall

& Olsand (2017) explain that organizations are continuing to expand their global reach and with that increasing numbers of people engage in virtual and distributed work around the world. While there appears to be agreement that more global leaders are needed, lack of definition on the key attributes and competencies of global leadership (Osland, 2013) contributes to the increasing pressures that organizations face to recruit, develop and retain global leadership talent (Reiche et al., 2017).

Scholars contend that understanding global leadership requires the understanding of its evolutionary roots in fields such as cross cultural psychology, anthropology and economics (Osland, 2013). This section draws on the scholarly work of several researchers of global leadership to present an overview of the historical evolution of the field (Bird & Mendenhall, 2016; Dicken, 2015), an explanation of the definition of the terms global and global leadership (Gill, 2014; Mendenhall, Reiche, Bird, & Osland, 2012; Reiche, Bird, Mendenhall & Osland, 2017), and key competencies (Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou, 2010; Cumberland, Herd, Alagaraja & Kerrick, 2016; Kim & McLean, 2015; Osland, 2008; Reiche et al., 2017).

History. The historical development of the global leadership construct appears to be as complex as its global economic context (Bird & Mendenhall, 2016; Clark, 2015; Dicken, 2015). The evolution of the global leadership construct parallels the evolution of the organizational structures that Western firms explored and established while expanding their businesses overseas during the 20th century (Dicken, 2015), with research drawing upon multiple research areas such as: expatriate, intercultural communication, comparative leadership and global management (Bird & Mendenhall, 2016; Osland, 2013).

Over the years, as globalization became more complex, so did the organizational structure of transnational corporations, including: (a) the global organization model emerging in the early 1900s, (b) the multinational organization model emerging in the 1930s, (c) the international organization firm emerging in the 1950s, and (d) the more recent integrated network organization emerging in the 21st century (Dicken, 2015). Each of these organizational structures demanded specific requirements of managers and leaders. For example, the global organization model and the international organization models were both tightly centralized and relied upon a uni-directional flow of knowledge and procedures from the headquarters to the subsidiaries (Mendenhall & Bird, 2016).

With such centralized organizational structures, management scholars in the 1970s and 1980s were curious about cross-cultural management and whether theories in one culture kept true in others. Adler (1983) identified three types of cross-cultural management research: (a) uni-cultural studies which explore the cultural and management styles of one culture, (b) comparative studies which explore the difference between the management styles of two or more cultures, and (c) intercultural studies which examine how people of different cultures interact. Uni-cultural management research studies, mainly from an anthropological or sociological framework, focus on specific cultures and their leadership or management processes, behaviors and systems such as in Japan (Abegglen, 1958), Latin America (McMillan, 1965), Russia (Puffer & McCarthy, 2003), or Africa (Mbigi & Maree, 1995). Comparative studies, mainly from a psychological or sociological framework, compare the management and leadership styles across countries or regions.

One of the famous comparative studies is the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) research project, with a focus on how different cultural values in 62 different countries impact individual behaviors in organizations (House, Javidan & Dorfman, 2001). For example, one finding is how managerial expectation from leaders and supervisors varies in different cultures. While, for example, American managers have performance-related expectations from their leaders, managers in Arab countries have paternalistic expectations of their leaders (Javidan & Bowen, 2013). Such differences, according to GLOBE scholars, would require American executives to change their behaviors if they want to build trusting relationships with colleagues in different cultures.

Other studies were focused on ensuring that U.S. based management efforts were utilized around the world (Newman, 1970; Tassef, 2007), and how to support expatriates to culturally adjust to local cultures, yet with little to no focus on supporting local employees to adjust to the culture of the global organization (Bird & Mendenhall, 2016). These early studies were grounded in: a) a sense that the U.S. approaches to management and leadership are high priority, and b) the technological mandate of industrialization that requires a global convergence of universal management behaviors and practices. As global organizations became more decentralized in the 1990s, expatriate managers were required to learn about how to influence local employees, thus leading to the emergence of engaged expatriate managers. However, as globalization increased the pace and nature of interconnectivity and complexity, engaged expatriates were required to learn skills that went beyond that of an expatriate manager (Lane et al., 2004). The next sections present an overview of the challenges involved in clearly defining global leadership and global leadership competencies.

Definition. Scholars note that the published literature since 1990 includes over 600 peer-reviewed articles on the topic of global leadership (Bird & Mendenhall, 2016), with 181 articles published between 2010 to 2014 (Mendenhall, Li & Osland, 2016). While early scholars (such as Yeung and Ready, 1995), used definitions and models of domestic leadership, later scholars emphasized the increased complexity and competition that global leadership entailed (as cited in Osland 2013). However, a clear definition of the global leadership construct continues to be challenging to identify (Bird & Mendenhall, 2016; Clark, 2015; Mendenhall et al., 2012; Osland et al., 2013; Pless, Maak, & Stahl, 2011; Reiche et al., 2017). Leading scholars highlight the absence of rigorous and uniformly accepted construct definition (Mendenhall et al., 2012), noting that the current construct is mainly a product of “digressive exploratory tangents [and] detours into theoretical dead-ends and intractable disagreements over conceptual terms and organizing frameworks” (Bird & Mendenhall, 2016, p. 115). Specifically, Reiche et al. (2017) note that the global leadership literature lacks the foundational clarity that would support scholars to clearly describe their research sample, be able to compare/contrast their findings, and identify predictors and competencies of global leadership.

The definitions of global leadership thus span a wide spectrum, with the terms global leader and global leadership often used interchangeably. At one end, scholars contend that global leadership is about “anyone who operates in a context of multicultural, paradoxical complexity to achieve results in our world” (Holt & Seki, 2012, p. 199) -- in other words, “anyone who leads global change efforts in the public, private and nonprofit sector is a global leader” regardless of their role or position (Osland 2013, p. 40). At the other end, Gill (2012) contends that a definition of global leadership must answer three basic questions: “leadership

of what, for whom, and with what purpose?” (p. 8). Gill (2012) defines global leadership as a construct of neoliberalism, more specifically a:

neoliberal nexus of ideas, institutions and interests that dominates global political and civil society ... [and] involves a form of leadership and expertise intended to sustain and enlarge capitalist market society and its associated principles of governance; in particular, it claims to provide effective mechanisms of stabilization and the ability to master crisis (p. 1).

In the midst of this spectrum of definitions, Mendenhall et al. (2012) offer to “jumpstart the discussion” by defining global leadership as an individual who “inspires a group of people to willingly pursue a positive vision in an effectively organized fashion while fostering individual and collective growth in a context characterized by significant levels of complexity, flow, and presence” (p. 500). Most recently, Reiche et al. (2017) built upon the Mendenhall et al. (2012) definition to offer a more contextualized definition of global leadership as: “the processes and actions through which an individual influences a range of internal and external constituents from multiple national cultures and jurisdictions in a context characterized by significant levels of task and relationship complexity” (p. 556).

Overall, scholars express concern about the lack of “rigor, precision and similarity in scope in most global definitions” (Mendenhall et al, 2012, p. 494), and contend that this unclarity is “the biggest obstacle in global leadership research” (Clark, 2015, Kindle Locations 237-238). Specifically, the lack of rigor, precision and scope relate to a number of key areas as outlined by Mendenhall et al. (2012), including: (a) ambiguity in defining the focal construct; (b) insufficient distinction of the focal construct; (c) missing dimensions of the focal construct; and

(d) vague conceptualization of the term global. Scholars thus offer various ways of contextualizing the definition as presented in the following sections.

Global leadership contextualized as a state, a process or both. In their extensive review of definitions of the global leadership construct, Mendenhall et al. (2012) provide a representative sample of definitions which include aspects such as vision, behaviors, job responsibilities, global component, and performance measures. Overall, Mendenhall et al. (2012) explain that the definitions not only reveal a general agreement among scholars that there is a significant difference between domestic and global leadership; but also reveal a distinct differentiation between global leadership as a state, a process or both.

Definitions of global leadership as a state focus on the specific activities and roles of a global leader. This identification allows for the development of competencies and skills to match the specific role. Definitions of global leadership as a process focus on how a global leader fulfills their role. These include activities such as meaning making, quality of relationship with stakeholders and the ways in which the leader influences others. The table below provides an overview of the representative scholarly studies that Mendenhall et al. (2012) reviewed in their analysis of designating the global leadership definition as a state, process or both.

Definitions of global leadership that include both a state and a process provide an integrative approach that acknowledges the inherent need to identify a process for the state of global leadership.

Table 1

Defining Global Leadership in Scholarly Literature

Type of research	Author of research	Definition of global leadership
State	Spreitzer, McCall, and Mahoney (1997, p. 7)	An executive whose job has an international dimension (ex: an expatriate position or a job with international responsibilities).
	Gregersen, Morrison, and Black (1998, p. 23)	A leader who guides organizations across a diverse scope of nations, cultures and customer base.
	McCall and Hollenbeck (2002, p. 32)	An individual who does global work.
	Suutari (2002, p. 229)	Managers who have global duties in global organizations
	Harris, Moran, and Moran (2004, p. 25)	Leaders who are able to operate effectively in global environment, while being cross culturally mindful.
	Osland (2008, p. 34)	Any individual who leads change globally whether in the public, private, or non profit sectors
Process	Adler (1997, p. 174)	An individual who can inspire and impact thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors of people globally.
	Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn, and Ainina (1999, p. 58)	Individuals with the competence to envision and implement strategies with a positive global outcome and competitive advantage.
	Osland and Bird (2005, p. 123)	Individuals who influence thoughts, attitudes, behaviors of a communities around the world to synergistically work to achieve common goals.

(continued)

Type of research	Author of research	Definition of global leadership
	Beechler and Javidan (2007, p. 140)	Individuals who engage in the process of influencing groups and organizations with diverse cultural and political systems in order to contribute to global goals.
Both	Brake (1997, p. 38)	An individual who embraces global competition, generates the processes to meet those challenges, and transforms organizational resources into world class performance.
	Caligiuri (2006, p. 219)	Executives in jobs with an international dimension who effectively manage within the complex, volatile and ambiguous global environment.
	Caligiuri and Tarique (2009, p. 336)	High level professionals (executives, vice presidents, directors, managers) in jobs with global integration responsibilities, who develop and sustain competitive advantage.
	Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, and Maznevski (2008, p. 17)	Individuals who create positive change by building trusting communities and organizational structures and processes that take into account geographic and cultural complexity.

Note. The data in this table are from “Defining the Global in Global Leadership,” by M. Mendenhall, B. Reiche, A. Bird, and J., *Journal of World Business*, p. 493-503. Copyright 2012 by Mendenhall. Adapted with permission.

Reiche et al. (2017) explain that the majority of research studies which examine the global context of leadership focus mainly on the cross cultural dimensions of global leadership and testing leadership theories across cultures -- citing a number of studies such as: House et al. (2014); Javidan and Carl (2004); and Koch, Koch, Menon & Shenkar (2016). Such research, while valuable in providing a rich cultural perspective, has not expanded the field of global leadership in terms of providing a clear definition of the global leadership construct (Reich et al., 2017).

Such research studies tend to refer to global leadership as “any form of leadership that reaches beyond the domestic context [and leave] tremendous variability in the roles and responsibilities that global leadership encompasses” (p. 556). The following sections provide an overview of scholarly efforts to contextualize global leadership.

Global leadership contextualized as complexity, flow and presence. Mendenhall et al. (2012) define three core dimensions of the global leadership construct: (a) complexity (contextual), (b) flow (relational), and (c) presence (spatial/temporal). Using these three dimensions, Mendenhall et al. (2012) offer a more nuanced definition of global leadership – one which takes into account: (a) the executive’s environment and the depth of multiplicity, interdependence, ambiguity and flux they need to operate within (complexity/contextual); (b) the executive’s necessity to span boundaries (flow/relational); and (c) the executive’s imperative to locate to a different geographical location (presence/spatial). Taking into account these three aspects of a global leader’s work would allow a more consistent application and comparison of global leaders across studies. Mendenhall et al. (2012) provide three examples of how these core dimensions of the construct have the potential for bringing more clarity, rigor and specificity to the global leadership scholarship. For example, a regional manager might face a high level of complexity and presence, while experiencing a medium flow of information exchange. However, someone who leads the global IT function of an organization might face lesser levels of complexity because of their functional focus, and have lower levels of presence and high levels of flow. Finally, someone who is a leader of a global virtual team may face high levels of complexity, lower levels of presence and high levels of flow. These examples,

according to Mendenhall et al. (2012), reflect the opportunity to gain a more clear understanding of what entails global leadership and ways to measure each dimension.

Taking into account the three dimensions of global leadership and the definition of leadership as one of influence and vision, Mendenhall et al. (2012) offer a definition of global leadership as distinct from global leader: “Global leadership is the “process of influencing others to adopt a shared vision through structures and methods that facilitate positive change while fostering individual and collective growth in a context characterized by significant levels of complexity, flow and presence” (p. 500). Global leader is an “individual who inspires a group of people to willingly pursue a positive vision in an effectively organized fashion while fostering individual and collective growth in a context characterized by significant levels of complexity, flow and presence” (p. 500).

The above definitions take into account four defining principles: (a) leadership as a role and a process of social influence; (b) individual leaders and the process of leadership are separate constructs; (c) leaders and leadership processes are inherently vision-driven; and (d) effective leaders and leadership processes aim not only to improve business results, but also to develop followers to reach their potential (Mendenhall et al., 2012).

Global leadership contextualized by task and relational complexity. In their recent research to contextualize global leadership, Reiche et al. (2017) draw on complexity leadership theory to explain the impact of task and relational complexity on defining global leadership – factor that go beyond cross cultural and geographic boundary considerations. While task complexity refers to the variety of tasks, relational complexity refers to the relational interdependencies and boundaries. Building upon complexity leadership theory that defines

leadership as a social process (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2017; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009), Reiche et al. (2017) define global leadership based on the processes they activate in order to influence all stakeholders (internal and external) across cultures and geographic boundaries

In their review of global leadership literature, Reiche et al. (2017) point to the increased complexity that global leaders face in completing their role as evident in the scholarly work of McCall and Hollenbeck (2002), Osland et al. (2012), and Osland and Bird (2006). Furthermore, Reiche et al. (2017) note that global leadership roles span many geographic, cultural and institutional boundaries which provide the opportunity to: (a) generate multiple identities (Shipilov, Gulati, Kilduff, Li, & Tsai, 2014), self concepts (Herman & Zaccaro, 2014), and intercultural competencies; and (b) allow leaders to engage different types of exchanges depending the stakeholder's context and geography.

Taking the complex nature of global leadership tasks and relationships into account, together with the increased variety, flux, boundaries and interdependence of globalization, Reiche et al. (2017) offer four types of global leadership roles, including: incremental, operational, connective, and integrative.

<i>Relational Complexity</i>	Connective Global Leadership <i>Task: low complexity and flux</i> <i>Relationship: high variation and interdependence</i>	Integrative Global Leadership <i>Task: high complexity and flux</i> <i>Relationship: high variation and interdependence</i>
	Incremental Global Leadership <i>Task: low complexity and flux</i> <i>Relationship: low variation and interdependence</i>	Operational Global Leadership <i>Task: high complexity and flux</i> <i>Relationship: low variation and interdependence</i>
Low	<i>Task Complexity</i>	High □

Figure 1. Typology of global leadership roles

Note. The data in this table are from “Contextualizing Leadership: A Typology of Global Leadership Roles,” by B. Reiche, M. Mendenhall, J. Osland, *Journal of International Business Studies*, p. 552-572. Copyright 2017 by Reiche. Reprinted with permission.

Viewed through the lens of task and relational complexity, the definition of global leadership becomes more nuanced. For example:

- Global leadership refers to “the processes and actions through which an individual influences a range of internal and external constituents from multiple national cultures and jurisdictions in a context characterized by significant levels of task and relationship complexity” (Reiche et al., 2017, p. 556).
- Global leadership roles that are incremental in nature, while reaching across multiple cultures and national borders, have an “uncomplicated, transparent, stable, predictable, and socially bounded” nature, with responsibilities that are usually technical, highly specialized and requires a contained number of interactions (p. 561).

- Global leadership roles that are operational face “high cognitive demands that arise from highly complex task conditions [stemming] from substantial environmental variety, as reflected in a wide range of regulatory bodies distributed across different countries or a high number of different customers and high variation in customer needs” (p. 561). Yet this type of global leadership role has a lower relationship complexity level because the relationship systems have already been created, “reducing the need for a global leader to engage in continuous and frequent boundary spanning” (p. 562).
- Global leadership roles that are “connective” in nature include tasks that are “specialized and clearly bounded [with] high demands for social flexibility” because of conditions of high geographic, cultural, linguistic, functional and institutional diversity.
- Global leadership roles that are integrative face “intense demands that arise from a need to respond to multifold, variable and changing task conditions while also constantly adjusting to exchange relationships across a wide and dispersed range of relevant constituents” (p. 563). Leaders in this role actively address the polarity between external and internal legitimacy, approval and acceptance with stakeholders.

Reiche et al. (2017) explain that this typology of the global leadership role will support scholars in clarifying the inclusion criteria for their research sample, minimizing “further fragmentation of construct operationalization and enabling future meta-analyses” (p. 564). Furthermore, this typology will help delineate competencies and leadership effectiveness criteria that are more directly related to the global leader’s specific role. The next section provides a brief overview of the scholarly literature on global leadership competencies.

Global Leadership Competencies

Scholars explain that organizations usually go through a four-phase process (domestic, international, multinational, global) in order to become global in nature (Marquardt, Berger, & Loan, 2004). The more global the organization, the more competition, complexity and cultural diversity the organization must competently address (Kim & McLean, 2015). Therefore, “influencing across cultures and borders requires a more complex set of skills and knowledge than those for influencing in a home country” (Kim & McLean, 2015, p. 240). The review of literature reveals a sense of urgency in identifying global leadership competencies in order to support organizations to survive in a complex global economy (Kim & McLean, 2015; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002; Muratbekova-Touron, 2009).

There is a general consensus among scholars and practitioners that global leadership requires a more sophisticated set of technical and relational skills and knowledge to address the higher levels of complexity that are part and parcel of global organizations (Kim & McLean, 2015; Mendenhall et al., 2013). Global leadership, therefore, transcends both universal and domestic leadership development models (Beechler & Javidan, 2007; Kim & McLean, 2015; Mendenhall et al., 2012). However, the challenges in determining a clear definition of leadership and global leadership (as discussed in the previous sections) contribute to challenges in determining a clear set of global leadership competencies (Bird & Stevens, 2013; Kim & McLean, 2015; Mendenhall et al., 2012).

As Osland (2016) contends, “global leadership is still an emerging field, reminiscent of the first stages of domestic leadership research that also began by examining traits and

subsequently evolved more complex theories” (p. 78). As such, continued efforts to create more clarity and agreement on the definition of global leadership is necessary in order to strengthen sample selection and research validity and reliability on how best to develop global leadership. As Bird and Stevens (2013) explain, there are key challenges in identifying clear global leadership competencies, including the tendency to identify more competencies than necessary in order to accomplish a superior job; the tendency to develop competencies that reflect an idealized version of what is needed, instead of competencies that reflect current realities (Conger & Ready, 2004); and the need to distinguish between technical and behavioral competencies, where certain innate behaviors may not be easily amenable to change.

This section draws on the extensive reviews and analysis of global leadership competency literature by leading scholars (Bird & Stevens, 2013; Kim & McLean, 2015; Mendenhall et al., 2013; Osland, 2013; Reiche et al., 2017; and Stevens, Bird, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 2014) to provide an overview and understanding of the definition and historical evolution of global leadership competencies and competency frameworks.

Definition. Scholars define the term competency as a means of describing key knowledge, skills, and characteristics necessary for effectively doing a specific job (Lucia & Lepsinger, 1999). Osland (2013) highlights the groundbreaking work of McClelland (1973) who defined competencies as a “set of underlying characteristics that an individual or team possess that have been demonstrated to predict superior or effective performance in a job,” and Boyatzis (1982) who “emphasized the causal connection between capabilities a person possessed prior to performance that could be used to predict superior performance in a given situation” (p. 113-114). As such, Osland (2013) identifies the following three standards

necessary for identification of a competency: “(a) it must exist prior to performance; (b) it must be causally linked to performance; and (c) it must be possessed by superior, but not by average or sub-par, performers” (p. 114).

Competencies and competency models are typically utilized by organizations to prepare their employees for current and future workplace challenges (Kormanik, Lehner, & Winnick, 2009). Kim & McLean (2015) built upon the competency theory developed by Spencer and Spencer (1993) to define global leadership competency as “an underlying characteristic of a leader that results in criterion-referenced effective and/or superior performance in the context of globalization” (p. 237). In other words, competencies, according to Kim & McLean (2015), refer to clear descriptions of “personality and behaviors that performers must know and be able to use to achieve intended outcomes” (p. 237).

Competency models refer to the organizing frameworks that give a more concise structure to the varying types of competencies. Spencer and Spencer (1993) explain that competencies are comprised of three levels: (a) traits (cognitive and affective personality traits that impact the accomplishment of goals) and motives (those traits that contribute to irregular behaviors in goal attainment); (b) attitudes (learned aspects of behavior); and (c) knowledge and skills (behaviors which impact specific tasks and produce clear outcomes) which are impacted to a great extent by traits, motives and attitudes. Lucia and Lepsinger (1999) developed a three-level pyramid model as a way to organize and discuss global leadership competencies, including personal characteristics (personality traits and innate talents), skills and knowledge, and measurable behaviors. Morrison (2000) developed a hierarchical classification system, SEGLCM (Structure of an Effective Global Leadership Competency Model),

to insist that “global leadership characteristics or dimensions must be stable, relevantly named, internally homogeneous, mutually exclusive, and collectively exhaustive [so that] the competency model include every known characteristic of global leaders” (as cited in Kim & McLean, 2015, p. 238). Morrison (2000) thus explained that global leadership competencies must be comprised of both universal and functional characteristics.

History. Osland (2013) explains that discussions of global leadership competencies derive from either expert opinion or empirical research. This section provides a glimpse of the historical evolution of global leadership competencies based on the extensive scholarly reviews and analysis compiled by Bird (2013), Cumberland et al. (2016), Jokinen (2005), Kim and McLean (2015), Osland (2013, 2017), and Reiche et al. (2017). While early studies were more observational in nature, later studies include empirical methodology and more sophisticated competency frameworks to support targeted development efforts.

Expert Opinion. Osland (2013) explains that early global leadership competency studies in the 1990s “consisted of extrapolations from the domestic leadership literature, interviews, focus groups, or observations from the authors’ consulting or training experiences” (p. 41).

Highlights of these early studies include the following:

- Lobel (1990): Reviewed the literature on managerial competencies for global leadership and noted the prominence of relational competencies such as flexibility, openness and curiosity toward diversity.
- Tichy, Brimm, Charan & Takeuchi (1992): Described successful global leaders as those who have a global mindset, the energy and talent for global networking, the ability to create successful teams and the ability to act as agents of global change.

- Kets de Vries and Mead (1992): Explained that global leadership qualities must include the ability to create a strong vision and operational systems, analyze and make sense of the environment, inspire, empower and be values driven.
- Moran and Riesenberger (1994): Conducted a focus group of managers with international positions, and identified four categories of competencies, including: attitudes, interaction, cultural understanding and leadership.
- Rhinesmith (1993, 1996, 2003): Based on his work as a consultant to multinational corporations, he discussed 24 competencies that fit into three categories of strategy/structure, corporate culture, and people. He later emphasized the importance of a global mindset that includes cognitive complexity (business acumen and paradox management) and global emotional intelligence (self management, cultural acumen), thereby strongly impacting global leadership behaviors.
- Brake (1997): Emphasizes the importance of four key competency categories: business acumen, relationship management, personal effectiveness, and transformational sense which enables a drive toward meaning, purpose and self-management.

Empirical studies. Osland (2013) also provides a list of empirical studies which aim to define global leadership competencies, as evident in the scholarly work of Wills and Barham (1992), Yeung and Ready (1995), Adler (1997), Black et al. (1999), Kets de Vries and Florent-Treacy (1999), Rosen et al. (2000), McCall and Hollenbeck (2002), Goldsmith et al. (2003), Bickson et al. (2003), and Kets de Vries, Vrignaud, & Florent-Treacy (2004). Osland (2013) explains that these empirical studies mostly use interviews and surveys and focus on answering the following two key questions: (a) “What capabilities do global leaders need to acquire in

order to be effective?” and (b) “How can managers most effectively develop these characteristics?” (p. 47). Highlights of these studies (Osland, 2017) include the following as described in the next Table:

- The Holistic Core Competence model (Wills & Barham, 1994)
- Eight nation competency study (Yeung & Ready, 1995)
- Women Global Leaders (Adler, 1997)
- The Global Explorer Model (Black, Morrison & Gregersen, 1999)
- The New Global Leaders (Kets de Vries & Florent-Treacy, 1999)
- Global Literacies (Rosen, Digh, Singer, Philips, 2000)
- Competencies of Global Executives (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002)
- Global Leadership: The Next Generation (Goldsmith, Robertson, & Hu-Chan, 2003)
- Rand Study: New Challenges for Global Leadership (Bickson et al., 2003)
- Developing the Global Leader of Tomorrow (Gitsham, 2008)
- Predictors of Global Leader Effectiveness (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009)
- Expert Cognition in Global Leaders (Osland et al., 2008)

Table 2

Empirical Research on Global Leadership

Authors	Description	Method	Global Leadership Findings
Wills and Barham (1994)	To identify success factors of global managers	60 interviews with successful senior global executives in 9 global organizations in different countries and industries	Cognitive complexity, emotional energy and psychological maturity might be more necessary than specific competencies or skills. Also, empathy toward different cultures, active listening, humility, emotional self-awareness, emotional resilience, accepting risk, emotional support from family, curious learner, present moment awareness, and morality
Yeung and Ready (1995)	To identify leadership capabilities in a cross-national executives	1,200 managers surveyed, representing 10 global corporations and 8 countries	Being able to articulate vision, values, and strategy; being a catalyst for change at the strategic and cultural levels; being empowering to others; having a results and customer-focus orientation
Adler (1997)	To describe women leaders in global politics and business	Interviews with and archival data of women global leaders in 60 countries	Increasing numbers, diverse backgrounds; <u>not</u> selected by countries or corporations that are women-friendly; Women generally use broad-based power instead of hierarchical power; Women are more lateral transfers; they symbolize change and unity; women leverage their increased visibility.

(continued)

Authors	Description	Method	Global Leadership Findings
Black, Morrison and Gregersen (1999)	To identify and develop capabilities of successful global leaders	130 interviews with executives in 50 companies across Europe, North America, Asia	Ability to be inquisitive, have character, manage duality, and be savvy.
Rosen, Digh, Singer, and Philips (2000)	To identify universal leadership qualities	75 CEOs interviewed from 28 countries; 1058 surveys with CEOs, presidents, managing directors or chairmen; studies of national culture	Universal leadership qualities include personal, social, business, and cultural literacies, most of which are paradoxical in nature
Kets de Vries and Florent-Treacy (2002)	To describe how global leaders develop and succeed	Review of data from consultations and corporate action research projects, and 500 interviews with executives of INSEAD seminars	Understanding basic motivational needs and stimulating collective imagination of teams and employees.
McCall and Hollenbeck (2002)	To identify how to recruit and develop global executives and understand how to ensure their success	101 interviews with executives of 16 global firms across 36 nations who were nominated as successful global executives	Open-minded, flexible; interested in, sensitive of diverse cultures; deal with complexity; resilient, resourceful, optimistic, energetic; honest with integrity; stable personal life; technical skills
Goldsmith, Greenberg, Robertson, and Hu-Chan (2003)	To identify future global leadership dimensions	Conduct panels with thought leaders, focus groups with 28 CEOs, focus/dialogue groups with 207 current or future	15 global leadership dimensions: integrity, inner mastery, dialogue, vision, empowerment, developing people, building partnerships, sharing leadership, (continued)

Authors	Description	Method	Global Leadership Findings
		leaders; interviews with 202 high potential next generation leaders; 73 surveys of forum group members	global thinking, appreciating diversity, technological savvy, customer focused, anticipates opportunities, leads change, and maintains competitive advantage
Bikson, Treverton, Moini, and Lindstrom (2003)	To examine globalization impact on HR, global leadership competencies, policies and practices	135 interviews with U.S. HR and senior managers of public, private, and non-profits. 24 unstructured interviews with experts on policies and practices	Depth of organization's primary business; managerial ability, team work, interpersonal skills; strategic global understanding; and cross-cultural competence.
Kets de Vries, Vriegnaud, and Florent-Treacy (2004)	To describe development of a 360 global leadership feedback tool	Semi-structured interviews with senior executives	Twelve dimensions or psychodynamic properties: "envisioning, empowering, energizing, designing, rewarding, team-building, outside orientation, global mindset, tenacity, emotional intelligence, life balance, resilience to stress"
Caligiuri (2006)	To analyze global leader job tasks and proposes competencies development pathways	Focus group meetings, job analysis, surveys with leaders of European and North American	10 tasks: ability to work, speak with and supervise foreign colleagues, negotiate with people of different countries; develop strategic global business plan; manage global budgets, risk, and global suppliers/vendors

(continued)

Authors	Description	Method	Global Leadership Findings
Gitsham and 13 supporting authors (2008)	To identify changes in external environment and best ways to respond	194 CEOs and senior executives surveyed, 33 HR interviews, sustainability and other leaders at firms participating in the UN Global Compact	3 clusters of knowledge and skills: <i>Context, Complexity, Connectedness</i>
Furuya, Stevens, Bird, Oddou and Mendenhall (2009)	To examine antecedents and outcomes of expatriate effectiveness of global management competencies	305 Japanese men, longitudinal study, repatriate managers of 5 large MNC, surveyed 3 times -- before, during and after international assignments	Support of organization, repatriation policies, intercultural personality, self-adjustment, and repatriation policies show increases in motivation, performance, individual learning and knowledge transfer.
Caligiuri and Tarique (2009)	To measure predictors of self-perceived global leadership effectiveness	256 surveys with global managers and directors of 17 countries in a UK-based firm	Leadership development experiences that include higher level of cross cultural contact, extroversion, and other key personality determinants of self perceived effectiveness.
Caligiuri and Tarique (2011)	To measure predictors of dynamic cross-cultural competencies in global leadership effectiveness	420 global leaders surveyed from 41 countries, 221 supervisors surveyed in 3 large multinational firms.	Having cultural experiences, being open, extraverted, and having low neuroticism predicts dynamic competencies such as cultural flexibility, tolerance of ambiguity and low ethnocentrism, predictive of leadership effectiveness in a globalized environment.

(continued)

Authors	Description	Method	Global Leadership Findings
Osland (2010)	To provide a case study of expert cognition in global leaders	20 expert leaders of different countries interviewed, cognitive task analysis, critical incidents and hierarchical task analysis	Illustrates sensemaking process, context and work approaches of a global leader to resolve a critical, complex technological challenges.
Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens and Oddou (2010)	To define content domain of intercultural competence	Review and integration of expat and global leadership empirical research	Three dimensions identified: 1) Perception management 2) Relationship management 3) Self management
Caligiuri and Tarique (2012)	To examine personality characteristics and cross-cultural experiences as predictors of cross-cultural competence.	420 global leaders of 41 countries surveyed using an assessment survey by 221 supervisors in 3 large multinational firms.	Predictors of global leadership effectiveness: Dynamic cross-cultural competencies, high levels of cultural flexibility and tolerance of ambiguity, low levels of ethnocentrism.
Osland, Bird and Oddou (2012)	To provide in-depth description of expert global leaders work context	Cognitive task analysis combining critical incidents and hierarchical task analysis in interviews with 20 expert global leaders from different countries	Work context characterized as: managing multiplicities, big challenges, precarious, and ambiguous. The global context strongly impacts nature and development of global leader expertise and contributes to domestic vs. global leader distinction.

(continued)

Authors	Description	Method	Global Leadership Findings
Osland, Oddou, Bird & Osland (2013)	To provide in-depth description of expert global leader thought process on work and expertise development	20 expert global leaders interviewed for cognitive task analysis of critical incidents and hierarchical tasks	Five categories of thinking: problem solving, strategic thinking, boundary spanning and stakeholders, influencing, and specific global skills. Global skills include: gauge people's reactions and bridge communication gaps; actively listen and using mindful dialogue; perspective taking; engage in conscious "code switching" to be effective in different situations; and leverage and manage cultures appropriately.
Björkman & Mäkelä (2013)	To identify factors that explain willingness to undertake challenging global leadership development activities	427 individuals from 14 multinational companies surveyed	Knowing that one has been formally identified as talented, identification with corporate values, and previous experience
Story, Youssef, Luthans, Barbuto and Bovaird (2013)	To investigate impact of distance and quality of relationship on global leaders' positive psychological capital contagion effect on followers	79 global leaders and 229 of their direct reports surveyed in <i>Fortune 100</i> MNC firm.	Quality of relationship mediates contagion effect. Positive psychological capital buffers potential undesirable effects of distance.

(continued)

Authors	Description	Method	Global Leadership Findings
Vogelgesan g-Lester, Clapp-Smith & Osland (2014)	To examine relationship of positive psychological capital and global mindset.	Analyzed archival data of undergraduate and graduate students in a U.S. global leadership laboratory course.	Mediating quality of positive psychological capital on global mindset, including, cosmopolitanism, cognitive complexity, nonjudgmentalness, inquisitiveness, and performance.
Herbert, Mockaitis & Zander (2014)	To investigate relationship of cultural values and shared leadership preferences in global teams	357 undergrad student teams of 44 countries surveyed	Positive relationship between horizontal individualism and horizontal collectivism and shared leadership preferences. Significant differences in individual-level cultural values between Asian and non-Asians. Shared leadership preferences had fewer differences, suggesting the possibility for sharing leadership in multicultural teams.
Tucker, Bonial, Vanhove & Kedharnath (2014)	To explore relationship of intercultural competencies and global leadership performance criteria.	1867 global leaders of 13 countries surveyed	Six intercultural competencies: respecting beliefs, navigating ambiguity, instilling trust, adapting socially, even disposition, and demonstrating creativity. Three global leadership success criteria: building team effectiveness, global networking, and driving performance.

(continued)

Authors	Description	Method	Global Leadership Findings
Gooderham & Stensaker (2015)	To explore GLD role on corporate social capital and knowledge sharing across corporate and national divisions and borders	19 interviews with senior managers, archival data, 18 real-time reports, 103 surveys of GLD participants in a Scandinavian company	Two conditions for increased social capital and cross-border knowledge: participant selection relate to previous experience with leadership programs in other companies and if participants positively assess the outcomes of the program's groupwork. Carefully designed group formation and tasks that emphasize collaboration and teamwork promote social interaction.
Cumberland , Herd, Alagaraja & Kerrick (2016)	To examine global leadership assessment and development literature	Review of 98 articles or books chapters published over the last 15 years on global competency assessment	HRD professionals to increase knowledge of global leadership competencies, connect global competencies for various roles in their organizations
Huesing & Ludema (2017)	To observe global leader behavior at work how they spend their time	5 global leaders of 5 industries observed for 5 days, including informal interviews and archival data.	Ten global leader characteristics identified: multiple time zones and geographical distance; long hours; flexible schedules and fluid time; technology dependence; time alone connected to others; travel extensively; functional expertise and global scope; facilitation of information, advice, and action; complexity management; and risk confrontation.

(continued)

Authors	Description	Method	Global Leadership Findings
Shakir & Lee (2017)	To investigate global leader connection with people across other cultures	26 interviews with global leaders	Multicultural identity experiences allow global leaders to have empathy, perspective, and integration, which allows them to connect.
Osland, Ehret & Ruiz (2017)	To examine expert cognition in large-scale global change efforts	Two case studies of large-scale global change, cognitive task analysis interviews with the two leaders	Cognitive demands on expert global leaders: systems thinking to understand complex global change; ability to track large amounts of data and interactions; watch and listen closely to people in different cultures or functions to understand perspectives, positions or support levels; read and interpret cues and quickly adapt behavior; and handle ambiguity and stress.
Ikegami, Maznevski & Ota (2017)	To explore asset of foreignness and how global leaders initiate and maintain it	Nissan revival case study, interviews with Ghosn and other senior leaders at Nissan and Renault and published interviews and assessments	Explains how foreignness breaks cultural norms via virtuous cycle creation by leaders who: initiate trust, shape identity, anchor and transcend common language, and act positively on ignorance. Virtuous cycles deemed sustainable and transformed into new global strategic perspectives.

Note. The data in this table are from “An Overview of the Global Literature,” by J. Osland, in M. Mendenhall, J. Osland, A. Bird, G. Oddou, M. Stevens, M. Maznevski, & G. Stahl (Eds.) *Global Leadership: Research, Practice and Development*, p. 68-73. Copyright 2017 by J. Osland. Reprinted with permission.

Competency frameworks. In his review of 19 years of scholarly publications (from 1993 to 2011), Bird (2013) identified over 160 competencies listed as necessary for global leadership effectiveness, many of which seemed to overlap conceptually. Over the years, a number of scholars offered organizing frameworks that allowed for a more organized approach to identifying global leadership competencies. The following is a brief overview:

Mendenhall and Osland (2002). Offered an organizing framework that divided 56 competencies across the following six categories: cross cultural relationship skills, traits and values, cognitive orientation, global business expertise, global organizing expertise, and visioning (as cited in Bird, 2013).

Jokinen (2005). Divided global leadership competencies into three overall categories with 13 competencies, including: (a) core of global leadership competencies (self awareness, engagement in personal transformation, inquisitiveness); (b) mental characteristics (optimism, self regulation, social judgment skills, empathy, motivation, cognitive skills, acceptance of complexity); and (c) behavioral competencies (social skills, networking skills, and knowledge).

Kim and McLean (2015). Developed an integrative framework for global leadership competencies which divides competencies into levels (traits and motives, attitudes, knowledge and skills) and dimensions (intercultural, intercultural, global business, global organizational).

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

Figure 2. Integrative framework for global leadership competency

Note. The data in this figure are from “An integrative framework for global leadership competency: Levels and dimensions,” by J. Kim and G. McLean, *Human Resource Development International*, 18(3), p. 235-258. Copyright 2015 by J. Kim. Reprinted with permission.

In their extensive analysis of over 300 scholarly articles on global leadership competency, Kim and McLean (2015) identified 38 scholarly publications published between January 2000 to September 2014 that met their inclusion criteria of peer-reviewed entries, focused on global organizations and written in the English language. Utilizing both the competency theory developed by Spencer and Spencer (1993) to identify levels of competency and SEGLCM developed by Morrison (2000) to “categorize dimensions of global leadership,” Kim and McLean (2015) developed an integrative approach to determining global leadership competencies (p. 237).

Of the 38 selected articles, 26 provided a comprehensive model of global leadership competency, and 12 provided a partial set of competencies. Kim and MacLean (2015) analyzed

both the comprehensive models and the partial models to organize the findings into three levels of global leadership competency as presented in.

Table 3

Three Levels of Global Leadership Competencies

Level	Finding	Scholar(s)
L1: Traits, Motives	Intellectual capacity, resiliency, maturity,	Allredge and Nilan, 2000
	Commitment, curiosity, courage, , entrepreneurial, agility in thinking	Adler, Brody and Osland, 2001
	Open-minded, flexible in thinking and tactics, cultural sensitivity, resourceful, energetic, optimistic	McCall and Hollenbeck, 2002
	Personal transformation engagement, inquisitiveness	Gillis, 2011; Jokinen, 2005
	Extroversion, agreeable, conscientious, emotionally stable, open	Caligiuri, 2006
	Initiative taking, proactive, high energy, open to ideas, creative, persistent, open to change, bouncing back from mistakes	Rao, 2007
	Motivational processing	Bucker and Poutsma, 2010
	Flexible, motivated to learn, open minded, sensitive	Bueno and Tubbs, 2012
	Continually learn, hardy, tenacious, emotionally intelligence	Mendenhall, 2011
	Intuitive	Ravenscroft, 2012
	Adaptable	Thorn, 2012
	Intelligent, objective, passionate	Terrell and Rosenbusch, 2013

(continued)

Level	Finding	Scholar(s)
L2: Self concept, Attitudes, Value	Customer focused, globally oriented, organizationally agile	Allredge and Nilan, 2000
	Appreciate diversity	Bingham, Black and Felin, 2000; Goldsmith et al., 2003
	Highly value utilitarian and social focus	Bonnstetter, 2000
	Hard working, trustworthy, kind, loving, generous, patient, tolerant, honest, integrity	Chin, Gu, & Tubbs, 2001
	Honesty, integrity	McCall and Hollenbeck, 2002
	Global thinking	Goldsmith et al., 2003; Rao, 2007
	Optimism and empathy	Jokinen, 2005
	Self knowledge, positive outlook, responsiveness	Brownell, 2006
	Vision, respect for humanity, risk taking, encouraging risks, results oriented, awareness	Gillis, 2011; Jokinen, 2005; Rana et al., 2013; Rao, 2007
	Envisioning, entrepreneurial, global mindset, think agile, cosmopolitan	Mendenhall, 2011
	Respect others	Bueno & Tubbs, 2012
	Innovate	Ravenscroft, 2012
	Strategic vision	Thorn, 2012
	Confidence	Wang et al., 2013
Humility, self control, strength, temperance	Canals, 2014	

(continued)

Level	Finding	Scholar(s)
L3: Knowledge and Skills - <i>Cluster 1, Intercultural</i>	Intercultural competency	Caligiuri and Tarique, 2012; Irving, 2010; Stevens et al., 2014; Miska, Stahl, and Mendenhall, 2013
	Cultural competencies	Messinger, 2008
	Cultural intelligence	Chin and Gaynier, 2006
	Cross cultural competence	Handin and Steinwedel, 2006; McCarthy, 2010
	Cultural knowledge and skills	Boyd et al., 2011; Caligiuri, 2006; Rana et al., 2013
	Global politics, geographic knowledge	Boyd et al., 2011; McCarthy, 2010; Terrell and Rosenbusch, 2013; Thorn, 2012
	Cross cultural relationship skills	Mendenhall, 2011
L3: Knowledge and Skills - <i>Cluster 2, Interpersonal</i>	Interpersonal competencies	Adler, Brody, and Osland, 2001; McCarthy, 2010; Messinger, 2008
	Interpersonal issues	Jain, 2004
	Interpersonal skills	Boyd et al., 2011; Canals, 2014
	Building partnership and alliances	Goldsmith et al., 2003
	Networking skills	Gillis, 2011
	Building relationships	Terrell and Rosenbusch, 2013; Thorn, 2012
	Sharing leadership	Goldsmith et al., 2003
	Manage people's behaviors and attitudes	Bonnstetter, 2000

(continued)

Level	Finding	Scholar(s)
L3: Knowledge and Skills – <i>Cluster 3, Global business</i>	Global business competencies	Adler, Brody and Osland, 2001
	Global business expertise	Mendenhall, 2011
	International business knowledge	Caligiuri, 2006
	Knowledge and skills for leading business	Terrell and Rosenbusch, 2013
	Value added technical or business skills	McCall and Hollenbeck, 2002
	Task issues	Jain, 2004
	Knowing customers	Bingham, Black and Felin, 2000
L3: Knowledge and Skills – <i>Cluster 4: Global organizational</i>	Global organizational competencies	Adler, Brody and Osland, 2001
	Capability to lead and manage organizations	Bonnstetter, 2000
	Organizational competencies	Messinger, 2008
	Global organizing expertise	Mendenhall, 2011
L3: Knowledge and Skills – <i>Cluster 5, Other</i>	Fostering teamwork	Thorn, 2012
	Balancing tensions	Bingham, Black, and Felin, 2000
	Technological savvy	Goldsmith et al., 2003
	Changing environment	Jain, 2004
	Behavioral repertoires	Bucker and Poutsma, 2010
	Learning from experience	Terrell and Rosenbusch, 2013

(continued)

Level	Finding	Scholar(s)
	Metacognition and cognitive processing	Bucker and Poutsma, 2010
	Cosmopolitan savvy	Gillis, 2011
	Social judgment skills	Gillis, 2011
	Global critical leadership	Jenkins, 2012
	Dealing with uncertainty	Bingham, Black, and Felin, 2000
	Ability to deal with complexity	McCall and Hollenbeck, 2002

Note. The data in this table are from “An integrative framework for global leadership competency: Levels and dimensions,” by J. Kim and G. McLean in *Human Resource Development International*, 18(3), 235-258. Copyright 2015 by J. Kim. Reprinted with permission.

Cumberland et al. (2016). In their review of 98 scholarly studies over the last 15 years on global leadership competencies, Cumberland et al. (2016) divide the competencies according to personality, knowledge and skills, and behaviors, as noted by Lucia and Lepsinger’s (1999) three-level pyramid model of organizing competencies (see Table 4). Cumberland et al. (2016) identify 17 personality traits based on reviewing global literature competencies since 2005, including the scholarly contributions of Agrawal and Rook (2014), Bird et al. (2010), Jokinen (2005), Kowske and Anthony (2007), Mol, Born, Willemsen, and Van der Molen (2005), and Osland et al. (2006). Cumberland et al. (2016) note that the assessments of personality traits are often the “basis for global leadership selection and development programs” (p. 304), citing the meta analysis by Mol et al. (2005) which “found personality to be more predictive of

global leader performance than domestic job performance” (as cited in Cumberland et al., 2016, p. 304). Cumberland et al. (2016) review findings by Kowske and Anthony (2007) and Agrawal and Rook (2014) to note that while these personality traits are found in global leaders across multiple cultures, the degree to which they are utilized depend on the specific culture within which they are used. In other words, “culture dictates which competencies are valued” (Cumberland et al., 2016, p. 305).

Cumberland et al. (2016) further identify the knowledge and skill competencies that have been reported in scholarly literature of the past 15 years, specifically global mindset (Cohen, 2010; Levey et al., 2007) and cultural intelligence (Brislin, Worthley, & MacNab, 2006; Earley & Ang, 2003). While a clear definition of the two competencies is challenging, scholars agree that each is complex and multidimensional in nature and not clearly differentiated from each other. Levy et al. (2007) define global mindset as “a highly complex cognitive structure characterized by an openness and articulation of multiple cultural and strategic realities on both global and local levels, and the cognitive ability to mediate and integrate across the multiplicity” (p. 244). Scholars define cultural intelligence as a set of skills that allows individuals to traverse multiple cultures in ways that are culturally appropriate and acceptable (Brislin et al., 2006; Cohen, 2010; Earley & Ang, 2003; Story & Barbuto, 2011).

In terms of behavioral competencies, Cumberland et al. (2016) note the importance of global leaders demonstrating key behavioral competencies in order to translate their personality traits and knowledge/skills into action. Cumberland et al. (2016) do not specify key behavioral competencies from their review of literature, but point to key assessment methods

such as 360 instruments that can be customized for each organization's unique needs. This will be discussed in the next section on assessments.

Table 4

Global Leadership Competencies Based on Personality Traits and Knowledge & Skills

Domain	Competencies	Author(s)
Personality Traits	Adaptability, flexibility	Ananthram & Chan (2013) Bird et al. (2010) Caligiuri & Tarique (2012) Mol et al. (2005) Osland et al. (2006) Terrell & Rosenbusch (2013)
	Agreeableness	Bird et al. (2010) Mol et al. (2005)
	Conscientiousness	Bird et al. (2010) Mol et al. (2005)
	Cultural sensitivity	Ananthram & Chan (2013) Bird et al. (2010) Jokinen (2005) Mol et al. (2005) Osland et al. (2006)
	Emotional Intelligence	Bird et al. (2010) Osland et al. (2006)
	Extroversion, sociability	Bird et al. (2010) Caligiuri & Tarique (2012) Jokinen (2005) Mol et al. (2005) Osland et al. (2006)

(continued)

Domain	Competencies	Author(s)
	Inquisitiveness, curiosity	Bird et al. (2010) Jokinen (2005) Osland et al. (2006)
	Open mindedness, non judgmentalness, low ethnocentric attitudes	Ananthram & Chan (2013) Bird et al. (2010) Jokinen (2005) Mol et al. (2005) Osland et al. (2006)
	Openness to experience	Ananthram & Chan (2013) Caligiuri & Tarique (2012) Jokinen (2005) Terrell & Rosenbusch (2013)
	Optimism	Bird et al. (2010) Jokinen (2005) Osland et al. (2006)
	Resilience	Bird et al. (2010) Osland et al. (2006)
	Self awareness	Bird et al. (2010) Jokinen (2005) Osland et al. (2006)
	Self efficacy	Bird et al. (2010) Jokinen (2005)
	Tolerance for ambiguity, stability, stress tolerance, low neuroticism	Bird et al. (2010) Caligiuri & Tarique (2012) Jokinen (2005) Mol et al. (2005)

(continued)

Domain	Competencies	Author(s)
	Tenacity	Osland et al. (2006)
	Values, integrity, character	Bird et al. (2010), Osland et al. (2006)
Knowledge & Skills	Global mindset	Cohen (2010) Levy, Beechler, Taylor & Boyacigiller (2007) Story & Barbuto (2011)
	Cultural intelligence	Brislin et al. (2006) Earley & Ang (2003) Earley & Peterson (2004) Thomas, Stahl, Ravlin, Poelmans, Pekerti, & Maznevski (2008)

Note. The data in this table are from “Assessment and development of global leadership competencies in the workplace: A review of literature,” by D. Cumberland, A. Herd, M. Alagaraja, and S. Kerrick in *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 18(3), 301-317. Copyright 2016 by D. Cumberland. Reprinted with permission.

Bird (2013). In their review of global leadership competency literature published between 1993 and 2011, Bird (2013) count 160 competencies which they organize somewhat equally into three competency categories as follows: (a) business and organizational savvy (55 out of the 160 competencies); (b) managing people and relationships (47 out of the 160 competencies); and (c) managing self (58 out of the 160 competencies). While the distribution appears to be equal, Bird (2013) explains that there is “considerable variation among scholars with regard to focus” (p. 87). For example, while Wills and Barham (1994) focus only on

competencies that relate to self management, Yeung and Ready (1995) focus on competencies which relate to business and organizational savvy (See Table 5). Bird (2013) describe the three categories in more detail as follows:

- Business and organizational acumen (55 out of the 160 competencies) include 5 key competencies: (a) vision and strategic thinking (ability to comprehend complexity, develop a global vision and implement it); (b) business savvy (strategic thinking, operational knowledge, value-added orientation); (c) organizational savvy (design organizational structures and processes that facilitate global effectiveness); (d) managing communities (collaborate and cooperate with a wide range of stakeholders, boundary spanning and influencing skills); and (e) leading change .
- Managing people and relationships (47 out of the 160 competencies) include 5 composite competencies: (a) Cross cultural communication (mindfulness, conscious awareness of cultural differences and cognitive intercultural skills such as negotiating across cultures and contextualizing communications across cultures); (b) interpersonal skills (emotional intelligence and relationship management skills); (c) valuing people (foundational to all other competencies, includes respect for people and diversity, and the ability to understand people and create trusting relationships); (d) empowering others (energizing others by positively impacting their self efficacy through coaching, delegating, instructing and supporting professional development); and (e) teaming skills (ability to lead or follow in multicultural global teams).
- Managing self (58 out of the 160 competencies) include 5 main competencies: (a) resilience (nonstress tendencies, optimism, hardiness, self confidence, resourcefulness,

and lifestyle behaviors that reduce stress); (b) character (a foundational trait that includes integrity, self awareness, personal values, accountability, persistence, tenacity, conscientiousness); (c) inquisitiveness (curiosity and humility toward learning, openness, and open mindedness); (d) global mindset (cognitive complexity to notice complex interdependencies and relationships, and cosmopolitanism to be interested in global institutions, knowledge, cultures); and (e) flexibility (behaviorally adaptive, having intellectual flexibility, cognitive complexity, tolerating ambiguity, embracing duality).

Table 5

Competency Distribution Across Three Categories of Global Leadership Competency

Author(s)	Business & Org Savvy	Managing People & Relationship	Managing Self
Rhinesmith (1993)	Intellectual intelligence Business acumen	Emotional intelligence Cultural acumen	Cognitive complexity Cosmopolitanism Personal management
Wills & Barham (1994)			Cognitive complexity Emotional energy Psychology maturity
Yeung & Ready (1995)	Tangible vision Catalyst for strategic change Results oriented Customer oriented	Being able to empower others	
Brake (1997)	Business acumen: Depth of field Entrepreneurial spirit Stakeholder orientation Organizational acumen Relationship mgmt: Change agency Community building	Relationship management: Community building Cross cultural communication Influencing	Personal effectiveness: Accounting Curiosity and learning Maturity Thinking agility

(continued)

Author(s)	Business & Org Savvy	Managing People & Relationship	Managing Self
Black et al. (1999)	Demonstrate savvy		Inquisitiveness Exhibit character Embrace duality
Kets de Vries and Florent-Treacy (1999)	Visioning Designing, aligning Outside orientation	Energizing Team building Rewarding and feedback Emotional intelligence	Global mindset Tenacity Life balance Resilience to stress
Rosen et al. (2000)	Business literacy: Chaos navigator Business geographer Historical futurist Leadership liberator Economic integrator Cultural literacy: Inquisitive internationalist Global capitalist	Social literacy: Pragmatic trust Urgent listening Constructive impatience Connective teaching Collaborative individualism Cultural literacy Proud ancestor Respectful modernizer Culture bridger	Personal literacy: Aggressive insight Confident humility Authentic flexibility Reflective decisiveness Realistic optimism
McCall & Hollenbeck (2002)	Able to deal with complexity Value added technical and business skills	Cultural interest and sensitivity	Open minded and flexible in thought and tactics Resilient, resourceful, optimistic and energetic Honesty and integrity Stable personal life
Goldsmith et al. (2003)	Developing technical savvy Building partnerships and alliances	Appreciating cultural diversity Sharing leadership	Thinking globally
Bikson et al. (2003)	Substantive depth related to the organization's primary business processes Strategic international	Managerial ability, with an emphasis on teamwork and interpersonal skills Cross cultural	(continued)

Author(s)	Business & Org Savvy	Managing People & Relationship	Managing Self
	understanding	understanding	
Moro Bueno & Tubbs (2004)		Communication skills Respect for others Sensitivity	Motivation to learn Flexibility Open mindedness
Bird & Osland (2004)	System skills: Influence stakeholders: Lead change Span boundaries Build community Architecting global knowledge	Interpersonal skills: Mindful communication Create and build trust Multicultural teaming	Threshold traits: Integrity Humility Inquisitiveness Resilience Attitudes and orientations: Global mindset Cognitive complexity Cosmopolitanism System skills
Osland et al. (2007)	Strategic thinking Oscillation between detail and big picture Boundary spanning Stakeholder management	Skilled people reading Creating and relying on trust	Tolerance of ambiguity Inquisitiveness Creative problem solving
Gitsham (2008)	Context: Environmental scanning Understand environmental risks and social trends Complexity: Responsive to change Finding creative solutions Balancing short and long term considerations interdependence	Connectedness: Understand actors Build relationships	Complexity: Flexibility Learn from mistakes

(continued)

Author(s)	Business & Org Savvy	Managing People & Relationship	Managing Self
Caligiuri (2006); Caligiuri and Tarique (2009)	Interact with external clients from other countries Interact with internal clients from other countries Develop a strategic business plan on a worldwide basis Manage a budget on a worldwide basis Manage foreign suppliers or vendors Manage risk on a worldwide basis	Work with colleagues from other country Often speak another language Supervise employees of different nationalities Negotiate in other countries or with people from other countries Extraversion	Openness to experience Conscientiousness
Bird et al. (2010)		Relationship management Relationship interest Interpersonal engagement Emotional sensitivity Self awareness Social flexibility	Perception management: Nonjudgmentalness Inquisitiveness Tolerance of ambiguity Cosmopolitanism Interest flexibility Self management: Optimism Self confidence Self identity Emotional resilience Non stress tendency Stress management
Gundling et al. (2011)	Frame shifting Expand ownership Adapt and add value Third way solutions	Cultural self awareness Results through relationships Develop future leaders Influence across boundaries	Inviting the unexpected Core values and flexibility

(continued)

Author(s)	Business & Org Savvy	Managing People & Relationship	Managing Self
Mendenhall & Osland (2002)	<p>Vision: Articulating vision and strategy, entrepreneurial, catalyst for cultural and strategic change, empowering others</p> <p>Business expertise: Global business and org savvy, business acumen organizationally astute, focused on stakeholders and results</p> <p>Organizing expertise: Building community and learning systems, Operations and customer strength</p>	<p>Relationship skills: Close personal relationships</p> <p>Cross cultural communication skills</p> <p>Emotionally connect ability</p> <p>Inspire, motivate others</p> <p>Managing cross cultural ethical issues</p> <p>Organizing expertise: Team building</p> <p>Organizational networking</p> <p>Global networking</p>	<p>Traits: Curiosity/Inquisitiveness</p> <p>Continual learner</p> <p>Learning orientation</p> <p>Accountability</p> <p>Integrity/courage</p> <p>Commitment</p> <p>Hardiness</p> <p>Maturity</p> <p>Results orientation</p> <p>Cognitive: Environmental sense making</p> <p>Global mindset</p> <p>Thinking agility</p> <p>Improvisation</p> <p>Pattern recognition</p> <p>Cognitive complexity</p> <p>Cosmopolitanism</p> <p>Managing uncertainty</p> <p>Local vs global paradox</p>
Jokinen (2005)	<p>Behavioral skills: Knowledge</p>	<p>Behavioral skills: Social skills</p> <p>Networking skills</p> <p>Mental characteristics: Social judgment skills</p> <p>Empathy</p>	<p>Mental characteristics: Optimism, Self regulation,</p> <p>Global motivation, Cognitive skills</p> <p>Acceptance of complexity</p> <p>Fundamental core: Self awareness</p> <p>Engagement in personal transformation</p> <p>inquisitiveness</p>

Note. The data in this table are from “Mapping the content domain of global leadership competencies,” by A. Bird, in M. E. Mendenhall, J. S. Osland, A. Bird, G. Oddou, M. Maznevski, G. Stahl, & M. Stevens (Eds.), *Global leadership: Research, practice and development*, pp. 80-96. Copyright 2013 by A. Bird. Reprinted with permission.

Reiche et al. (2017). Note that although the competencies listed in this review of literature are compelling and necessary, they do not address the importance of context and thus do not equate to “specific sets of behaviors and actions that allow global leaders to fulfill the requirements of their corresponding ideal-typical global leadership roles” (P. 552). In their review of literature, Reiche et al. (2017) explain that despite the rapid growth and proliferation of leadership research, “the context in which global leadership occurs remains ill-defined and under-conceptualized [with the risk of] equating global leadership roles that are qualitatively very different and prevents sufficient clarity for empirical sampling” (p. 552). For example, although cognitive complexity is cited as an important competency for global leadership (Shaffer et al., 2012), Reiche et al. (2017) ask the questions: “how many different fundamental elements, including business units, competitors, customers, regulatory regimes, languages, religions, do international assignees encounter and need to deal with in their environment, and how variable and changeable are they?” (p. 565-566).

Reiche et al.’s (2017) configuration of the global leadership construct into four typologies (incremental global leadership, operational global leadership, connective global leadership and integrative global leadership) offers a more nuanced direction in identifying competencies that are directly relevant for the level of task and relational complexity required for each role. Rooted in complexity leadership theory, Reiche et al.’s (2017) four types of global leadership roles correspond to the administrative, adaptive, and enabling functions of leadership as defined by Uhl-Bien et al. (2007). While the administrative function of leadership “responds to the *variable* demands of different task domains, [the] adaptive function ... initiates

and reacts to necessary *change*, and [the] enabling function ... manages the interactions and entanglement, or *interrelations*, among relevant constituents in the leadership context” (p. 559). Reiche et al. (2017) thus draw on both complexity leadership theory and role theory (as discussed by Katz & Kahn, 1978) to identify the specific behaviors that global leaders are expected to demonstrate “in order to fulfill the requirements and set of responsibilities of a particular global leadership role” (p. 560).

Therefore, global leadership competencies, as defined by Reiche et al. (2017), relate not only to accomplishing tasks, but also to facilitating, developing, and maintaining relationships within both the internal and external realms. The following is a list of general competencies allocated for each global leadership role:

Table 6

Competencies Allocated to Each Global Leadership Role

Role	Example	Task competencies	Relational competencies
Incremental (low task complexity, low relationship complexity)	Export director within an organization that sells products internationally	Task-focused behaviors with clear measurable objectives	Nurturing person-focused behaviors: formal reporting relationships, routine communication, standard operating procedures.
Operational (high task complexity, low relationship complexity)	Leader of product development in a global financial services firm	Task-focused role, implement multiple embeddedness across heterogeneous contexts: Locally adapt task-focused behavior: task prioritization, resource allocation, monitoring and problem solving	

(continued)

Role	Example	Task competencies	Relational competencies
Connective (low task complexity, high relationship complexity)	Leader of a global distribution team who focuses on the back office.		Mainly person-focused role of becoming familiar with cultural, linguistic, functional and organizational diversity and continual adaption to meeting constituent expectations.
Integrative (high task complexity, high relationship complexity)	Partners of global professional services firms or senior executives of global multi-unit firms who regularly address complex tasks across diverse groups.	Ability to leverage information from both the task and relationship domains	Conflict mediation and solutions development that meet the needs of opposing constituents.

Note. The data in this table are from “Contextualizing leadership: A typology of global leadership roles,” by B. Reich, A. Bird, M. Mendenhall, J. Osland, in *Journal of International Business Studies*, 48, 552-572. Copyright 2017 by B. Reiche. Reprinted with permission.

Such a nuanced typology of global leadership roles, according to Reiche et al. (2017), encourages the development of global leadership competencies in a number of ways, including: (a) clarifying the specific role of a global leader; (b) clarifying the specific task and relationship responsibilities of a global leader; (c) clarifying the specific processes of the global leadership role; and (d) clarifying the expatriate construct beyond specific assignments, duration, locus and goals. The next section addresses the ways in which such competencies may be assessed in order to create effective global leadership development programs.

Assessment of Global Leadership Competencies

Results of a 2010 IBM survey of over 700 global HR officers indicated a strong need to hire “borderless leaders who could function effectively in complex global environments and manage global business teams” (as cited in Cumberland et al., 2016, p. 302). As discussed in the previous section, global leadership competencies identify the skills, behaviors, personality traits and behaviors that enable global leaders to address the complexities of leading people and organizations within a complex global economy. Scholars explain that once competencies are identified, “they must then be able to be measured in order to provide top management with the ability to assess global leadership potential in managers, and/or to provide individualized feedback to managers so that they can target weaker competencies for further development” (Stevens et al., 2014, p. 116).

While scholarly research is still lagging in identifying specific competencies for various global leadership roles (as discussed in the previous section), scholars note that “there has been far less focus on assessing global leadership competencies and how these competencies are developed” (Cumberland, Herd, Alagaraja & Kerrick, 2016, p. 301). In their review of 98 scholarly articles on global leadership competency assessment, Cumberland et al. (2016) propose two key questions: “What are the tools to assess global talent, and what methods are currently being used to develop global leaders?” (p. 302). This section presents an overview of literature in this regard.

Tools to assess global talent. In their review of scholarly literature on global leadership competency assessments over the past 15 years, Cumberland et al. (2016) utilize a three-level pyramid model (Lucia & Lepsinger, 1999) to identify the personality traits, skills and knowledge,

and behaviors necessary for global leadership and the assessment tools for each. Table 7 lists the assessments identified for each trait and skills/knowledge area:

Table 7

Assessment Tools for Each Type of Competency

Assessment		Source
Personality Trait(s):		
ABOS: Attitudinal Behavioral Openness Scale	Openness to experience	Caligiuri, Jacobs & Farr (2000)
ATDS: Attitudes Toward Diversity Scale	Open mindedness	Montei, Adams & Eggers (1996)
CCAI: Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory	Adaptability, flexibility, values, integrity, character	Kelley & Meyers (1995)
CQS: Cultural Intelligence Scale	Self awareness	Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne, & Annen (2011)
GCAA: Global Competencies Aptitude Assessment	Open mindedness Openness to experience Self awareness	Hunter, White, & Godbey (2006)
GCI: Global Competency Inventory	Adaptability, flexibility, cultural sensitivity, extroversion, inquisitiveness, open mindedness, optimism, resilience, self awareness, self efficacy, stability, tolerance for ambiguity	Stevens, et al. (2014)
GELI: Global Executive Leadership Inventory	Open mindedness, stability, tenacity, resilience	Kets de Vries (2005)
GLO: Global Leadership Online	Adaptability, flexibility, open mindedness, self awareness	Gundling et al. (2011)

(continued)

Assessment		Source
GMI: Global Mindset Inventory	Cultural sensitivity, open mindedness, extroversion, open to experience, self efficacy	Javidan & Teagarden (2011)
ICAPS: Intercultural Adjustment Potential Scale	Adaptability, flexibility, openness to experience, self awareness, stability	Matsumoto, LeRoux, Ratzlaff, Tatani, Uchida, Kim, & Araki (2001)
ICSI: Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory	Adaptability, flexibility, cultural sensitivity, open mindedness, self awareness	Bhawuk & Brislin (1992)
IDI: Intercultural Development Inventory	Adaptability, flexibility, cultural sensitivity, open mindedness	Bennett, Bennett, & Allen (2003)
IES: Intercultural Effectiveness Scale	Cultural sensitivity, open mindedness, resilience, self awareness	Bird, Stevens, Mendenhall, Oddou, and Joyce Osland (2008)
IRC: Intercultural Readiness Check	Adaptability, flexibility, extroversion, cultural sensitivity, open mindedness, stability, tolerance of ambiguity	Brinkmann & van Weerdenburg (2014)
MPQ: Multicultural Personality Questionnaire	Adaptability, flexibility, extroversion, cultural sensitivity, open mindedness, stability	Van der Zee, K., & Van Oudenhoven, J. (2000)
NEO PI-R: Big Five Personality Inventories	Agreeableness, conscientiousness	McCrae, Costa, & Martin (2005)
Prospector	Adaptability, flexibility, cultural sensitivity, values, integrity	Center for Creative Leadership
Knowledge & Skills:		
GELI	Global Mindset	Kets de Vries (2005)
GMI: Global Mindset Inventory	Global Mindset	Javidan & Teagarden (2011)

(continued)

Assessment		Source
GMQ: Global Mindset Questionnaire	Global Mindset	
IES	Global Mindset	
CQS	Cross cultural intelligence	Earley & Ang (2003)
CCWM	Knowledge	

Note. The data in this table are from “Assessment and development of global leadership competencies in the workplace: A review of literature,” by D. Cumberland, A. Herd, M. Alagaraja, and S. Kerrick in *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 18(3), 301-317. Copyright 2016 by D. Cumberland. Reprinted with permission.

Bird and Stevens (2013) divide the above global leadership assessment competencies into three broad categories, as follows:

- Cultural difference assessments: Instruments in this group assess a leader’s cultural acumen to identify areas for further development. In their comprehensive review of cultural difference assessments, Taras (2006) identifies over 100 instruments that assess various cultural dimensions such as “individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and universalism— and the not so common— e.g. family integrity, faith in people, and upward influence” (p. 116).
- Intercultural adaptability assessments: Instruments in this group focus on measuring intercultural competence, which is a “critical aspect of effective global leadership in most contexts (Bird & Stevens, 2013, p. 116). These instruments include:

- Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory (a 50-item self assessment survey that measures flexibility/openness, emotional resilience, perceptual acuity, and personal autonomy);
- Global Competence Aptitude Assessment (a 50-item self assessment survey that measures internal and external readiness in self-awareness, risk-taking, open mindedness, respect for diversity, global awareness, world history awareness, intercultural competence, effectiveness across cultures);
- Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (a 60-item self assessment survey that measures continuous learning, interpersonal engagement, hardiness);
- Intercultural Development Inventory (50-item self assessment survey to measure intercultural development based on ethnocentric and ethnorelative stages);
- Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (78-item self assessment survey to measure five personality dimensions of expat performance, including cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability, flexibility);
- Intercultural Readiness Check (a 60-item self assessment survey that measures four dimensions of multicultural success, including intercultural sensitivity, intercultural communication, building commitment, managing uncertainty);
- Cultural Intelligence (a 20-item self assessment survey that measures four dimensions of cross cultural intelligence, including motivational intelligence, cognitive intelligence, metacognitive intelligence, and behavioral intelligence);
- Big Five Personality Inventory: NEO PI-R (240-item self assessment that measures neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness);

- Global leadership competency assessments: Instruments in this group “have adopted a broader focus and attempt to identify a variety of competencies, not just intercultural competence” (p. 127). These include:
 - Global Mindset Inventory (a 76-item self assessment survey that measures three broad areas of intellectual capital, psychological capital, and social capital);
 - Global Competencies Inventory (a 180-item self assessment survey that measures “seventeen dimensions of personality predispositions associated with effective intercultural behavior and dynamic global managerial skill acquisition” (p. 130). These include: perception management, non judgmentalness, inquisitiveness, tolerance for ambiguity, cosmopolitanism, interest flexibility, relationship management, relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, emotional sensitivity, self awareness, behavioral flexibility, self management, optimism, self confidence, self identity, emotional resilience, non stress tendency, stress management);
 - Global Executive Leadership Inventory (100-item 360-feedback survey to measure two dimensions: being charismatic in motivating and inspiring others, and being architectural in designing effective systems and processes)
 - Global Leadership Online (a 60-item self assessment survey that measures five dimensions of global leadership, including seeing differences, closing gaps, opening the system, preserving balance, establishing solutions);

While the above instruments demonstrate “sound psychometric properties with regard to internal validity and reliability,” Bird & Stevens (2013) note: “the critical issue is whether or

not the characteristics they measure are predictive of superior global leadership performance. On that point, there is a paucity of evidence, though perhaps reason to be optimistic” (p. 139). The next sections further explore this issue further.

Methods to develop global leaders. Scholars contend that a leading source of concern for global organizations is developing their talent pipeline to provide sound and effective global leadership (Maznevski, Stahl, & Mendenhall, 2013; Stevens et al., 2014). Leadership development programs that are rooted in competency-based models assume that “some characteristics and behaviors are more coherently demonstrated by outstanding leaders and that these competencies can be identified, assessed, and developed” (Kim & McLean, 2015, p. 237). Before reviewing global leadership development programs, it is important to review the literature on leader and leadership development in order to establish a foundational understanding of the field.

Leader and Leadership Development

The field of leader and leadership development is growing at a rapid pace as a core focus of human resource development activity (Ardichvili, 2016; Day, 2011; Whitener, & Sandlin, 2007), making up an estimated 35% of the budget set aside for the learning and development function (Bersin, 2014), and representing a \$14 billion dollar industry in the U.S. alone (Ardichvili, 2016; Bassi, Gallager, & Schroer, 1996; Kaiser & Curphy, 2013) – with some estimates as high as \$45 billion a year in the U.S. (Day, 2011). Although scholarly studies in leadership theory hail a long history of research, scholarly studies on leader and leadership development are relatively sparse in their depth and breadth of research (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014).

In their review of global leadership development (GLD) programs, Salicru, Wassenaar, Suerz & Spittle (2016) note the importance of developing effective GLD programs especially in light of shortages in the global leadership pipeline. They point to a number of empirical studies that point to the imperative of developing effective GLD programs:

- Only one third of global leaders in over 2,000 organizations representing 48 countries are being effective in leading across countries and cultures (DDI *Global Leadership Forecast 2014-2015*);
- While 52% of the 900 multinational organizations surveyed were planning to expand their operations, only 16% reported having adequate numbers of global leaders trained for their key roles (DDI *Global Leadership Forecast 2014-2015*);
- 86% of HR and business leaders identify leadership as a primary critical issue for their organizations (Agarwal, Rea, & Van Berkel, 2015);
- Only 6% believe in the readiness of their leadership pipeline (Agarwal et al., 2015).

This section provides an overview of the definition and historical evolution of the field. Day et al. (2014) contend that “despite the significant advances in understanding leadership development made over the past 25 years ... the field is still relatively immature” (p. 80). This has likely been due to a misperception that if organizations agree upon a specific leadership theory, then developing their leaders would be a simple and inevitable process that would naturally follow (Day et al, 2014). Yet, the process of human development is complex and often incremental and ongoing, thus requiring the field of leadership development to be infused with learnings about human development and adult learning theory (Day, Harrison, & Halprin, 2009; Day et al, 2014; Kegan & Lahey, 2009). Furthermore, given the complex nature of today’s

business environment, little if any attempts have been made to create leadership development programs from a complexity leadership perspective (Clarke, 2013; Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016).

Leader vs. Leadership Development. To gain a deeper understanding of leadership development, it is important to note the clear distinction between leader development and leadership development. Leader development has been based on the assumption that leadership is a process of influencing followers to reach agreed upon goals (Clarke, 2013). Therefore, while *leader* development scholarship emphasizes studying the development of individual leaders, *leadership development* scholarship emphasizes studying the developmental process of the many individuals involved often within a systems and organizational context (Clarke, 2013; Day et al., 2014; Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2015). Leader development focuses on improving or expanding a leader's capacity in dealing effectively with their leadership role, processes and responsibilities by developing their skills, competencies and knowledge (Clarke, 2013; McCauley & van Velsor, 2004). Research in this area has focused on deeper understanding of informal and formal pathways of learning and ways in which organizational processes (such as feedback) might enhance the process (Clarke, 2013; Orvis & Ratwani, 2010; Reichard & Johnson, 2011). Day (2013) notes that leader development programs typically include three aspects: individual self-management, social skills, and work facilitation.

Leader development programs have been greatly influenced by the trait and behavioral approaches of leadership theory, which historically have not included the human developmental process because of their inherent focus on training rather than development (Day et al., 2014; Petrie, 2014). Training is usually a modality that is effective in providing proven techniques to solving known challenges; yet today's complex organizational challenges

are unpredictable in nature and cannot be easily addressed through training programs alone, often requiring longer term and multidimensional approaches (Day, 2011; Day et al., 2014). The leader development model therefore appears to not take into account certain factors which significantly impact leadership: (a) dependence of leadership on followers and informal leadership throughout an organization (Clarke, 2013; Higgs, 2003; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, Carsten, 2014); (b) dependence of leadership on specific organizational and environmental contexts (Clarke, 2013); (c) dynamic and systemic nature of leadership development processes (Clarke, 2013; Yukl, 2012); and (d) the increasing realization that leadership is a relational and shared process (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016; Hillier, Day & Vance, 2006; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

There is thus a movement in leadership development scholarship away from studying leader development and more toward studying the process of leadership development over time, focusing both on the intrapersonal and interpersonal processes (Ardichvili et al., 2016; Clarke, 2013; Day, 2011; Day et al., 2014), a shift from focusing on human capital to the more collective social capital view (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016; Clarke, 2013; Petrie, 2014). Intra- and inter-personal concepts were introduced as two of the seven human intelligences by Gardner (1983) who posited the theory of multiple intelligences, noting the multiple dimensions of human intelligence as logical, linguistic, spatial, musical, kinaesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal. He further categorized these seven dimensions into three broad categories of intelligence: abstract intelligence, concrete intelligence, and social intelligence (Gardner, 1983).

Intrapersonal leadership development. Intrapersonal leadership development refers to the skills that are necessary to develop within formal and informal leaders in the organizational system, including the skills of self-awareness, self-regulation and self-motivation (Clarke, 2013).

Scholars explain that intrapersonal intelligence lies within the domain of emotional intelligence, in the broader category of social intelligence (Bar-On, 2006; Bradberry & Su, 2006), defined as “the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one’s feelings, fears and self-worth” (Chopra & Kanji, 2010, p. 1001). The understanding of the complex and important interplay between feelings and thoughts is at the core of the scholarly field of emotional intelligence (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005).

MacLean (1990) introduced the notion of a triune brain in which three different parts of the brain work simultaneously and in collaboration to understand and process feelings. The three parts are: the neocortex (thinking brain), the limbic or midbrain (emotional brain), and the reptilian brain (brain stem). Scholars contend that the emotional brain cannot function on its own without interaction with the neocortex - that in fact, emotional intelligence requires the engagement of various mental functions to: (a) perceive and identify emotions, (b) assimilate and integrate emotions into a thought process, (c) understand the emotions, and (d) manage the emotions (Chopra & Kanji, 2010; MacLean, 1990; Sparrow & Knight, 2006).

Intrapersonal intelligence is thus a part of the multitude of factors that impact emotional intelligence, including interpersonal intelligence, performance capabilities, and social capital (Chopra & Kanji, 2010). Research suggests a link between high levels of emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Sy et al., 2006). Furthermore, studies in education, business, and organizational development show strong correlations between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction (Sy et al., 2006), decision-making (Lerner, Small, & Lowenstein,

2004), job performance (Semadar, Robins, & Ferris, 2006), and teamwork within diverse settings (Von Glinow, Shapiro, & Brett, 2004).

Interpersonal leadership development. Given the changes in the global business environment, scholars advocate moving from a focus on developing human capital to developing the social capital of organizations (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016; Clarke, 2013). This would involve more focus on the development of interpersonal skills for all employees, regardless of their position, within an organization (Clarke, 2013). Interpersonal leadership development refers to the skills that are necessary in order to relate effectively with others, more specifically: “the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of others” (Chopra & Kanji, 2010, p. 1001). Thus, scholars emphasize the importance of developing leaders who have high levels of emotional intelligence (Chopra & Kanji, 2010), who understand the importance of trust and respect as foundational to the leadership process (Clarke, 2013; Day, 2000; Day, 2001; Day et al., 2014; McCallum & O’Connell, 2009), and who take into account the interplay between leadership development and the social capital tapestry of the organization (Galli & Muller-Stewens, 2012; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007).

According to Day et al. (2014), social capital differs depending on organizational processes, such as ways in which people connect (i.e., whether they mentor each other, or meet during off site networking events), ways in which people assimilate to the organizational culture (i.e., training programs, formal feedbacks) and ways in which people self identify (i.e., whether through their job position, projects, teams, learning). Thus, at the heart of interpersonal intelligence is the ability of leaders to develop authentic relationships across a

multitude of complex networks within the organization (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Day et al., 2014). The focus on developing an organization's social capital is based on the need of today's complex business world for enabling more effective teamwork and shared leadership, the view of leadership as "a more distributed, fluid construct" (Clarke, 2013, p. 137). In this way, leadership is viewed within the bigger context of relationships and the organization's collective ability and capacity to engage leaders in effective roles and business processes (Clarke, 2013). This collective organizational ability and capacity depends upon key processes that enable the effective development of leaders.

Organizational processes and leadership development. Within the complexities of today's business world, leadership development is inherently impacted and informed by the organization's systems capacity for adaptability in facing a VUCA world, defined by volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (Clarke, 2013; Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2013). As such, organizational processes need to enable innovation and adaptability (Clarke, 2013). Huxham and Vangen (2005) thus note that in its broadest sense then, leadership within a complex globalized business world can be defined as the processes and structures that enable actions and results (as cited in Clarke, 2013). The focus on leadership development is on "conditions that enable or facilitate organizational effectiveness, in contrast to *determining it*" (p. 137).

Viewing organizations as complex adaptive systems brings to light the notions of ensembles (individuals sharing specific projects or interests) and aggregates (the organizational structures that come to light when ensembles interact and innovate) whose interactions lead to self-generated, bottom-up and creative problem-solving (Clarke, 2013; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007).

This generative process is referred to as autocatalysis (Clarke, 2013; Luke, 1998; Uhl-Bien et al.,

2007). Clarke (2012, 2013) offers a model of leadership development that takes into account the system level processes and procedures that make up the culture and social system of the organization that create the organization's social capital and intelligence.

At this systems level, Clarke (2013) identifies three areas to target leadership development: network conditions, shared leadership, and organizational learning. First, enabling network conditions involves increasing the capacity of an organization to respond effectively and efficiently to complex situations through collaboration between the various ensembles. This includes targeting all formal and informal structures and processes which connect the people and allow for their communication and knowledge sharing, and ensuring that they enable behaviors that lead to creativity, collaboration and innovation (Clarke, 2013; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). It is thus important to ensure that mechanisms of knowledge sharing are embedded in such a way that creates easy and efficient access between all members (Clarke, 2013; Ensley, Hmieleski, & Pearce, 2006).

Second, enabling shared leadership includes the fostering and becoming more aware of interdependencies within the organization which allow for more efficient responses to daily and complex challenges within the social system (Clarke, 2013; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). In its essence, shared leadership is a move away from the polarity created by the paradigm of leader/follower. Instead, shared leadership invites collaboration and contribution from the collective of intelligences within the organization in order to ensure the best creative response to challenging problems (Clarke, 2013; Gronn, 2002). Viewed from this paradigm, leadership positions are not fixed (Clarke, 2013; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). Instead, individuals can step in and out of leadership roles depending on the specifics of the situation and task involved (Clarke,

2013; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). Organizational structures and processes must therefore ensure the ease of collaboration across different boundaries within the organization so that shared leadership can be possible (Clarke, 2013; Gronn, 2002; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007).

Third, enabling organizational learning is an important part of ensuring that knowledge creation within the organization is encouraged, enabled, captured and shared (Clarke, 2013). Learning within an organization is experiential and occurs at the individual, group, and organizational levels, each requiring specific processes (Clarke, 2013; Gronn, 2002; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). Crossan, Lane & White (1999) proposed 41 processes for organizational learning that can be implemented at various levels of an organization. Day et al. (2014) emphasize the importance of feedback processes such as the 360-degree feedback, self-other agreements (SOA), and self-narratives in ensuring that learning is embedded within the culture. Organizational structures and process thus need to empower everyone within an organization to be able to make sense out of their experiences, create new meaning and thus new understanding (Chiva, Grandio, and Alegre 2010; Clarke, 2013).

Emergent leadership. Scholars point to the importance of developing not only the formal leader's intrapersonal skills, but also supporting the formal leader to become a facilitator of "the conditions for spontaneous and emergent leadership" within and across the organization (Clarke, 2013, p. 141). In this way, formal leaders have the opportunity to impact seven key areas of a complex system, including:

- Autocatalysis: Leaders facilitate key interactions and provide the necessary knowledge and skills to resolve conflict and ensure innovation (Clarke, 2013; Friedrich et al., 2009).

- Shared leadership: Leaders coach and coordinate teams to ensure the emergence of self-organizing communities through building social capital and improving effective communication within all networks (Clarke, 2013).
- Systems network: Leaders continually develop their own intrapersonal skills in order to enrich all connections within the network and support increased collaboration (Clarke, 2013; Tagger & Ellis, 2007).
- Shared meaning-making: Leaders promote shared understanding by resolving tensions and working with stakeholders on upholding shared visions within the system and subsystems (Clarke, 2013; Foldy, Goldman, & Ospina, 2008).
- Information flow: Leaders identify barriers to information flow and exchange of learning and knowledge (Clarke, 2013; Friedrich et al., 2009).
- Positive tension: Leaders continually foster adaptive tension within a complex system in order to ensure the emergence of creative solutions, by offering the necessary structures and processes for identifying conflict and moving through it effectively (Clarke, 2013; Uhl-Bien, et al., 2007).
- Social capital: Leaders foster the development of social capital by increasing knowledge transfer within the network, creating shared systems of meaning-making that promote respect and trust (Clarke, 2011, 2013; Morse, 2000; Tsai, 2000).

All the above require formal and informal leaders to have the necessary intrapersonal relational skills and behaviors to strengthen social connections. Scholars (Ardichvili et al., 2016; Day, 2011) explain that while leadership development programs are the “largest expense item

in the overall training and development budget of the majority of business organizations in the United States and many other countries of the world ... organizations are dissatisfied with the outcomes and impact ... and are experimenting with new approaches” (Ardichvili et al., 2016, p. 275). In his discussion of global leadership development, Mendenhall (2013) points to a number of “unresolved problems” in the field of leadership which contribute to challenges in empirical studies, including: (a) the “definitional permissiveness and ambiguity” in the field of leadership “has created a hodgepodge of empirical findings that do not make sense when compared against each other” (p. 11); (b) the lack of “multidisciplinary thinking” that has divided the field of leadership research into “business leadership, educational leadership, political leadership, etc.” (p. 11-13); and (c) the “influence of popular views, cultural mindset” and general “zeitgeist” that “causes leadership to be an evolving concept” (p. 13). Mendenhall (2013) refers to the poignant research by Drath (1998) who illustrates that the idea of leadership, actions of leaders, and focus of leadership development programs have evolved over the years from domination to reciprocity (idea of leadership), from commanding followers to mutual meaning-making (action of leadership), and from power of the leader to interactions of the group (development of leadership). Executive coaching is often used as a tool within leadership development programs, specifically to support executives in the sense-making aspect of leadership. The following section provides a more detailed overview of the field of executive coaching and its influence on leadership development.

Executive Coaching

Originally within the purview of sportsmen and women seeking to improve their performance (Gebhardt, 2016; Kilburg, 1996), the field of coaching now includes specific niche

categories such as: academic, career, feedback, conflict resolution, development, executive, financial, group, health, high potential, knowledge, leadership, legacy, managerial, new leader, performance, life, presentation, project management, relationship, results, skill, spiritual, succession, targeted, team, transactional, transformational, virtual and workplace to address the obstacles that might prevent individuals in reaching their goals (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015). This section provides an overview of the historical development of the field of executive coaching, its definition, its theoretical learning basis, measures of its effectiveness, its theoretical foundations, competencies, and a survey of executive coaching best practices.

History. Scholars (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015; Cox, Bachkirova & Clutterbuck, 2014, Gray, 2006) relate the term 'coach' to the 16th century Kocs village in northern Hungary wherein the Koczi (the carriage) was first invented "to carry passengers through the difficult terrain, protecting them during their trip" (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015, p. 7). The University of Oxford is regarded as the first to coin the term "coach" in the early 1800's to refer to the tutors who supported students in reaching their academic goals (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015; Cox et al., 2014). While scholars note that perhaps "coaching as a one to one learning conversation has existed since the dawn of civilization" (Bresser & Wilson, 2016, p. 13), Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2015) contend that the integration of coaching within the business field is linked to scholarship in the 1930s to 1970s, mainly through the work of Gorby (1937) in the context of business sales, Lewis (1947), Mace (1950), Mold (1951), Parkes (1955), and Merrill & Marting (1958) in the context of management, Werner Erhard (1975) in the context of the Erhard Seminars Training (est) personal development programs, and Tim Gallwey (1974) in the context of sports. In the early to mid part of the 20th century, coaching was used

as a way to onboard new recruits where the coach played the role of an apprentice by providing demonstration, observation and feedback (Cox et al., 2014).

It is widely believed that the field of sports coaching, especially with the publication of Tim Gallwey's *The Inner Game of Tennis* (1974), "revolutionized the executive coaching field by suggesting that expertise as a manager is often a handicap to being an effective coach, because instead of facilitating coachees to learn from their experiences and reach their own conclusions, management expertise tends to encourage the coach to 'tell' the 'trainee' how to do it" (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015, p. 8). Thus, the coaching field transitioned from the coach needing to have expert knowledge of the task, to the coach bringing expertise in the coaching process (Cox et al., 2014). This led the way to coaching becoming part of the corporate executive development process in the 1980s with the start of Coach University for training coaches and later the International Coach Federation for setting credentialing standards (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015).

Aside from the U.K.-based Tavistock Institute's efforts on organizational role analysis in the 1960's (Newton, Long & Sieers, 2006; Stokes & Jolly, 2014), scholars explain that until the mid-1980's what was considered coaching was typically provided by internal teams related to HR departments or external trusted advisers related to specific business functions such as accounting or marketing (Stokes & Jolly, 2014). The next few decades witnessed a burgeoning of the field of executive coaching as a result of global changes in social and economic tides. As Stokes and Jolly (2014) explain, these changes included: (a) changing view of authority figures and the demand for more equal representation of all ethnicities in top leadership (Drucker, 1993); (b) increasing demand by employees to be heard (Hirschhorn, 1997); (c) increasing

erosion of trust between senior executives and the traditions of corporate loyalty and reward (Krantz, 1998); (d) expansion of HR function to address the increasing demands to develop all employees (Tichy, 2004); (e) erosion of hierarchical behemoth corporations led to meritocracy as the focus of success instead of seniority/longevity, thus strengthening the executive professional development industry (Frey & Stitzer, 2002); and (f) increased opportunities for rise of managers from more diverse ethnic and educational backgrounds, increased competition and led to senior leadership working more as compared to working less during prior decades (Reeves, 2001). Scholars note the contributions of key scholar/practitioners who helped strengthen the presence of executive coaching worldwide, including Warren Bennis, Tim Gallwey and Marshall Goldsmith (Goldsmith, Lyons, & Freas, 2000; Stokes & Jolly, 2014). Trade associations such as the International Coaching Federation, the Worldwide Association of Business Coaches, and the Association for professional Executive Coaching and Supervision contributed to the professionalization of executive coaching to meet the increasing demands of executive development (Stokes & Jolly, 2014).

Definition: Coaching is often referred to as a helping relationship used by organizations to provide their executives with the necessary skillset to manage change and reach their performance goals (Grant, 2014; Kilburg, 1996). Cox et al. (2014) contend that this definition might confuse coaching with other helping professions such as the mentoring, consulting or counseling fields. They thus suggest the definition that coaching “is a human development process that involves structured, focused interaction and the use of appropriate strategies, tools and techniques to promote desirable and sustainable change for the benefit of the coachee and potentially for other stakeholders” (p. 1). Coaching is also referred to as formal

ongoing conversations over a particular span of time that aim to strengthen specific skills, develop mental perspectives and facilitate growth in the attainment of defined performance goals in a variety of fields (Barrett, 2014; De Haan & Nieb, 2015; Linder-Pelz & Hall, 2008; Outhwaite & Bettridge, 2009; Page & Hann, 2014).

In organizational settings, coaching is also viewed as an intervention modality with demonstrated positive results in self-reports of goal attainment, self-efficacy, social skills, and team performance (De Haan & Nieb, 2015). The characteristics of coaching that are thought to contribute to such positive results include the presence of a supportive and confidential relationship which is shown to reduce stress and anxiety, the focus on goal setting which is shown to enhance self efficacy, and the systemic engagement and follow-through which is shown to build resilience, emotional self-regulation, and job satisfaction (Baumeister, Gailliot, DeWall, & Oaten, 2006; Grant, 2014). The term executive coaching is often used within the organizational context to refer to the act of supporting individuals with “significant responsibility for the current and future success of an organization and who have the potential to develop and change” (Stokes & Jolly (2014, p. 244) in ways that increase their self awareness for leadership effectiveness (Cox et al., 2014; Fitzgerald & Berger, 2002; Kilburg, 2000).

Stokes & Jolly (2014) define executive coaching as “a form of personal learning and development consultation provided by someone external to the organization who focuses on improving an individual’s performance in the quintessentially executive role of balancing the forces of cooperation and competition in an organization” (p. 244). This definition sets executive coaching apart from mentoring which is often more informal, and internal coaching which is typically provided by the individual’s supervisor or manager. Executive coaching is thus

regarded as a “professional and confidential partnership relationship between a senior executive and coach,” with the following key characteristics: ongoing and regular meetings, focused on improving leadership skills, including some form of assessment and feedback of current abilities, often challenging and supporting the executive to build relational strength and gain personal maturity and wisdom (Stokes & Jolly, 2014, p. 245). Executive coaching includes both a focus on work challenges, and a focus on organization development issues (Gebhardt, 2016; Kilburg & Levinson, 2008).

Overall, scholars note that providing a single definition for the field of executive coaching is proving challenging given both its infancy as a profession and its multidisciplinary perspective (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015; Coutu & Kauffman, 2009; Ennis, Goodman, Otto, & Stern, 2008; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001). For example, while many scholars contend that executive coaching is not mentoring (Gray, 2006; Stokes & Jolly, 2009) or psychotherapy (Hart et al., 2001; McKenna & Davis, 2009), and that it is no longer focused on poor/remedial performers (Stokes & Jolly, 2009) or the executive’s personal needs (Ennis et al., 2008; Stern 2004), there are many overlaps with unclear boundaries and distinctions (Passmore, 2007). As such, Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2015) contend that most definitions of executive coaching define the coaching *process*, whereas “coaching is only a *methodology* for creating and sustaining purposeful positive change and the way that such a methodology is applied and the reasons for using it varies considerably” (p. 14).

Scholars differentiate executive coaching from other forms of coaching that organizations provide. These differentiating factors include: (a) the client is usually the organization and not the executive, (b) there is a general focus on supporting the individual

executive in supporting the organization's vision and objectives, (c) there is generally a need to inform the executive's boss about the coaching progress, (d) there is a low priority placed on the executive's personal life, and e) the coaching fees are paid by the organization (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015; Stokes & Jolly, 2014).

Executive coaching competencies. Executive coaches reflect an array of backgrounds and skills, including consultants, executives, managers, teachers, salespeople, social workers, psychologists or counselors, with an array of credentials and trainings (Grant & Zackon, 2004). Scholars (Ennis et al, 2008) emphasize the importance of executive coaches having expertise in business and psychology (Stern, 2004), with specific competencies in psychology, business, organizational dynamics, and coaching principles, in addition to personal attributes such as "mature self confidence, positive energy, assertiveness, interpersonal sensitivity, openness and flexibility, goal orientation, partnering and influence, continuous learning and development, and integrity (as cited in Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015, p. 32).

The International Coach Federation establishes the four clusters of Coach Knowledge Assessment (CKA) which run across all coaching specialties, which include: (a) foundation setting (ethical guidelines, coaching agreement); (b) relationship co-creation (trust, intimacy, coaching presence); (c) effective communication (deep active listening and questioning, direct communication); and (d) learning facilitation (awareness, actions, goals, progress and accountability). Brotman et al. (1998) note that, at its core, executive coaching is a consultative competency, though "business executives, MBAs, attorneys, human resource specialists, sports coaches, and teachers, as well as psychologists, all claim to have the necessary competencies and proven approaches to address organizational needs for leadership development" (p. 40).

Brotman et al. (1998) explain that their decades long experiences with coaching of Fortune 100 executives reveals that “executives have tremendous difficulty achieving and sustaining behavior change ... [because] this resistance or barrier is primarily psychological ... [and that] lasting behavior change is frustrated, eluded, and resisted by a confluence of habitual scripts, core misperceptions, unconscious defenses, and an individual’s subjectivity and internal dialogue” (p. 43).

As such, Brotman et al. (1998) emphasize the importance of the following skills that an executive coach must bring forth: (a) “identify habitual scripts and learn how the adverse elements of these scripts erode leadership effectiveness;” (b) “reveal truth and fresh insights about what drives the executive;” (c) “convert insights into observable behavior change;” d) “distinguish between higher level, healthy defenses and those that are more primitive and damaging to both the self and others;” and e) “objectify the executive’s subjective reality and internal dialogue by anchoring them in candor and a self actualization pattern congruent with business objectives and organizational priorities as well as with an executive’s aspirations” (p. 43). Thus, the inability of the executive coach to focus on such “intrapsychic factors produces a shallow result, a recapitulation of the obvious with minimal guidance for behavioral change” (p. 43). As such, Brotman et al. (1998) list the following 12 executive coaching core competencies that support effective behavior change in executive leaders: (a) “approachability,” (b) “comfort around top management,” (c) “Compassion,” (d) “Creativity,” (e) “Customer focus,” (f) “integrity and trust,” (g) “intellectual horsepower,” (h) “interpersonal savvy,” (i) “listening,” (j) “dealing with paradox,” (k) “political savvy,” and (l) “self knowledge” (p. 43).

Executive coaching effectiveness. Increasingly, organizations are offering executive coaching to their employees as a mechanism for improving earning (Tamir & Finfer, 2016; Truijen & van Woerkom, 2008), leadership development (Avolio & Gardner, 2005) and aiding organizational change (Hunt & Weintraub, 2007; King & Wright, 2007; Stober, 2008). Studies continue to show the positive results of coaching in areas such as leadership (Correia, Santos & Passmore, 2016), management performance (Correrira et al., 2016; Smither et al., 2003), and workplace wellness (Spence, Cavanagh & Grant, 2008). Moreover, research shows the benefits of executive coaching as it compares to peer coaching or no coaching at all (Peterson, 2011; Tamir & Finfer, 2016), with outcomes being impacted by the level of motivation exerted by the executive/client (De Haan et al., 2016; Peterson, 2011); the quality of coach-coachee relationship (Baron & Morin, 2010; McKenna & Davis, 2009; De Haan et al., 2016); and clearly explicating coaching goals and expectations (Passmore, 2008; Peterson, 2011).

Despite these positive reports, however, scholars contend that it is challenging to make conclusive remarks on the impact of executive coaching (Tamir & Finfer, 2016), because of the multiplicity of definitions, methodologies and success criteria (Greif, 2007; Passmore & Fillery-Travis, Peterson, 2011; Tamir & Finfer, 2016), lack of agreement on the definition of coaching, no single standardized competency model of coaching, varying qualities of coach expertise, and the distinction between individual versus organizational effectiveness (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015; Kearns, 2006). Moreover, Natale and Diamante (2005) note “there is no clear definition of the outcomes or the process of executive coaching” (as cited in Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015, p. 81), or a way to take into account other influences such as the coach’s

abilities, the coach selection process, the impediments and enablers of the coaching process, whether the coach is internal or external, and the organization's support of coaching (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015; Carey et al., 2011).

Furthermore, what makes the measurement of outcomes even more challenging is the complexity of human behavior and the change process. For example, scholars contend that changing human behavior is unpredictable, non-linear and takes time (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015; Kegan & Lahey, 2009; Laske, 2004). Armstrong (2007) explains that executive coaching goes beyond pragmatic business or behavioral results, to being a "cultural phenomenon ... filling a deeply felt need in the unconscious lives of people in organizations ... for... hearth, centring and a sanctuary for self focus " (p. 30). Thus, Armstrong (2007) points to the inherent subversive nature of executive coaching which constantly evades the organization's need for controlling the structure, process and outcomes.

The impetus to drive for evidence-based practices of coaching is related to the drive for providing best practices for design, delivery and evaluation of coaching in order to professionalize the field, and address the what, how, why and when questions (Abbott et al., 2006; Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015; Drake, 2008). According to Drake (2008), best evidence based practices are established through the dynamic interactions between the coach/client relational dynamics and the coach's four knowledge domains (personal, contextual, professional and foundational). According to extensive review that Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2015) conducted in reviewing the outcomes research on executive coaching, they highlight the importance of the personality and ability assessment inventories that provide a glimpse of before and after context of executive coaching.

Assessments. Personality and psychometric assessments are cited as useful at the start of coaching engagements to provide a somewhat objective mechanism for the executive client to gain a deeper understanding of how they behave and how they are being perceived by their colleagues. Their use, however, is only effective if the coach has in depth knowledge of how to use the tool and how best to utilize the results. Utilizing pre and post assessments supports the measurement of effectiveness, with scholars (Wise & Voss, 2002) categorizing them into four areas: (a) self reported satisfaction assessments, (b) self and other reported improvement assessments, (c) business impact studies, and (d) return on investment (ROI) studies.

Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2015) list the following assessments as being used in executive coaching engagements (Anderson, 2002; Dawdy, 2004; DeLuca, 2008; Diedrich, 1996; Kombarakaran et al., 2008; Kiel et al., 1996; Koonce 2010; Mansi, 2007; Tobias, 1996):

- 360 feedback (ex: Hay/McBer, Nordli, Wilson Associates): A confidential and anonymous feedback mechanism from managers, peers and direct reports.
- 16PF Adjective Checklist (ACL): A multi purpose instrument for personality assessment
- Atkins' 2002 Life Orientation Survey (LIFO): An assessment to help people identify their strengths in giving (supporting), taking (controlling), holding (conserving) and dealing (adapting).
- Burke-Litwin Model of Organizational Performance and Change: A model of organizational change that depicts and rank orders the drivers of change.
- California Personality/Psychological Inventory: A self-reported non-clinical personality inventory of interpersonal and social interactions.

- Denison Leadership Development Survey: A 360 instrument that measures 12 leadership behaviors and benchmarks to other leaders.
- Element B: Measures interpersonal behavior in three areas of control, inclusion and openness.
- FIRO-B: A 54-item assessment that measures interpersonal needs based on inclusion, control and affection.
- Gibb's 1978 TORI self diagnosis tool: A scale to measure trust, openness, realization and interdependence (TORI).
- Hogan Development Survey (HDS): Assesses dark side personality traits that arise during times of stress.
- Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI): Assesses normal personality qualities when people are operating at their best.
- Human Synergistic's Life Styles Inventory: An assessment tool on relationship between personal, management and leadership style effectiveness.
- Learning Styles Inventory (LSI): Assesses a personal particular type of preferred learning style (visual, auditory, kinesthetic).
- Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI): Assesses adult personality and psychopathology.
- Myers-Briggs Type Inventory (MBTI): A personality inventory to assess varying ways people prefer to perceive and judge information.

- NEO-PI-R: A measure of the five aspects of personality (neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, conscientiousness).
- People Map Questionnaire: An assessment to indicate four personality types: leader, people, free spirit and task.
- Strength Deployment Inventory: Identifies drivers of behavior during times of peace and conflict.
- Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument: Identifies varying conflict-handling styles which impact interpersonal and group dynamics.
- Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale: Assesses adult cognitive abilities.
- Wagner Enneagram Personality Style Scales (WEPSS): Measures positive and negative personality dimensions in nine styles.
- Wilson Learning Center's Social Style Matrix: Measures relationship building versatility.
- Wonderlic Personnel Test: Measures cognitive ability and aptitude.

Executive coaching outcomes studies: Outcome studies on the benefits and effectiveness of executive coaching are generally based on surveys, controlled and uncontrolled trials and process quality (MacKie, 2007) and mainly utilize both qualitative and quantitative methods (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015). Although the empirical outcomes research on executive coaching effectiveness on the individual and business is not extensive (Stokes & Jolly, 2009), Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2015) reviewed 81 outcomes studies published between 1937 and 2012, in order to examine the coaching intervention (how), the evaluation methodology (what), and the types of outcomes. Out of all the studies reviewed, only Grant

(2002) focuses on comparing the outcomes of a cognitive, behavioral and cognitive behavioral approach, 48 out of the 81 studies (59%) do not clearly define the executive coaching methodology that was studied, eight out of the 81 studies (10%) utilize a cognitive behavioral approach, five out of the 81 studies (6%) utilize an emotional intelligence framework, and four out of the 81 studies (5%) utilize the GROW model (Athanasopoulou and Dopson, 2015). Across all the studies, regardless of the type of intervention and the type of evaluation, all studies reported a positive impact on the individual and the organization (Athanasopoulou and Dopson, 2015). While few organizations measure the ROI of executive coaching programs, Grant & Jackson (2004) found that only 31.8% of coaches use satisfaction surveys often, and that over 55% of coaches use informal client feedback to measure their coaching effectiveness.

Return on investment (ROI) of executive coaching. In regards to ROI studies, Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2015) identified five out of 81 studies: Feggetter (2007) conclude that benefits outweigh costs without providing a specific percentage; Kearns (2006) measure a 200% ROI 6 months post intervention with an estimated 801% ROI in three years; McGovern et al. (2001) calculate ROI at 5.7 times the coaching investment; Parker-Wilkins (2006) measured a 689% ROI; and Phillips (2007) measured a 221% ROI. While the five studies show impressive ROI results, Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2015) note the variation and difficulty inherent in calculating an ROI.

There are many factors within a workplace that impact the ROI of any coaching intervention. While for some positions, such as sales, it might be easy to track the increase in sales as a result of coaching, Fairhurst (2007) note the challenges inherent in measuring the increase in revenue when coaching senior level executives “who succeed through other people”

(as cited in Athanasopoulou and Dopson, 2015, p. 101). Researchers (Grant, Cavanagh, Spence, Lakota, & Yu, 2012) caution against the reliance on ROI to measure coaching effectiveness, suggesting that if increase in revenue is a focus of a coaching intervention it might increase stress and anxiety levels. In addition, Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2015) argue against the use of ROI as the measure of coaching effectiveness given the unique characteristics that define a specific coach-client-organization trio engagement, the lack of ability to measure long terms effects of an executive coaching engagement, and the impact of factors such as: “organizational support in the EC intervention, the coach’s competence, the coachee’s willingness to be coached, and the business environment/competition (internal and external) as well as the pressure for a quick positive EC outcome, organizational politics, and having available resources (time, funding, etc.) for completing an effective and successful coaching engagement” (p.102).

Intangible benefits of executive coaching. Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2015) conclude that the “intangible effects of EC can be as important (or more) as the tangible” and that executive coaching “inherently focuses on soft factors” that are challenging to measure in an objective manner (p. 102). They identified a list of 48 intangible benefits based on their review of executive coaching research articles. These include improvements on relationships at work with colleagues and teams, to improved insights and strategic thinking, to improved self efficacy and planning skills, to improved self awareness and behavioral management to increase in self worth and improved management of emotions. In addition, they highlight five key studies that point to unanticipated outcomes of executive coaching. These include: (a) reduction of anxiety and stress in a coaching group compared to the control group (Gyllensten & Palmer, 2005); (b) executive coaching participants relate their business success to the higher

levels of insights they received in their coaching sessions (de Haan et al., 2010); (c) coachees regard business results as a less important result of the coaching engagement than those who paid for the coaching (Leedham, 2005); and (d) reporting of negative/conflicting outcomes (Dagley, 2006; Polsfuss & Ardichvili, 2008).

Future research directions. Based on their review of 81 empirical studies on executive coaching best practices, Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2015) offer the following reflections on outcomes research: (a) although case studies may offer a good way of analyzing the effectiveness of executive coaching -- about 26% of the studies utilized a form of organizational case study and 21% focused on an individual case study – researchers often report on studies with positive results, and those results are often based on the perspective of the consultants involved; (b) most executive coaching outcomes research utilize the subjective perceptions of either the coaching client or the coach or the changes in perceived job performance; (c) many executive coaching outcomes research studies utilize self-reporting by the client, raising concern about the over or under estimates of positive results; (d) most executive coaching outcome research studies do not utilize “methodological triangulation” as a way to confirm findings – such as using a third method to measure outcomes; and (e) though randomized controlled studies are the least frequent method of choice for executive coaching outcomes research, it “holds most promise” for conducting robust evidence based research (p. 106). Scholars (Clegg et al., 2005) note a number of challenges for the future viability of the field, including: (a) standardizing coaching practice while maintaining its flexible process, (b) clarifying the benefits of executive coaching to coaching practitioners, and (c) supporting the

establishment of “more robust and durable coaching businesses” (as cited in Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015, p. 108).

Executive coaching and leadership development. While there is a dearth of empirical research on the executive coaching impact on leadership development, the few existing studies are promising. Specifically, these studies reveal that executive coaching supplements key areas in leadership development programs, such as: (a) enhancing skills learning and practice, (b) providing a relevant job-related focus, (c) providing the longer term immersion that is required for transformational learning, and (d) providing an individualized process based on the key learning style of the participant (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015; Eggers & Clark; 2000). The empirical studies include the Sue-Chan and Latham (2004) study on external coaching effectiveness within an MBA program which revealed higher results in positive team behaviors, higher perceived credibility of the coach versus peers, and high overall satisfaction by those who had a coach versus those who did not; the Hooijberg and Lane (2009) study of managers in an executive education program highlighted the effectiveness of the coach creating a supportive and open atmosphere of trust; and the Goldsmith (2009) study which highlighted the importance of the participant’s commitment and followup as key to their success.

Theoretical framework. Scholars observe that the field of executive coaching appears to be more of a practice area than one with a solid theoretical framework (Lowman, 2005), while pointing to the growing body of executive coaching scholarly literature in three main disciplines: psychology, management, training (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001), sports (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015), learning theory (Bachkirova, 2014; Nicolaidis & Marsick, 2016), adult development (Kegan & Lahey, 2009), and the “evolving new learning capacity

‘presencing’ ... the capacity for sensing, embodying, and enacting emerging futures” (Scharmer, 2000, p. 2). The focus of coaching is typically either on performance improvement or personal growth (Bluckert, 2005), with theoretical influences arising from a diversity of fields including philosophy, mindfulness, existential, psychological, and psychotherapeutic, among others (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015; Bachkirova et al., 2014).

Learning Theory. Given the inherent learning focus that is part of the executive coaching process, the principles of adult learning theory, experiential learning, and transformative learning “underpin all coaching practice” regardless of the specific coaching methodology (Bachkirova et al., 2014, p. 6). In addition, the adult psychological development process plays a key role in supporting executives to progress through the trajectory from the social mind, to the self authoring mind, to the self-transcending mind (Kegan & Lahey, 2009). Effective coaching is thus grounded in not only the theoretical framework of reflection and learning – a sensemaking activity and process that enhances the executive learning process (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015; Du Toit, 2007; Witherspoon & White, 1996), but also developing the cognitive ability for sensing emerging opportunities (Arthur, 1996, 2000; Johansen, 2012; Scharmer, 2001).

Scholars note three levels of learning as part of the executive coaching process: (a) tactical problem solving, (b) leadership development, and (c) the skill of learning how to learn (Ennis et al., 2008; Witherspoon & White, 1996). The third level is regarded as an “often overlooked level of development of skills and habits of self reflection that ensure ongoing learning after the executive coaching ends” (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015, p. 36). Scholars contend, however, that these learning theories were developed for adult learning in “an industrial era to suit ‘standardized’ circumstances using ‘expert’ solutions” (Nicolaidis &

Marsick, 2016). Today's VUCA conditions are adding layers of complexity to the ways in which adults learn and to the context wherein their learnings take place, thus demanding the development of "bigger minds" to enable problem solving in increasingly complex environments (p. 10). To be effective, therefore, learning theories must address two executive educational challenges: (a) developing the learning frameworks to deliver "agile and continuous learning," and (b) developing the "underlying capacity that both adult educators and learners need to accomplish such tasks" (p. 9).

Psychological theory. Executive coaches draw upon a number of psychological theoretical frameworks as detailed below, including: psychodynamics (Gray, 2006; Lee, 2014; Peltier, 2001), cognitive behavioral (Bandura, 1997; Beck, 1976; Ellis, 1971; Neenan, 2008), relational emotive behavior therapy (Anderson, 2002; Ellis, 1971, 1972, 1993, 1994; Kirby, 1993; Sherin & Caiger, 2004), mindfulness (Collard & Walsh, 2008); solution focused (Cavanagh & Grant, 2014), person centered (Joseph, 2014), gestalt (Bluckert, 2014), existential (Berg & Karlsen, 2007; Peltier, 2010; Spinelli, 2014), ontological (Sieler, 2014); narrative (Drake, 2014), psychological (Bachkirova, 2014), transpersonal (Rowan, 2014), positive psychology (Boniwell, Kauffman, & Silberman, 2014), transactional (Berne, 1964; Harris, 1969), and neurolinguistic programming (as cited in Bachkirova et al., 2014).

Psychodynamic approach to coaching. Rooted in the works of Sigmund Freud (1922) and Carl Jung (1956), the field of psychodynamics emphasizes the impact of the unconscious realm on behavior (Lee, 2014). Psychodynamics is an evolving field of theory and practice, with validations from neuroscience research about how unconscious processes impact emotional development (Lee, 2014; Siegel, 2010). Psychodynamic theory draws upon conflict theory (the

unconscious defense or self protective dynamics that occur when individuals are facing conflict), and object relations theory (patterns developed in childhood caretaking experiences which are now reflected onto key relationships in adult life) to support clients in enhancing their present day relationship challenges that are impacting success (Kilburg, 2004).

A psychodynamic approach to coaching includes four key assumptions: (a) the impact of the unconscious on human behavior, (b) the impact of past experiences on human behavior, (c) the inner conflicts people usually have in terms of their beliefs, actions and feelings, and (d) the unconscious communication that typically occurs between individuals (Lee, 2014). Therefore the key features of a psychodynamic approach to coaching include: (a) the importance of creating a safe holding environment where clients are invited to voice their thoughts and feelings (Lee, 2014; Winnicott, 1965); (b) the importance of supporting clients to regulate their emotions by reviewing their source in early childhood; (c) the importance of supporting the client to recognize their various defense mechanism (denial, projection, repression, intellectualization) in their unconscious attempt to regulate their emotions (Lee, 2014); and (d) the realization that engaging in transference and counter-transference occurs as a sign of unconscious patterns (Lee, 2014).

Cognitive behavioral approach to coaching (CBC). The array of approaches that are under the umbrella of CBC include: cognitive behavioral, rational emotive behavioral, multimodal, mindfulness, problem and solution-focused (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015). CBC approaches mainly focus on the impact of thoughts on actions and emotions, which contribute to stress and performance (Williams, Palmer & Edgerton, 2014). Based on the theoretical work of Beck (1976), Ellis (1971), and classic philosophers of stoicism Epictetus and

Marcus Aurelius (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015), CBC approaches contend that interpretations of an external event have more impact on an individual's emotions and behaviors than the actual event (Gray, 2006; Neenan, 2008). Thus, CBC approaches draw upon psychological and practical approaches to: (a) facilitate client's ability to reach goals; (b) facilitate client's awareness of underlying beliefs, assumptions and emotions that prevent them from attaining the goals; (c) provide clients with effective tools for thinking and behaving; (d) develop the client's inner capacity, resilience and motivation toward activating their choices; and (e) enable the client to coach themselves (Williams, Palmer & Edgerton, 2014).

Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (another form of CBC) is utilized to support executive in identifying typical unhelpful beliefs that impact performance and stress. These include: (a) thoughts that are demanding in nature, (b) thoughts that over emphasize negativity, (c) thoughts that reveal low tolerance, and (d) thoughts that are self minimizing (Palmer & Gyllensten, 2008). Multimodal (another form of CBC) is utilized to take into account seven personality dimensions, including behavior, emotions, sensing, imagining, cognitive, relational, and biological (Richards, 1999). Mindfulness coaching (another form of CBC) focuses on reducing suffering caused by a variety of thoughts through mindfulness practices such as non-judgment, acceptance, trust and non-striving (Collard & Walsh, 2008).

Solution-focused (SF) approach is another form of CBC that is solution-focused by collaborating with the client to design an ideal future state and develop a thinking and action pathway toward reaching their desire goal (Cavanagh & Grant, 2014). Advocates (O'Connell, 1998) note the often counter-productive side effects of reviewing past actions/behaviors, suggesting that "meanings are actively constructed in dialogue rather than simply given to us in

experience” (as cited in Cavanagh & Grant, 2014, p. 51). Based on therapeutic work of Gregory Bateson and John Wicklund at the Mental Research Institute of Palo Alto (Jackson & McKergow, 2007), SF theorists let go of questioning that focused on the root causes of client problems and instead focused on actions needed to build desired solutions. SF theorists thus view the client as fully capable, resourceful and capable (Berg & Szabo, 2005). Key assumptions include: people’s inherent competence and autonomy, their need to change and take action, and working in collaboration with the client without judgment. The key challenges for utilizing the SF-based coaching approach is the commitment that the coach needs to make in truly believing that the client is capable and whole, and the commitment that the client needs to make in clearly envisioning their desired goal (Horvath & Symonds, 1991). As such, SF-based coaching approaches require coaches to practice patience and a deep regard for meeting clients where they are, in order to take incremental steps forward (Cavanagh & Grant, 2014).

Person centered approach to coaching. Rooted in the humanistic work of Carl Rogers (1951), the person-centered approach is based on the philosophy that the client is the true expert, as opposed to behavioral or psychoanalytic approaches which place expertise within the therapist (Gray, 2006; Joseph, 2014). The approach honors the human biological tendency toward actualization (Rogers, 1959) and the necessity of key environmental nutrients to support this adaptive self organizing journey (Cornelius-White, 2007). Thus, the person centered approach is highly aligned with self determination theory (SDT) which “views the person as an active growth oriented organism attempting to actualize his or her potentialities within the environment in which he or she functions” (Joseph, 2014, p. 66). The person centered approach revolves around three intertwined principles of self actualizing tendency,

relational helping, and positive psychology (Joseph & Murphy, 2013). Thus, specific practices lie at the intersection of these three areas. Its relational aspect focuses on the coach's non-directive style which places a high unconditional positive regard toward the client thus enabling the strengthening of the client's self determination. Non-directive approach allows the client to take the lead in setting the direction of the session (Brodley, 2005).

Existential approach to coaching. This descriptively focused inquiry-based style of coaching is rooted in the works of Greek philosophers, and 20th century German (Martin Heidegger), Danish (Soren Aabye Kierkegaard), and French (Jean-Paul Sartre, Simone de Beauvoir, Albert Camus) philosophers who examined life's questions about meaning (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015), and developed further by American therapist Rollo May (1994). At the heart of this approach is supporting the clients in dealing with the challenges they are facing which are disturbing their sense of the world or worldview. The existential approach focuses on three the key principles of relatedness, uncertainty and existential anxiety as a way to explore human experience (Spinelli, 2014). First, relatedness posits that "all human beings are always beings-in-relation in that we express ourselves through, and are shaped by, an inter-relational grounding or context" (p. 91-92). Yet, the ways in which we interpret the world create the illusion of separateness (Spinelli, 2005, 2014). Thus existential theory challenges the Western notions of individuality and the idea that organizations exist as separate from their constituents and environments (Valle & King, 1978; Spinelli, 2014). Second, in terms of uncertainty, existential theory posits that within all the structures and experiences that give meaning to our lives, there is an indisputable variable of "inescapable uncertainty or incompleteness in any and all our interpretative reflections on or about self, others and the

world in general” (Spinelli, 2014, p. 92). This existential uncertainty makes it impossible for individuals to have complete knowing or certainty about anything. And third, existential theory posits that because of this inherent uncertainty, we are always in a state of existential anxiety, “the uneasy experience accompanying the awareness of the ultimate incompleteness or openness of all our reflective interpretations” (Spinelli, 2014, p. 93).

Thus, instead of being a source of negativity, existential approach to coaching aims to create a sense of aliveness and stimulation in the knowing that our aliveness is a source of all creativity (Spinelli, 2014). Existential coaching, therefore, focuses on supporting the client to understand their concerns within their worldview -- in terms of their “beliefs, values, attitudes, assumptions, affects, feelings and behaviors that make up, maintain and identify a person’s or organization’s way of being” (Spinelli, 2014). In this type of coaching, there is a requirement for the coach to know their own worldview and not allow it to bias their interactions with the client. A worldview typically includes a range of polarities “such as good/bad; acceptance/rejection; trust/suspicion/control/letting go/ risk/security; action/stasis; reason/intuition; intellect/emotion; and attachment/separation” (Spinelli, 2014, p. 95). The role of the coach is to support clients in understanding the conflicts that they are experiencing as they shift the polarities of their worldview and clarify the unique meanings they are bringing to their experiences (Spinelli, 2014).

As Spinelli (2014) explains, existential coaches have a dual aim of: (a) being *with* their client (by providing complete respect, non judgment and acceptance of the client’s worldview; and (b) being *for* their clients (by being willing to challenge the client’s understanding of their own worldview). Overall, existential coaches can utilize any coaching technique that allows

them to explore the client's worldview as long as they let go of the assumption of superiority and set aside any agenda to change the client. Such coaching practices are utilized by a small percentage of coaches who have the right training, and is showing promising results in decreasing workplace stress (Krum, 2012; Spinelli, 2014). Clients have also shown increasing ability to manage complexity, anxiety and ambiguity through (Spinelli, 2014).

Ontological approach to coaching. The ontological approach, developed by Sieler (2003, 2007, 2012) examines the human way of being, and is rooted in phenomenological analysis (Heidegger, 1999), hermeneutics (Gadamer, 1994), biology of cognition (Maturana & Varela, 1987), philosophy of language (Wittgenstein (1958), body-based philosophy (Dewey, 1929; Merleau-Ponty, 1962), and the integrative field of human observer (Sieler, 2003, 2007, 2012). Though there is a dearth of peer-reviewed articles on the topic, ontological coaching is based on seven premises, including: (a) coaching seeks to impact change in the structure of the nervous system; (b) humans reside within the inter-related domains of emotions, language and body which informs their way of being; (c) the inter-related domains of emotions, language and body impacts what they perceive and how they behave; (d) humans experience the world in self-referencing ways; (e) humans are relational and conversational; (f) change occurs when habitual ways of thinking and perceiving the world are disturbed thus impacting change in the inter-related domains of language, body, emotions; and (g) humans are biological and cultural beings (Sieler, 2014). Thus, a person's way of being fundamentally impacts the ways in which they learn, change, behave, function and communicate in life (Sieler, 2014).

The ontological approach to coaching aims to transform the client's way of being by supporting them in gaining a deeper perspective of themselves in relations to the world, in

relating more effectively with others, and in their conceptions of their future goals and dreams. A person's way of being is defined as the "dynamic interplay between language, emotions and body" (Sieler, 2014, p. 105). Thus a coach's focus is to catalyze change through respectful and constructive agitation of the client, enabling them to generate new ways of perceiving and behaving in the world in support of their own goals (Sieler, 2014). Ontological coaching claims that human beings are more than their cognition, and that effective learning and change must take into account the "explicit integration of language, emotions, and body" (p. 108).

Narrative approach to coaching. This approach to coaching is based on an experiential approach which allows clients to gain awareness of the underlying narratives and assumptions driving their lives through the "movement from text (narrative structure) to context (narrative practices) to subtext (narrative psychology)" (p. 118). Informed by narrative studies (Czarniawska, 2004), narrative therapy (White & Epston, 1990), and narrative design (Drake, 2012), the narrative approach to coaching draws upon narrative psychology, narrative structure and the dynamics of the narrative field to support clients in "connecting mindsets, behaviors and environments" (Drake, 2014, p. 117). This perspective views individual stories as being informed by the "forces of collective and cultural narratives" and thus amenable platforms for catalyzing change (p. 117). Inherent at the nexus of change is the tension between the "socially acceptable and functional (Me) and embodying identities that are personally authentic and flourishing (I)" (p. 118). Thus narrative coaching approaches support the client in "renegotiating the relationship between their sense of self and their stories, their internal experience and their external narratives, and their narrative patterns and their narrative desires" (p. 118).

Narrative coaching also draws upon a number of frameworks, including: (a) rites of passage systems change, (b) Jungian psychology of personal and collective unconscious, (c) attachment theory, (d) somatics, (e) mindfulness, and (f) power relations. The core assumptions of narrative coaching are that individuals gain liberation by reconfiguring the stories they tell themselves, and these reconfigurations impact their positioning in the external world (Davies & Harre, 1990; Hermans, 2004). Thus narrative coaching supports clients in more fully and authentically expressing their stories with full agency, enactment and embodiment (Drake, 2014). Listening is a core part of this method of coaching, a deep focus on hearing the parts of a client's story – verbally expressed or non-verbally expressed - that can be challenged and redefined. In terms of narrative coaching, such deep listening is referred to as the “third ear ... based in a non-judgmental presence, an engaged mindfulness and multilayered attention to what emerges in conversation” (Drake, 2014, p. 120). Thus, narrative coaching is an invitation to the client to their own power in constructing their stories.

Narrative coaching is rooted in a human-centered philosophy and eschews linear development and a focus on behavior change. Instead, narrative coaching places a strong emphasis on the coach-client relationship and the power of the emerging stories. As Drake (2014) explains, at the core of narrative coaching is a four-phase process: (a) identity is situated: supporting the client to remain in the present moment by narrating their story and the coaches to nonjudgmentally witness the narration before trying to offer suggestions for change (Goscolo & Betrando, 1992; Gallwey, 2009); (b) discourse is powerful: supporting the client to explore the underlying assumptions of their *available* stories and their choice of languaging, thus supporting them in exploring and creating scaffolds to their *potential stories*

(Drake, 2014; Gergen & Gergen, 2006); (c) growth is spiral: supporting the client to become aware of the places in their stories where what happened did not meet their expectations, and coaching them toward a rewriting of the narrative, instead of “just restoring a sense of normal to the disrupted plot” (Drake, 2014, p. 123); and (d) re-storying is possible: supporting the client to create a new narrative, bringing to life a new mindset, a new set of behaviors and a new environment, by coaching them to “loosen their *narrative grip* on the past, present and/or future” (p. 123). Wasylyshyn (2015) highlights the importance of narrative psychology in the early part of her executive coaching engagements where she invites clients to share their full life history – noting that this approach “helped sustain and deepen connections with clients over time” (p. 283).

Psychological development in adulthood approach to coaching. Central to the belief of this holistic approach to coaching is that people “differ in ways that could not be explained by personality types, learning styles or personal preferences, all of which are usually seen as relatively stable for each individual” (Bachkirova, 2014, p. 131). Thus adults go through developmental stages or developmental lines (Wilber, 1999) -- in areas such as emotions (Goleman, 1995), satisfying their needs (Maslow, 1954), values (Beck & Cowan), and spirituality (Fowler, 1981) – which impact the ways in which they view the world and create meaning in their lives. Adult development theory draws upon the work of Erik Erikson (1950) and his emphasis on the phases of adult life, each with its own psychological tasks or issues. Bachkirova (2014) lists the three phases of the scholarly evolution of this field which impact current day developmental coaching approaches, including: (a) understanding the impact of developmental changes on meaning making (Piaget, 1976), moral reasoning (Kohlberg, 1969), judgments (King

& Kitchener, 1994), and mindset (Kegan, 1982, 1994); (b) understanding of ego development based on the work of Loevinger (1976, 1987), with an emphasis on how self-identity evolves and interacts with other relationships (Cook-Greuter, 2004; Torbert, 1991); and (c) understanding Spiral Dynamics and the levels of existence (Graves, 1970), worldviews and values (Beck & Cowan, 1996).

As scholars explain, the developmental journey goes through pre-conventional (unformed ego), conventional (formed ego) and post conventional (reformed ego) levels (Bachkirova, 2014, Kohlberg, 1969), with key adult development areas including: cognitive development (Kegan, 1982, 1994; Kegan & Lahey, 2009), interpersonal development (Loevinger & Cook-Greuter, 1999), conscious preoccupation development (Graves, 1970), and character development (Loevinger, 1987). Ego in this context is defined as “a network of mini-selves ... a combination of brain/mind states and processes ... involved in the organism’s engagement with a certain task” (Bachkirova, 2014, p. 135). While an unformed ego has a number of unmet needs and unfulfilled tasks, a formed ego has the capacity to take ownership of their actions and build relationships all while holding on to a notion of self identity, and a reformed ego has the capacity to move beyond the formed ego capacities and be able to be with ambiguity and experience less conflict between the various mini-selves (Bachkirova, 2014).

As Wilber (2006) contends, these various areas of development may or may not be developing in tandem. Therefore, adult development is not a one dimensional track, but rather a multidimensional platform containing multiple tracks of development. For example, according to Bachkirova (2011):

- A person's cognitive development is on a trajectory from a socialized mind (unformed ego), to a self authoring mind (formed ego), to a self transforming mind (reformed ego).
- A person's interpersonal development is on a trajectory from being dependent and focusing on a need to belong (unformed ego), to being independent and focusing on becoming a separate but responsible individual (formed ego), to being inter-independent and focusing on respecting autonomy and conflict (reformed ego).
- A person's conscious preoccupation development is on a trajectory from being multiplistic and focusing on social acceptance and reputation (unformed ego), to being relativistic/individualistic and focusing on personal goals achievement (formed ego), to being systemic/integrated and focusing on self fulfillment and understanding (reformed ego).
- A person's character development is on a trajectory from being rule-bound and focusing on internalizing outside rules (unformed ego), to being conscientious and focusing on creating self evaluated rules (formed ego), to being self regulated and focusing on behavior that is an expression of moral values (reformed ego).

Bachkirova (2014) identifies the assessment instruments and processes involved in determining an individual's developmental stage, which include: (a) the subject-object interview which requires a 60 to 90 minute interview time and transcription/scoring (Lahey, 1988); and (b) the Washington University sentence completion test or Leadership Development Profile (Loevinger, 1976; Cook-Greuter, 2004). Given the length of time required for these assessments (McCauley et al., 2006), Bachkirova (2011) suggests that within a developmental coaching approach, the coach needs to become aware of the client's developmental themes

through the types of concerns they are bringing forth in the coaching session. This approach forgoes the need for conducting a formal assessment, and instead focuses on understanding the client's challenges and the difficulties they are experiencing. These themes, according to Bachkirova (2011), point to the client's developmental trajectory in the following way:

- Unformed ego themes: difficulties in making decisions, over-responsibility, inability to say no, frequent anxiety and low self esteem issues;
- Formed ego themes: difficulties in managing projects, focus on achievement and recognition, frequent relational conflicts, challenges in delegating and managing stress, harboring a deep seated fear of failure;
- Reformed ego themes: lack of satisfaction despite many accomplishments, a deep sense of inner conflict, search for fulfillment and higher meaning, in the midst of making pivotal changes and being authentic in the face of complexity.

Coaching from this developmental perspective allows the client to feel heard, understood, and accepted in terms of their development process. Though Kegan (1982) cautions the coach from forcing a developmental change agenda on the client. Overall, scholars caution coaches about the temptation to oversimplify these developmental trajectories and bringing a forced agenda on the client (Bachkirova, 2014). Specific coaching approaches have been identified as more suited to various stages of development, such as person-centered and transactional analysis models for those at unreformed ego stages who wish to move toward a reformed ego state, cognitive-behavioral approaches of coaching those at formed ego stages, and existential or gestalt approaches to coaching for those who are at reformed ego stages (Bachkirova, 2011, 2014).

Transpersonal approach to coaching. Similar to other styles of coaching, the goal of transpersonal coaching is to “enable the clients to disengage from whatever beliefs are holding him or her back from his or her higher or deeper possibilities” (Rowan, 2014, p. 151). This approach to coaching is rooted in the transpersonal level of consciousness, which houses awareness of the spiritual nature of human beings (Rowan, 2014). According to this approach, there are two trajectories of development: (a) the objective, quantifiable and psychological human development that is identifiable and socially approved; and (b) the transpersonal development that is more qualitative and spiritual (Rowan, 2014; Whitmore, 2002). As Whitmore (2002) contends, these two dimensions need to be balanced in order to bring harmony into a person’s life. Often, as scholars (Rowan, 2014; Whitmore, 2002) explain, when individuals face a crisis or set back on the objective developmental track of life, they need to reconfigure their qualitative view of the world and recalibrate the meaning they give to their lives. Transpersonal coaches, therefore, support clients in reconfiguring their world maps.

Built upon the pre-personal (development prior to the development of self) and personal (development of the regular day to day awareness of life) dimensions of awareness, the transpersonal level spans the sacred, holy and divine dimensions of awareness (Ferrer, 2002; Rowan, 2014; Wilber, 2000). The to understanding the transpersonal approach is the understanding that the transpersonal is NOT about the paranormal (Green, 1986), the right brain (McGilchrist, 2009), the new age, religion, or spirituality. Rather, the transpersonal level can best be described as the heart center, the intuitive mind, the witness (Rowan, 2005, 2014).

There are, however, common features across all models, including: collaboration and accountability between the coach and client, the quality of the coach/client relationship, the

clarity of the commitment/agreement between the coach/client, the identification of clear goals, the ability of coach/client to have a growth/learning mindset, the ability of coach/client to be curious in regards to inquiry and action, and the ability to strengthen an inner sense of responsibility and awareness (Grant, 2014; Outhwaite & Bettridge, 2009). Client motivation for change and transformation is thus key for a successful outcome.

Tapping into personal values is an emerging area that scholars are hailing as effective in strengthening motivation for learning and change. Michelson, Lee, Orsillo, & Romer (2011) define values as “personally chosen life directions that guide behavior in a number of domains (e.g., family, career, physical health and well-being, spirituality)” (p. 359). In this way, values are different from goals in that they are ongoing and do not have a defined end. Rather, they are more like a “compass” or “glue” that support individuals in reaching their goals (p. 359). For example, Grumet & Fitzpatrick (2016) note that practices such as motivational interviewing support clients in discovering their own personal values and thus ignite their intrinsic reasons and commitments for change. Personal values relate directly to motivation and the behaviors necessary for change, therefore supporting clients to clarify their values not only enhances therapeutic outcomes, but also supports those who suffer from anxiety to increase life satisfaction and quality of life indicators (Grumet & Fitzpatrick, 2016; Michelson et al., 2011).

Therapeutic research (Michelson et al., 2011) shows that individuals suffering from anxiety typically engage in three psychological processes: (a) they judge their internal experiences and have a very critical relationship with themselves, (b) they view their thoughts and feelings as real and lasting instead of transient in nature, and (c) they often want to escape from or be in denial of their internal experiences because it feels overwhelming. In the face of

such findings, scholars focus on aligning client behavior with their personal values, along with acceptance techniques in order to nurture a more compassionate relationship toward self (Roemer & Orsillo, 2002). For example, learning can be viewed as a personal value, and in this regard it will motivate individuals in obtaining a college degree. However, because it is not goal-bound, the value of learning will continue to motivate the individual in reaching more goals related to learning (Michelson et al, 2011). Clinicians thus utilize Acceptance Based Behavioral Therapy (ABBT) and mindfulness practices to encourage clients to draw upon their personal values to reduce their avoidance or escape from experiencing difficult emotions. In fact, research suggests that articulating values can significantly increase motivation levels for wanting to face the challenging therapeutic work (Michelson et al., 2011).

Best practices for executive coaching. Those receiving executive coaching are often very successful and smart individuals who are experts in their respective fields, but are in need of shifts in their perspective to enhance their relational or leadership skills to authentically influence others (Lee, 2014). This population faces many challenges in their learning journey toward more authentic leadership, and an effective coaching engagement enables them to draw upon a number of practices rooted in key theoretical foundations. However, in their survey of executive coaching best practices, Bono et al. (2009) contend that “much of the process and practice of executive coaching remains shrouded in mystery” (p. 362).

Brotman et al. (1998) note that successful executives often become defensive when they are faced with the need to change their behavior. They thus offer a number of key tactics to effective coaching, including: (a) establishing a relationship of mutual trust, respect and confidentiality; (b) being a courageous coach who can “convey and confront the core reality of

an executive versus his or her well protected persona” (p. 44); and (c) enable the executive to link their current challenges to their conscious or often unconscious life stories.

Coaches have many different educational and experiential backgrounds which they draw upon in their coaching practice, thus making it challenging to identify consistency in practice (Bono et al., 2009). The coach’s knowledge and experience is also an important factor, which includes a variety of beliefs on the nature of humanity, learning and change, including the fields of management sciences, educational and learning theory, social sciences, psychological sciences and philosophy, to name a few.

There are four main components that comprise a coaching engagement. These include: (a) the coach-client relationship, (b) the identification of the problem and setting goals, (c) the solving of the problems, and (d) the transformational process that creates the desired outcomes (Carey et al., 2011). At the heart of coaching is the ability to facilitate the client’s understanding of the drivers of their own internal decision-making processes (Linder-Pelz & Hall, 2008). Thus, key to the success of executive coaching process is the process of reflection and learning which “enhances the quality of individuals’ sensemaking process” (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015, p. 35). This ability is often referred to as metacognition or self-reflexive awareness/consciousness which allows clients to become more aware of their underlying assumptions and belief systems which cause them to choose certain actions and behaviors (Grant, 2014; Linder-Plez & Hall, 2007). Self-reflexivity is an important capacity for leaders facing uncertainty and change in that it not only strengthens their ability to think more strategically and respond more effectively to emergent situations, but also gain better insights on their own emotional and mental landscape, thus enabling better leadership (Grant, 2014).

Wasylyshyn (2015) further explain that regardless of the specific practices that a coach utilizes, there are three meta principles and four methodological factors that must also be drawn upon for a successful executive coaching experience. The three meta principles are: (a) traction (the ability of the coach to create and maintain a consistent momentum in the coaching process); (b) trust (the ability of the coach to create a trusting relationship with the client and with all key stakeholders vested in the client's success); and (c) truth telling (to support the client and key stakeholders to see systemic issues that are negatively impacting desired outcomes. In addition, Wasylyshyn (2015) point to four methodological factors for ensuring a successful implementation of key practices: (a) ensuring a holistic approach (seeing the client from a holistic perspective, not just through their work context, and having the "courage to address critical intersections between work and personal priorities" (p. 67); (b) pointing out strong insights on their behaviors; (c) involving the 360 executives; and (d) sustaining the relationship, knowing that it "is more relational than transactional" (p. 69).

The following is an in-exhaustive list of specific methods and practices that executive coaches draw upon depending on specific theoretical frameworks:

- Psychodynamic coaching practices: Executives are often inhibited in their practice of authentic leadership by a number of unconscious defense mechanisms which contribute to their presence as either defiant or compliant leaders – both extremes being related to unconscious defense mechanisms (Lee, 2014). Such unconscious patterns have a strong impact on the executive's decision making and behavior, and lead to the possibility of 15 situations, including: underperformance despite desire/intention to improve, strong emotional experiences, destructive relational patterns, and key life

changes/transitions, inability to solving problems (Kilburg, 2004). Specific techniques include the use of assessments to support clients in uncovering their unconscious assumptions and beliefs, or the use of interviews with the client's circle of colleagues and friends to gain a better understanding of life history (Gray, 2006). There are 19 practices that are built upon a psychodynamic foundation as identified by Kilburg (2004), including: asking permission, creation of safe holding spaces, invitation for storytelling, listening, empathy, recognizing patterns, reframing, utilizing silence, supporting clients to be reflective and introspective, enabling the client's ability to expand their compassionate self awareness, and the ensuring their own management of transference and counter-transference. The goal would be to support the client in strengthening their capacity for regulating their own emotions so as to reduce their use of defense mechanism.

- Cognitive/Behavioral coaching practices: Those utilizing a CBC approach focus on goal attainment within a specific period of time through the use of Socratic questioning and guided discovery to enable the client to arrive at their own solutions, thus promoting self awareness, self reflection, and problem solving (Neenan, 2009). Studies show that CBC approaches reduce stress and enhance skills development (Ducharme, 2004). Socratic questioning is at the heart of the CBC model and requires the engaged participation of both the coach and client to increase self awareness, self acceptance and action taking (Roberts & Billings, 1999), and ultimately supporting the client to coach themselves (Neenan & Palmer, 2001). Overall, CBC practices are helpful in

supporting clients to “become increasingly skillful in managing the interaction between their own actions, cognitions and emotions” (Williams, Palmer, Edgerton, p. 44).

- The ABCDE model is cited as a classic CBC approach to changing behavior, where A = identify the activating event, B = identify the underlying beliefs about the event, C = identify the emotional/behavioral consequences of the event, D = dispute the unreasonable beliefs about the event, and E = develop an effective outlook on the event (Neenan, 2008) (Sherin & Caiger, 2004; Williams, Palmer & Edgerton, 2014). Mindfulness based practices such as meditation, breathing and body scan are shown to increase awareness of thought and emotional patterns through a nonjudgmental approach.
- The PRACTICE model (Palmer & Cooper, 2013) is another CBC approach to facilitate coaching conversations toward understanding problems and identifying key steps and goals toward their resolution. In this model, P = identifying the problem, R = developing relevant and attainable goals, A = identifying alternative solutions, C = considering key consequences for each option, T = targeting the solutions that are most reasonable/feasible, I & C = implementing the chosen solutions, and E = evaluating the outcomes.
- The practice of Sensory Awareness Mindfulness Training (SAMT) provides coaches with a set of techniques to balance and integrate thinking (cognitive) and feeling (heart) activities (Collard & Walsh, 2008). Furthermore, such mindfulness techniques are shown to support coaches in strengthening their

capacity of “psychological mindedness” to cope various coaching challenges (Bluckert, 2005, p. 173).

- The SPACE model (Edgerton & Palmer, 2005) is another CBC approach influenced by multimodal therapy to support individuals in becoming more aware of their patterns of thought that are not proving effective. It includes five key intertwined areas, where S (social context such as low performance, conflict, defensiveness) impacts the interplay of C (cognition such as self doubt, confidence, pessimism), P (physical/physiological such as arousal, breathing, health), A (actions such as avoidance, aggression, procrastination) and E (emotions such as anxiety, anger, fear).
- The PEEP model of solution-focused theory is another CBC approach that supports clients to view the various behaviors that are necessary to achieve results. In this model, P = identifying the preferred outcome, E = identify exceptions to problems, reflections on times when the problem is not present, E = identify existing resources, and P = acknowledge progress that is taking place (Cavanagh & Grant, 2014). At the heart of the PEEP model are key questions which support a reframing of lack toward resourcefulness. Two popular questions are: (a) miracle question (Berg & Szabo, 2005), ex: “imagine that you wne to bed tonight, and when you woke up the problem had somehow magically disappeared, and the solution was present... what is the first thing that you’d notice that would tell you that the solution was present?” (Cavanagh & Grant, 2014, p. 56); and (b) scaling question, ex: “on a scale of 1 to 10 with ten

representing the complete solution, and one representing the problem at its worst, where would you say you are now?" (p. 56).

- The MAPS model of solution-focused theory is another CBC approach that supports clients to identify helpful patterns of thought and action in order to reach the desired result (O'Hanlon & Beadle, 1996). In this model, M = supporting the client to identify multiple options of action, A = asking clients to replace why questions with how questions, P = shifting the view of problems into possibilities for new action and solutions, and S = identifying objectives that are specific, measurable, attainable, realistic, and timebound (Cavanagh & Grant, 2014; Jackson & McKergow, 2007; O'Hanlon & Beadle, 1996).
- Person-centered coaching practices: The practices in the person-centered approach are based on respecting the client's self determination and "refers not to what you do, but how you do it" (Joseph, 2014, p. 69). Thus the coach's reflective listening skills are paramount in ensuring that the conversation is directed by the client, that no new material are introduced, and that no new ways of thinking about the issue are raised (Joseph, 2014). The deep listening skills allow the client to become increasingly aware of their own thoughts and feelings. Reflective listening "requires active attention to all that is said, and all that is not said, and it requires the coach to choose on the basis of their empathic understanding as well as their own congruence in that moment what to reflect on" (p. 69). When reflective listening is conducted within a highly empathetic context with high positive regard for the client, the client is encouraged to "verbalize further, to explore issues in more depth, to be challenged, to reach new insights and ultimately to

be more equipped to make new choices in life” (p. 69). Once this environment of deep listening, trust, empathy and care is created, then the coach can utilize any number of methods to support the client in achieving their goals. For example, the coach provides the client with a new languaging to understand their own concerns and points to opportunities where the client can practice the new learnings and behaviors.

- Existential coaching practices: Coaching practices that focus on an existential approach emphasize the exploration of qualities of being and viewing the world, instead of refining or developing the client. Coaching practices support the client in dealing with the inherent paradoxes of their concerns within their larger “conflictual worldview polarities (Spinelli, 2014, p. 95). In the workplaces, these situations often arise when the client is facing any situation that is challenging their sense of security, values or continuity (Spinelli, 2014). An existential approach to coaching requires the coach to take on: (a) a phenomenological approach to an inquiry-based conversation, and (b) engage in descriptive questioning.
 - Phenomenological method of investigation: This mode of engaging with a client demands that the coach conduct the following: (a) bracket or set aside their own biases, judgments and assumptions about the client’s worldview and focus on the expression of their world view that is being revealed in the present moment; and (b) to describe to the client – instead of explain or analyze or transform – their worldview as they are sharing it – a focus on the “what and how” of the client’s worldview instead of the “why” (Spinelli, 2014, p. 98).

- Descriptive questioning: This existential coaching practice allows the executive coach to bring a focused attention to the “embodiment, metaphorical equivalence and narrational scene setting” of the client’s worldview (Spinelli, 2014, p. 99). Thus, descriptive questioning aims to support the client in clarifying their felt experience of the emotions or thoughts they are expressing so that they can more strongly own their experience. For example, such descriptive questioning toward a statement of “feeling blocked” may inquire: where are you feeling that in your body? What is that feeling like? Does it bring up any emotions or thoughts? If it had a color, what would that be? What specific situations in made you feel that way?
- Ontological coaching practices: At the core of the ontological coaching approach is the coach “being in the most resourceful way of being for the client” (Sieler, 2014, p. 105). Thus, the coach must first practice: (a) being a humble learner and detached from their own view of how things should be, (b) being a catalyst for change, instead of the cause of change, and (c) being “respectfully firm” by taking respectful authority in the coaching engagement (p. 111). The specific practices include:
 - Language: Coaching from an ontological perspective requires paying close attention to language as the source of reality creation, and the underlying assumptions and beliefs that are expressed and not expressed verbally. Therefore the coach needs to ask questions that support the client in understanding their own underlying assumptions. These questions include: what is at stake for you here? What is missing that is important for you? What is not

being taken care of that matters to you? Through the process of “grounding assessments,” the coach support the client in sharing about underlying “assertions, declarations, assessments, requests, offers and promises” (p. 109).

- Moods: Aside from language, an ontological coaching perspective also focuses on the client’s moods, which are “subtle, enduring and pervasive emotions, continually influencing perception and behavior” (p. 110). Ontological coaching provides a framework for the understanding of eight types of pervasive moods and how the moods are created, their narrative structure, behaviors, and postural embodiments (Sieler, 2007).
- Body: Aside from supporting the client to gain a deeper awareness of their underlying beliefs/assumptions and moods, the ontological approach to coaching also brings attention to the body, the somatic domain of human awareness. This aspect of ontological coaching brings the linguistic declaration of new assumptions together with an open and strong body posture and voice. Thus the coach supports the client in: (a) negotiating a positive statement of capabilities/assumptions, (b) supporting the client in speaking this statement with a strong open posture and voice, and (c) asking permission for feedback.
- Narrative coaching practices: At the heart of the narrative coaching practice is the co-creative relationship between the coach and client, and thus the importance for the coach to create a “holding container in which people can courageously and creatively bring their narrative material into the world” – both a safe interpersonal structure and a safe narrative structure (Drake, 2014, p. 124). While a safe interpersonal structure

relates to the coach's empathy and compassion for the client; the safe narrative structure allows the coach to explore the various components of the narrative with the client. Specific practices include:

- Dialogic space: The focus of creating a dialogic space is on being aware that the stories that are being told by the client are part of a “triologic process” (p. 125) between the narrator, the story and the listener. It is therefore important for the coach to be aware that the story that is being told by the client is being impacted by the coach-coach relationship.
- The narrative diamond: This practice refers to the ability of the coach, like a “master chef,” to be able to pay keen attention to the client as narrator, the stories that they are narrating, and the narrative elements within the story that are prime for change and retelling (p. 125). Narrative coaches, thus, must be able to support their clients by noticing what is being said and unsaid, and presenting an invitation to new narrative elements that are ready to be said.
- Developmental coaching practices: The practices of this method of coaching involve supporting the client in becoming more aware of the ways in which they view themselves and their world, thus shifting their perspective of the various areas of their lives from “subject to object” (Bachkirova, 2014, p. 137). In so doing, the client can become more aware of the specific patterns in their lives that are impacting their choices and behaviors. Moreover, the coach also has to be aware of their own stage of development. Key coaching practices include:

- Clarifying the client's immunity to change (Kegan & Lahey, 2009): This practice is based on the notion that for most people, they have built an immunity to change because of unconscious competing intentions and commitments. There is thus a four-column exercise which supports clients in identifying their goals and the competing commitments that are keeping them unconsciously stuck.
- Improving quality of perception: Moving beyond the key coaching skills of deep listening and reflection, scholars (Bachkirova, 2014; Ames & Dissanayake, 1996) suggest the importance of noticing conditioning patterns (ways of doing things that have been inherited from a culture) and patterns of self deception (various deep seated irrational beliefs and unconscious thought patterns) that impact a client's ways of perceiving themselves and their capabilities in the world.
- Working various self-models or stories: Scholars note the various stories that individuals create about themselves given our linguistic abilities to construct consistent self images. Yet some of these stories inhibit our change process if they remain unconscious. Therefore, developmental coaching supports clients in becoming aware of the various stories we continually create for ourselves, leading to being more about about trying new stories (Bachkirova, 2014; Linville, 1987; Rowan, 2009)
- Working the elephant: Scholars refer to the unconscious emotional mind and body as the elephant, and suggest utilizing gentle probing approaches to support clients in continually becoming aware of the various unconscious, nonverbal and fragmented ideas and emotions that often arise (Bachkirova, 2014; Claxton,

1999). Thus, developmental coaches often utilize nonverbal methods such as dreams, images, fleeting thoughts and hunches as ways to become aware of such pre-logical/conceptual aspects of emotions.

- Transpersonal coaching practices. Transpersonal practices are not merely methods of application, but also a way of being that can be attained through mindfulness based practices (Passmore & Marianetti, 2007). Scholars note that transpersonal coaching practices rely upon creative and experimental resourcefulness that is unique in every coach-client engagement. Key coaching practices include the following:
 - Coach/client relationship: In a transpersonal approach the coach/client relationship has to be a deep, personal, trusting co-creative and collaborative space (Williams & Menendz, 2007). The coach is viewed as a trusted journeyman, a truthful guide, and an undemanding observer of the process (Rowan, 2014).
 - Creativity/imagery: Transpersonal coaches rely upon their intuition and the power of imagery as the main mechanisms for thinking and client interaction (Charles, 2004). For instances, coaches inquire about the images that clients utilize to explain various aspects or experiences of their lives, thus entering the imaginal realm. Such processes unleash creativity and allow the client to unearth their own underlying beliefs and assumptions.
 - Subtle realm invitations: Transpersonal coaches continually invite the client to access the deeper realms of their understanding and knowing by asking questions that invoke their soul's understanding of the situation (Merzel, 2007;

Rown, 2010). The client's subtle realm provides them with access to their creativity and witness consciousness which observes without judgment (Passmore & Marianetti, 2007). Mindfulness practice thus become supportive in terms of deepening the experience (Segal et al., 2002).

- Second-Tier thinking: Part of the transpersonal approach to coaching is to invite clients to evolve from first-tier thinking (that focuses on the win/lose situations) to second-tier thinking (that is based on holding the tension of paradoxical thinking). In this approach, clients are invited to contemplate the dimension of many right answers (Beck & Cowan, 1996).
- Radical questioning of goals: Transpersonal coaching focuses more on the organic lessons that are being learned through the experience of various life situations, than on the specific target of meeting goals or finding fixed solutions (Coldman, 2007).

Additional coaching practices: The Three Principles Psychology model (Polsfuss & Ardichvili, 2008), systems perspective (Abbott & Rosinski, 2007; Hawkins & Smith, 2010; O'Neill, 2007; Tobias, 1996), action learning (Kolbe, 1984; Sofo et al., 2010), developmental (Axelrod, 2005; Backkirova, 2011; Erikson, 1968; Kegan, 1982), competency based (Boyatzis, 1982; Ennis et al., 2008), strengths based (Abbott & Rosinski, 1007), and eye movement desensitization reprocessing (EMDR) (Shapiro, 1989, 1995).

Coaching process. Although there is no clear standardization of the executive coaching process, Athanasopoulou and Dopson's (2015) insightful review of executive coaching literature revealed a list of processes that are key for ensuring effective executive coaching engagements.

These include: contracting, assessments, learning tools, planning, individuals involved, and coaching duration:

- **Contracting:** A key initial step in coaching engagements, contracting ensures that all ethical considerations are taken into account as the coach, coachee and the corporate clarify and agree upon the learning contract, the business/financial contract, the personal contract, and the behavioral contract (Ennis et al., 2008; McMahon, 2005; Natale & Diamante, 2005). Scholars note that it is often not possible for the coach to meet with the coachee and corporate sponsor at the same time (McMahon, 2005). As such, it is the responsibility of the coach to ensure that all parties have a clear understanding of the coaching outcome, feedback mechanisms involved, and confidentiality parameters. Typically, the specific coaching methodology is not specified within the contracting phase (Grant, 2013; McMahon, 2005).
- **Assessments:** Often, executive coaching involves the use of a 360-degree feedback instrument and/or other tools -- such as personality, leadership, communication, satisfaction, and culture style indicators (Ennis et al., 2008) -- to provide a baseline report of the executive's leadership within his team. Scholars (Jones et al., 2006; Thach, 2002; Wasylshyn, 2003) note the effectiveness of 360-degree assessments, stating it is "one of the best ways of promoting increased self awareness of a manager's skill strengths and deficiencies (as cited in Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015, p. 61).
- **Learning tools:** There are a variety of tools that executive coaches utilize to catalyze or enhance learning with a client. These tools range from those that support on the job skills development such as problem-solving and strategic planning, to those that

enhance relational skills such as role play, purposeful conversations and feedback, to those that support the deeper inner work of clients such as identifying underlying assumptions and beliefs such as Socratic questioning (Ennis, 2008; Neenan, 2009).

- **Planning:** To ensure a successful executive coaching engagement, scholars note the importance of planning the pre-coaching, implementation, and transitioning phases of the coaching engagement. While the pre-coaching phase planning entails the development of the coaching plan and inclusion of assessment, contracting and goal setting; the implementation phase planning includes the clarification of feedback mechanisms, reports and metrics; and the transitioning phase includes ensuring a plan for the long term development of the client, with clear goals and actions clarified for the corporate sponsor (Ennis et al., 2008).
- **Individuals involved:** The partnership logic of an executive coaching engagement includes a contract between the coach, coachee and the organizational entity (Michelman, 2004). As such, scholars note the importance of the following key stakeholders in the process: the executive being coached, the executive's boss, the HR department, the OD/talent department, peers, direct reports and others who play a key role in the success of the executive's performance (Ennis et al., 2008).
- **Duration:** A review of scholarly literature on executive coaching reveals no conclusive finding on the effective duration of a single session or overall package. Athanasopoulou & Dopson (2015) state that "typically EC interventions last for at least six months or so. However, this is not always the case" (p. 62). For example, they cite the following studies which provide varying conclusions: (a) when executive coaching is conducted

within a larger leadership development program, it may last only a few consecutive days (Grant, 2007; Hooijberg & Lane, 2009); (b) within a group of executive, life and workplace coaches, individual coaching sessions can range from 30 minutes to 60 minutes, and up to 3 months (Grant & Zackon, 2004); and (c) within a group of executive coaches, duration of coaching was reported to be more than six months (53.2%), between three to six months (33.2%), and between six to twelve months (33.2%) (Grant & Zackon, 2004). Moreover, Grant (2007) compared the impact of coaching on two groups (one which received 13 weeks of coaching with weekly 2.5 hour workshops, and the other which received two days of manager as coach training spread apart by 3 weeks with an action learning break between the two sessions). Findings suggested stronger indication of both coaching skills and emotional intelligence within the first group, while the second group showed only increases in coaching skills, and at a lower level than the first group.

As Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2015) points out, there is a growing contention among scholars that executive coaching best practices are more reliant on a synergy of methods and practices instead of just one method (Hall et al., 1999; Passmore, 2007; Turner & Goodrich, 2010). Moreover, the effectiveness of an executive coaching engagement appears to go far beyond the effectiveness of a specific method or practice or theory, but instead reliant on the high quality of trust between the coach and client (Bluckert, 2005; de Haan et al., 2010; Hall et al., 1999; Kemp, 2008; Kilburg, 2010; O’Broin & Palmer, 2010).

Ethical considerations in executive coaching. Scholars point to a number of complex ethical issues in the practice of executive coaching that warrant a deeper examination – issues

such as: confidentiality, conflicts of interest, professional standards, measures of success, and financial issues (Hannafey & Vitulano, 2013). Moreover, scholars note the lack of studies that examine the “ethical foundations and basis for morality in executive coaching practice” (p. 599). Even with the presence of membership organizations such as the International Coach Federation and Worldwide Association of Business Coaches, scholars contend that “professional standards are still for the most part varied and often unclear [with] little standardization or monitoring of coaching activities and professional standards ... lacking and not universally accepted” (p. 601). At present, studies on executive coaching note the mostly informal nature of executive coaching contracts, typically entered into for periods of six to twelve months, which provide no clear explanation of roles, obligations and outcomes (Hannafey & Vitulano, 2013). As such, some scholars are suggesting the use of agency theory as a basis for ensuring effective contracting which addresses common ethical challenges involved in the relationship of the executive coach with the executive and the supporting organization (Bendickson, Muldoon, Liguori, & David, 2016; Hannafey & Vitulano, 2013).

According to Bendickson et al. (2016), agency theory evolved from the contributions of a number of scholars, including: Arrow (1985), Berle and Means (1932), Jensen and Meckling (1976), Levinthal (1988), and Pratt and Zeckhauser (1985). Hannafey and Vitulano (2013) explain that the agency relationship at the heart of executive coaching is “based on high levels of trust and also strict confidentiality ... between an agent and principal” (p. 600). Overall, agency theory is utilized as “a contract for the unit of analysis between principals and agents” (Bendickson et al., 2016, p. 176). In this regard, the person designated as the principal delegates specific demands to the person designated as an agent, with the belief that the agent

is working on behalf of their best interest (Bendickson et al., 2016; Eisenhardt, 1989). In an executive coaching relationship, executive coaches are regarded as the agents, though they “are likely not fiduciaries of the individuals and organizations they serve,” but rather, “similar to contracted employees or consultants yet with responsibilities and attendant duties that are highly significant to individuals and organizations (Hannafey & Vitulano, 2013, p. 600).

Executive coaches, as agents within this agency relationship, “must serve the actual interests of the principal in all aspects of their engagement” within a complex organizational context with challenging business pressures, many stakeholders, and the “potential to do great good or much harm” (p. 600). Thus, viewing this complex relationship through the lens of agency theory “will positively inform and guide the ongoing development of professional standards” (p. 601), and address the “potential conflict between the agent and the principal” (Bendickson et al., 2016, p. 176). Conflict within such agency relationships often arise because “contracts are imperfect since not every single contingency can be accounted for” thus making monitoring “difficult and costly, and as such, the principal may have difficulty enforcing their property rights (p. 176).

According to Eisenhardt (1989), there are seven assumptions that drive the notion of agency theory: “self interest, goal conflict, bounded rationality, information asymmetry, preeminence of efficiency, risk aversion, and information as a commodity (as cited in Bendickson et al., 2016, p. 176). Scholars note inherent challenges that may arise in applying agency theory to relationships that are based on knowledge sharing, instead of visible skills and tasks reminiscent of industrial era work (Bendickson et al., 2016). Within industrial era organizations, there was a significant pressure to ensure compliance by all workers and

ensuring that hired contractors continued to work for the best interest of owners. Yet today's globalized world of knowledge workers is greatly influenced by disruptive technology and highly impacted by the "entrepreneurial mindset, differences in education, and ever changing media and government relationships with businesses [which] pose potential threats to the long term viability of agency theory as a means of explaining complex principal-agent relationship" (p. 186). Thus, a number of boundary issues impact the utilization of agency theory within a knowledge based economy, including: (a) the clarity of relationships between principal and agent, and (b) the multiplicity of stakeholders involved who will be impacted by the principal-agent relationship. Future research on the ethical implications of executive coaching must explore such boundary conditions (Bendickson et al., 2016; Hannafey & Vitulano, 2013).

Standards & credentialing issues in executive coaching. As Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2015) explain, the ongoing efforts in establishing standards in executive coaching, including the work of Wassylyshyn (2003), Ennis et al. (2008), Griffiths and Campbell (2008), and the initiatives by the European Mentoring and Coaching Council, and the International Coach Federation's Code of Conduct to create executive coaching standards that are respected around the world. However, Athanasopoulou & Dopson (2015) point to the current Western ideological perspective that runs through all coaching outcomes and practice research, with little or no studies arising from the BRICS countries. Thus, there is an inherent need to ensure diversity of perspectives in executive coaching best practices and outcome research in order to effectively develop standards and credentials applicable and reliable within a global context.

Chapter Summary

In a post heroic world where complexity is impacting every aspect of the business, social and economic landscape, supporting global leaders through leadership and executive coaching programs draws upon a multiplicity of disciplines. Not only do leaders need to manage and understand their own emotional landscape and underlying beliefs/assumptions, they also need to view the role of leadership in a completely new way. This new world is demanding leadership to be shared across the network of social capital within collaborative interdependent teams. The coaching and leadership development profession is readjusting their arsenal of solution-based strategies to be effective partners in the global arena.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology

Introduction

The study's research design and methodology enable gaining a deeper understanding of the experiences of executive coaches in supporting global leaders. The ensuing sections begin with a discussion of the nature of this study - including an analysis of the characteristics, strengths, weaknesses and assumptions of a qualitative study. Additional sections provide an analysis of the specific methodological considerations for selecting phenomenology, the research design, and the participant selection process. In addition, emphasis is placed on discussing the human subjects review process, the data collection methodology, interview protocol and data analysis techniques.

Restatement of the research questions

Specifically, the study used a qualitative phenomenological research design and methodology to understand the following four research questions:

RQ1: What are the strategies and best practices employed by executive coaches who support senior level executives in global organizations?

RQ2: What are the challenges faced by executive coaches in implementing those strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?

RQ3: How do executive coaches measure the success of their strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?

RQ4: What recommendations do executive coaches make for coaching senior level executives in global organizations?

In order to address the above research questions, a deeper exploration of the nature of the study and various methodologies was conducted as shared in the following sections.

Nature of the Study

As stated in chapters 1 and 2, global leaders are operating in a world of complexity, paradox, and information overload. Scholars contend that such complexity strongly impacts both the practice of coaching and evidence based research efforts that aim to understand the practice of coaching (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012; Corrie & Lane, 2010) by posing challenges in three broad areas (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012): (a) assuming that coaches and their clients live and function within a predictable world of linear causation, (b) assuming that statistical quantitative approaches can capture unpredictabilities, and (c) assuming that coaches have access to “knowledge which enables prediction and practice, and which can be developed and controlled within the profession” (p. 79). The complex nature of the world wherein coach-client relationships exists, therefore, inherently impacts research design by defying basic assumptions of linear and reductive pathways of cause and effect (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012; Goldfried & Eubanks-Carter, 2004; Grant & Cavanagh, 2007). While quantitative methods provide important evidence-based empirical perspectives into more stable and linear aspects of the coach-client experience, the focus of quantitative research design on reducing variance limits its capability in gaining a deeper understanding of the coaching phenomena within a non-linear complex world (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012).

In this regard, qualitative methods offer a stronger perspective into nonlinear complex systems through “ongoing and iterative engagement in reflective and exploratory analysis” (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012, p. 83). Overall, qualitative methodology provides a more in depth

account of human-to-human interactions than studies based solely on quantitative measures (Cavanagh & Lane, 2012; Creswell, 2013; Robson, 2011). Specifically, qualitative methods are able to provide a non-numerical and contextualized understanding of the research focus, providing a more subjective account of findings with more receptivity toward the inherent values and perspectives of the researcher (Creswell, 2013; Robson, 2011).

Philosophical Assumptions

Research, in general, refers to a systematic way of inquiring about something, whether as: (a) basic or pure research to expand knowledge in a particular area, (b) applied research to improve the quality of practice in a certain discipline, (c) evaluation research to assess effectiveness, or (d) action research to address a targeted organizational challenge (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). The design of a particular research study may incorporate quantitative, qualitative or a combination of both, based on the specific goals. While basic research is typically quantitative and large scale in nature with a focus on determining cause and effect, applied or real world research is typically qualitative and smaller in scale with a focus on expanding understanding of situations that directly impact individuals and offer solutions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Robson, 2011).

Philosophical assumptions that impact a research design typically are within four general schools of thought, including: (a) positivist/post-positivist, (b) interpretive/constructivist, (c) critical, or (d) post-structuralist/post-modernist (Lather, 2006; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2015; Prasad, 2005). Positivist assumptions drive most scientific studies and view reality as objective and thus able to be reliably studied, analyzed and measured (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2015). Interpretive or constructivist assumptions

drive most qualitative research studies, including phenomenology (Burr, 2003; Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Robson, 2011), contending that our knowledge of the world is socially constructed, that what we deem as reality is actually “constructed through interactions between people, rather than having a separate existence” (Robson, 2011, p. 24). Critical assumptions typically drive research studies that challenge our understandings of power relations inherent in various social situations (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Drawing upon various critical theories, such as feminist, race, queer or postcolonial, these studies are empowering in nature with the aim of bringing to light power dynamics and the social structures that reinforce them (Crotty, 1998; Kincheloe, McLaren, & Steinberg, 2011; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). And finally, post-structuralist or postmodernist assumptions question the “grand narratives” and “myths” that members of society believe as truth, and instead prioritize and celebrate the diversity of co-existing truths (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 10). As Grbich (2013) contends, in today’s qualitative research studies, such post-structuralist assumptions appear to be part and parcel of ethnographic, grounded theory, feminist and phenomenological research studies. Post-structuralists thus focus on collecting descriptive individual narratives that deepen understanding of specific situations, without the need to generalize to whole populations or to evolve theory (Grbich, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Some scholars thus contend that qualitative research in general is more of an overarching category that includes a variety of interpretive studies that aim to bring deeper understanding and meaning into people’s experiences of a specific phenomena, as opposed to measuring frequency or statistical variance (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Van Maanen, 1979).

Characteristics, Strengths & Weaknesses

Scholars (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Robson, 2011) point to four key characteristics that go to the heart of understanding the nature of qualitative research studies: (a) focusing on the meaning that individuals give to an experience, not what the researcher thinks; (b) positioning the researcher as instrument of data collection and analysis; (c) utilizing an inductive data analysis process; and (d) providing a rich descriptive final product. First, qualitative research designs seek to understand people's experience of social phenomenon, specifically: how individuals interpret an experience, create their understanding of the experience, and assign meaning to their experience (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Robson, 2011). This is a significant characteristic of a qualitative study which focuses on the "emic or insider's perspective" of the experience instead of the "etic or outsider's view" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 16). Therefore, from an ontological perspective, a qualitative researcher's assumptions and views of the "nature of reality" must be taken into account (Creswell, 2013, p. 20). This entails being mindful and aware of the multiplicities of realities involved in a qualitative study, and bringing focus and care in accurately recording and reporting the themes that are conveyed by the interviewee.

Second, given this deep exploration of inquiry into human subjects, qualitative studies inherently take into account the philosophical worldview of the researcher (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Robson, 2011). Therefore, a key factor that sets a qualitative study aside from one that is quantitative is the primacy of the researcher's presence in ensuring accuracy in data collection, analysis and interpretation (Creswell, 2009; Morse & Richards, 2002). Central to a qualitative research design is thus the power of researcher as instrument.

Therefore, researcher must conduct a thorough literature review to ensure familiarity with the scholarly history of the topic, and effectively bracket their own experience and knowledge base by expressing it in writing (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Morse & Richards, 2002). This setting aside process is referred to as “epoche” and allows the investigator to “take a fresh perspective toward the phenomenon under investigation” (Creswell, 2013, p. 80). Though it is hardly perfect in execution, the epoche allows the investigator to bring a certain transparency and forthrightness to the research (Creswell, 2013). Therefore, from an axiological perspective, the qualitative researcher must bring his or her own values under the spotlight and make it visible, or “position themselves” in a study (Creswell, 2013, p. 20).

A third characteristic of the nature of a qualitative research study is the emphasis on inductive analysis, a methodological perspective from the “ground up, rather than handed down entirely from a theory” approach (Creswell, 2013; p. 22). This includes identifying themes from the data and organizing them “into increasingly more abstract units of information” until all themes are presented in a comprehensive manner (p. 45). Data analysis starts by focusing on small units of analysis or themes, toward making bigger and more complex overall statements (Creswell, 2013; Morse & Richards, 2002, Robson, 2011). This would allow the production of a relevant body of knowledge that takes the various threads of information and creates a larger body of meaning useful to the field. A fourth characteristic of a qualitative research study is the rich descriptive nature of the final data analysis and reports. Scholars advocate the necessity of including rich descriptions utilizing a combination of words, direct quotes, field notes, videos, emails, and pictures which collectively bring to light the individual’s experience of the phenomenon (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

In addition to the four main characteristics listed above, qualitative studies are also emergent in nature, upholding a flexible stance in response to possible changes in field condition (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Qualitative studies also utilize small non-random purposive sampling methods; and often require spending a great deal of time with participants, instead of studying them in a lab setting (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Thus, the nature of qualitative research studies demands certain characteristics from the investigator, including: (a) a curious and questioning interest about life and people's experiences, (b) a high comfort level with ambiguity and flexibility, (c) a highly astute and systematic ability to be an observer of natural conditions, (d) an ability to create rapport and ask well thought-out open ended questions, and (e) an interest and growing expertise in thinking inductively and able to put small pieces of raw data together into larger themes and categories; and (e) a comfort level with writing rich and thorough descriptions of findings (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

The strength of a qualitative research design is evident when needing to gain a deep understanding of a complex situation or to analyze problems or situations that are exploratory in nature, with variables that are challenging to measure directly or in obvious ways (Creswell, 2013). This methodology is often empowering to the subjects since it brings a heightened awareness to their unique voices and perspectives (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Robson, 2011). In addition, a qualitative methodology enhances storytelling in a flexible format without the rigidity that often accompanies quantitative methodologies (Creswell, 2013). While quantitative studies and methodologies provide overall trends in data, qualitative studies help to bring more nuanced understandings that help to explain the trends in data in more clear

ways (Creswell, 2013; Robson, 2011). Qualitative methods are thus often used as the seed for developing theories (Creswell, 2013). What might be construed as a downside or negative aspect of qualitative methods might be the time commitment and travel requirements to collect the data, the complex data analysis requirements for coding and creating themes, and the flexible nature of the design which might place more responsibility on the researcher in creating a strong structure and boundary (Creswell, 2013).

Methodology & Assumptions

This study employed a phenomenological qualitative methodology using semi-structured open-ended interview questions. Phenomenology was the methodology of choice because of its rich tradition of honoring human experience. Kockelmans (1967) notes Hegel's definition of phenomenology as "knowledge as it appears to consciousness, the science of describing what one perceives, senses, and knows in one's immediate awareness and experience" (as cited in Moustakas, 1994, p. 26). As a philosophical movement, phenomenology was introduced in the 1890's by Edmund Gustav Albrecht Husserl and refers to a philosophical tradition that was in essence "a protest against dehumanization in psychology," and a movement toward a type of research that "faithfully reflects the distinctive characteristics of human behavior and first person experience" (Wertz, 2005, p. 167). While psychology was gaining notoriety as a scientific discipline (Kaufer & Chemero, 2015), phenomenology was seen as a move away from empirical studies of human experience, and toward the tradition of Greek philosophy's "search for wisdom" (Creswell, 2013, p. 77).

Hence, phenomenological research aims to describe the particular experience or phenomenon instead of explain or analyze it (Creswell, 2013; Morse & Richards, 2002).

Therefore, a phenomenological study gathers a lived experience of the world, not one that is based on thought or conception (Morse & Richards, 2002; Quay, 2016). Based on social constructionism, phenomenology asserts the conviction that reality is not a specific objective entity, but rather an experience based on what is experienced to be true or real (Morse & Richards, 2002). Phenomenology is an effort “to suspend all judgments about what is real ... until they are founded on a more certain basis” (Creswell, 2013, p. 77). Thus the main underlying assumptions that guide phenomenological research methods are: (a) that people are part and parcel of their relationships with “things, people, events, and situations” (Morse & Richards, 2002, p. 45); and (b) that there is something interesting and unique about people’s perceptions and interpretations of their own lived experience (Creswell, 2013; Morse & Richards, 2002; Quay, 2016).

Considered an ontological view of human existence and experience, phenomenology insists on providing a descriptive analysis of two main areas: (a) the structures that give meaning to a shared view of the world; and (b) people’s subjective and often complex experiences such as those related to religious faith, anxiety, love, paradox and ambiguity (Kaufers & Chemero, 2015). Viewed from either a hermeneutic or transcendental approach, the philosophical assumptions driving phenomenology reflect specific views of experiences and ways to analyze data (Moerer-Urdahl & Creswell, 2004). While transcendental phenomenology focuses on meaning as an organizing principle, hermeneutic phenomenology focuses on reflective interpretations through reading a text or the history of an experience in order to gain a deeper understanding (Kaufers & Chemero, 2015; Moerer-Urdahl & Creswell, 2004; Moustakas, 1994). This study is based on a transcendental phenomenological approach, a

methodology which focuses on setting aside judgments or preconceived notions of knowing about an experience thus creating a “transcendental state of freshness and openness, a readiness to see in an unfettered way” (Moustakas, 1994, p. 41).

Structured process of phenomenology. Scholars (Creswell, 2013; Morse & Richards, 2002; Moustakas, 1994) recommend a set of procedures for conducting a phenomenological study. The steps include: (a) ensuring the focus of the research project is on the shared experience of the participants so that a set of best practices can be identified; (b) ensuring there is a specific phenomenon to be studied, which in this case is the best ways to provide coaching support to global leaders; (c) ensuring the bracketing of experience, which in this case is the bracketing out of the researcher’s own experience as an executive coach; (d) ensuring that in-depth time is set aside to conduct interviews with 15 executive coaches and obtain accurate and relevant data; (e) ensuring that specific themes are highlighted and from there, “clusters of meaning” are generated (Creswell, 2013, p. 82); (f) ensuring these clusters of meaning are written into a “textural description” to share how the specific phenomena was experienced by the participants (p. 82); and (g) ensuring that the “essence” of the phenomena is thus captured from the textural description (p. 82).

Appropriateness of phenomenology as a methodology. The choice of using phenomenology as the method of choice is primarily based on the opportunity to highlight the depth, full richness and nuanced experiences of a small group of executive coaches. As described earlier, phenomenology brings a high priority and emphasis to the specific phenomena that is being explored - in this case, the best strategies and practices in supporting global leaders through executive coaching. This research lens is based on a rich historical

tradition of honoring the lived experiences of individuals. Given the complex nature of what global leaders are experiencing today, and the diversity of possible coaching methods utilized, it is important to bring the spotlight on the lived experience of the select executive coaches participating in this study. This level of specificity with a small sample size will ensure that key experiences, challenges, recommendations and best strategies are accurately recorded and reported using a methodology that is emergent, inductive and deeply reflective in nature. Therefore, there is great care taken in ensuring that the lived experience of the executive coach is captured as readily as possible.

Research Design

The unit of analysis in this study was an executive coach with at least 5 years of full time coaching experience supporting global leaders in the role of an executive coach, and ownership of their own coaching/consulting firm. This person will be a highly regarded member of the coaching community, as evidenced by their reputation, success, and client engagement record.

Sample size. Qualitative studies, in general, do not require a large sample size because the focus is on obtaining meaning from the data, instead of overall statistical frequencies and trends (Creswell, 2013; Mason, 2010). For example, if a participant shares a significant piece of information, even if it is cited only once, it will be included in the findings. This is in contrast to quantitative studies where the focus is on the number of occurrences and statistical significance (Mason, 2010). Therefore, the search for the correct sample size in qualitative studies depends primarily on ensuring saturation - the inclusion of enough participants to represent the diversity of viewpoints for the target group (Creswell, 2013; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Mason, 2010).

However, scholars (Charmaz, 2006; Crouch & McKenzie, 2006; Jette, Grover & Keck, 2003; Lee, Woo & Mackenzie, 2002; Mason, 2010; Ritchie, Lewis & Elam, 2003; Morse, 2000) suggest a number of factors that might impact the determination of the saturation point in qualitative studies. These include: (a) the scope of the study and whether it is aiming to make a significant or modest claim of its findings (Charmaz, 2006); (b) the group's diversity of characteristics, whether data collected requires deep analysis, the types of methodologies incorporated in the study, and available resources such as time and money (Ritchie et al., 2003); (c) the nature of the study and the quality of data required (Morse, 2000); (d) researcher expertise on the topic (Jette et al., 2003); and (e) the length and depth of interviews (Lee et al., 2002). In addition to these factors, scholars express concern in the ability to show proof of saturation (Bowen, 2008; Morse, 2000). While researchers with limited experience might attest to saturation, others with more experience might see more variety and heterogeneity in the population (Charmaz, 2006).

Although the determination of saturation point appears to be subjective, scholars suggest that there comes a point when the inclusion of more data becomes repetitive (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Yet scholars do not readily have any empirical evidence for their suggestion of sample size. In their review of 560 qualitative interview studies, Mason (2010) discovered that about 80% of the studies included 15 participants, which meets the suggested saturation point recommended by Bertaux (1981), about 45% of the studies included 25 participants which meets the suggested saturation point recommended by Charmaz (2006), about 33% of the studies included 20 or less participants which meets the suggested saturation point recommended by Green & Thorogood (2009), and 85% of the studies include 50 or less

participants, which meets the suggested saturation point recommended by Ritchie et al. (2003). Therefore, based on the aforementioned studies, this dissertation study focuses on a sample size of 15 executive coaches with expertise in supporting global leaders. The sample size of 15 appears to be utilized often and recommended as a good threshold for qualitative interviews that examine best practices in a professional field.

Purposive sampling. The executive coach was selected by using a purposive sampling to include the maximum saturation and most optimal sample of executive coaches to share their lived experience of supporting global leaders as an executive coach. As Robson (2011) contends, in a purposive sampling strategy, the researcher's discernment drives the selection process and allows for flexibility in ensuring strong representation within the sample size. Purposive sampling is typically used in non-probability sampling techniques (such as a phenomenological research design) where the need to generalize statistically to an entire population group is not the main focus (Robson, 2011). Instead, the focus is on the lived experience of the small group of individuals.

Participant Selection. To create the sampling master list of at least 20 highly qualified potential participants who meet the inclusion criteria, the following 3 approaches were utilized:

1. LinkedIn selection algorithm: LinkedIn is a popular and highly utilized social media site that provides access to a large database of executive coaches and consultants. On December 8, 2016, the following search criteria were conducted:

- Those who are certified as Master Certified Coach (MCC) through the International Coach Federation. Key word search: "ICF MCC coach global leaders California", resulted in 28 coaches, 7 males, 21 females.

- Those who work as executive coaches with the Center for Creative Leadership, a highly recognized global leadership consulting firm and thought leader that provides executive coaching and leadership development services to global organizations. Keyword search: “Global coach ‘center for creative leadership’ California,” resulted 21 coaches, 11 females, 10 males.

- Those who work as executive coaches at Mobius Executive Leadership, a leadership consulting firm catering to global executives and organizations. Keyword search: “global coach Mobius,” resulted in 11 results, 1 female, 10 males.

2. Global Gurus: The public-access online site www.globalgurus.com provides an annual list of the top 30 practitioners in a range of professional business areas, including executive coaching. Their criteria excludes those in politics or the military, and focuses on those who are perceived as the most influential global speakers, trainers, or consultants in their areas of expertise. Global Gurus identify their selection nomination through emails sent to 22,000 business leaders, scholars and MBA graduates. Their short list of 60 names is then ranked via Google search, followed by public opinion votes on each person. Details of the selection criteria can be found at: <http://globalgurus.org/index.php#sthash.g7HR3TN1.dpuf>

3. Key informant referrals: A number of individuals at high ranking academic, business and consulting firms were invited to provide referrals of top executive coaches to participate in this study. Individuals included: head of global hospitality at Airbnb, head of leadership research at Center for Creative Leadership, Robert Kaiser, and global coaches from the University of Santa Monica network of practitioners.

The master list, based on the above rubric, provided a list of 103 highly qualified potential candidates who meet the inclusion criteria for participation in this study:

- LinkedIn criteria “International Coach Federation, Master Certified Coach” resulted in 28 potential candidates.
- LinkedIn criteria “Center for Creative Leadership” resulted in 21 potential candidates.
- LinkedIn criteria “Mobius Leadership” resulted in 11 potential candidates.
- Globalgurus.org criteria which is based on public voting and ranking resulted in 30 potential candidates.
- Referrals from Chip Conley of Airbnb resulted in 3 potential candidates.
- Referrals from Nick Petrie of Center for Creative Leadership resulted in 3 potential candidates.
- Referrals from Rob Kaiser of Kaiser Consulting resulted in 3 potential candidates.
- Referrals from University of Santa Monica resulted in 4 potential candidates.

This list was refined further to allow for 20 final participants who received the email invitation. The selection of the top 20 list included considerations made for ensuring maximum variation in regards to age, gender, years of experience, educational background, and geographic location.

Criteria for inclusion. The following inclusion criteria was designed to ensure the selection of executive coaches with expertise in coaching global leaders:

1. Five or more years of experience as a full time executive coach supporting senior executives who are leading global teams and organizations;
2. Ownership of their own coaching or consulting company;
3. Strong positive references and testimonials.

Criteria for exclusion. Aside from the above inclusion criteria, there were certain characteristics that excluded participants from participating. These exclusion criteria included:

1. The executive coach's unwillingness to share their experience in a forthright and authentic manner;
2. The executive coach's focus on supporting global leaders using methodologies that appear to be morally or ethically questionable, such as bringing intentional physical harm to themselves or others;
3. A lack of interest or enthusiasm toward the significance of this research study.

Maximum variation. The criteria for maximum variation included ensuring experience levels with a minimum of 5 years up to a maximum of 40 years. This allowed various perspectives from seasoned and fresh executive coaches to enrich the findings. Additionally, participants reflected a diversity of industry backgrounds, ages, gender, ethnicity and educational backgrounds. This allowed a richness of data and maximized the chance that the findings closely reflect different perspectives. The following Human Subjects considerations were taken into account in recruiting these individuals.

Human subject consideration

Much progress has been gained through scientific and behavioral research. However, a number of research studies in the mid 20th century actually caused more harm than good without ethical guidelines for the protection of human subjects, (Belmont Report, 1979). Examples include substantial human subjects abuses in biomedical research during World War II in concentration camps. As a result, the Nuremberg code, developed at the Nuremberg War Crime Trials, set foundational guideline and standards and became a prototype of many future standards for the protection of human subjects (Belmont Report, 1979). Such protection of human subjects is necessary in order to ensure that behavioral and biological research projects protect the rights of subjects first and foremost, as the highest priority, regardless of other project research considerations. The National Research Act of 1974 called for the creation of a National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research. This body put together the Belmont Report (1979) that lays out the ethical foundations of such research and creates guidelines for conducting the research.

The Belmont Report (1979) lays out the foundational standards of ethical conduct in three main areas: (a) boundaries between practice and research; (b) basic ethical practices such as respect, justice, and beneficence; and (c) the application of such standards to include informed consent (comprehension, information, voluntariness), assessment of risks and benefits of the specific research design, and selection of subjects. In this dissertation research, human subjects considerations are highly regarded, and all research of human participants is conducted in alignment with federally stated ethical and professional research standards as

approved by Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Boards (IRBs). As such, this research is in accordance with the U.S. Code of Federal Regulations, DHHS (CFR), Title 45 Part 46 (45 CFR 46), Protection of Human Research Subjects, and Parts 160 and 164, Standards for Privacy of Individually Identifiable Health Information and the California Protection of Human Subjects in Medical Experimentation Act. Pepperdine University IRB functions to (a) protect human subject dignity and welfare, and (b) support ethical research practices as stated by federal regulations. In this regard, the IRB approval process for this research included an application process with the Pepperdine University Graduate School of Education and Psychology and submission to the Graduate School and Submissions IRB (Appendix A).

An informed consent form (Appendix B) was sent to all participants to clearly let them know that their participation is fully voluntary, that their names will not be publicly shared without their full consent, and that results are only utilized to offer an overview perspective of executive coaching best practices. The confidentiality of all participants was given a high priority by assuring that (a) all aspects of the study were fully disclosed to subjects; (b) all responses were anonymous, with real names removed and pseudonyms identified to protect the reporting of data from individual subjects; and (c) all original data files were password-protected and only accessible by the researcher. The risks for participating in the survey included the loss of an hour of work time, and possible emotional distress in considering the answers to the questions, which are in regard to the challenges and strategies in providing executive coaching to global leaders. As such, a list of coaches and therapists who specialize in dealing with this type of emotional distress was provided to the participants. These participating coaches and therapists offered to provide a free session to participants should

they experience such emotional distress. Participants were notified as to the significant benefits of this study in setting a benchmark of best coaching practices. This was accomplished by including the Significance of Study section into the body of the Consent Form (Appendix B), addressing the significance of their participation in ensuring a robust data set. The following section provides a detailed overview of how the data was collected.

Data collection

While quantitative studies collect data in the form of numbers, qualitative research studies collect data in the form of words (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2015). These words are collected in one or combination of three general ways: (a) using interviews that capture people's experience, (b) using observations to record people's behaviors, or (c) using documents to gather quotes or excerpts about people's experiences (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). While observations are mainly utilized in case studies and ethnographies, interviews are utilized in a variety of qualitative research studies, including phenomenological studies which aim to gain a deeper understanding of a shared phenomena (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). This study utilized semi-structured open-ended interview questions to collect data from 15 participants. The following section provides an overview of the data collection process:

The 20 potential participants received an invitation email (Appendix C) with a follow up phone call by the researcher. The invitation email described the study with the following areas:

1. The voluntary nature of the study;
2. Description of the study as a requirement for my doctoral dissertation;
3. Description of the study's overall purpose;
4. Description of the study's significance;

5. Overview of the interview and research methodology;
6. Their potential time commitment if they choose to participate;
7. Discussion of confidentiality and anonymity.

Those who agreed to participate received a thank you email (Appendix D) from the researcher that also included an Informed Consent form (Appendix B). This email provided the details of all aspects of the study including human subjects protections, with an invitation to meet for an in person interview at a convenient location for the participant. In cases where an in person interview was not convenient for the participant, phone or Skype sessions were conducted. During the interview, all effort was made to ensure the comfort of the human subject. This was accomplished by inviting the participant to ask any questions about the study, and if they felt physically comfortable and ready for the interview.

Two iPhone recorders were used to record the conversation, with prior consent given by the interviewee. This would ensure that if one recorder failed, then the other would capture the data. In addition to the list of questions, the interview protocol or guide (Appendix E) included: the date of the interview, the location where the interview takes place, the name of the interviewer, the name of the interviewee and the position/job-title of the interviewee. The interviews took place within the designated 60-minutes set aside for the interview. The following section provides an overview of the interview techniques and protocols that were utilized in order to ensure best outcomes.

Interview techniques

Face to face interviews allowed for a more in-depth analysis of the topics and further exploration of each question (Robson, 2011). The interview technique for this dissertation study utilized a face to face semi-structured style using open-ended questions focused on gaining a deeper understanding of the four research questions (Table 1). The following section provides an overview of the considerations taken into account in order to determine this particular interview technique.

Dexter (1970) describes an interview in the context of a qualitative research study as a “conversation with a purpose” (as cited in Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 107). The purpose is to understand an individual’s thoughts, feelings and experiences of a particular phenomenon (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2015). An interview, therefore, goes beyond what is visible to that which we usually cannot access through observation alone (Patton, 2015). There are a number of factors that impact the selection of specific interview techniques for qualitative studies, including (a) the extent of structure or standardization that is needed (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Robson, 2011); (b) the philosophical underpinning of the study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Roulston, 2010); (c) the disciplinary perspective of the study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Seidman, 2013; Spradley, 1979); (d) whether data collection requires a group format (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Stewart & Shamdasani, 2015); or (e) whether data collection will utilize an online platform (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Salmons, 2015; Tuttas, 2015).

In terms of structure, interview techniques range from fully structured interviews driven mainly by the order and wording of questions, to fully unstructured interviews that are conversational and guided only by a general topic. This continuum includes: (a) fully structured

or standardized interviews with specific questions which must be asked precisely in the manner stated; (b) semi structured interviews which rely upon an interview guide with a list of questions that may be paraphrased for easier understanding or asked in any order that is relevant and include possible spontaneous follow up questions that are relevant to the discussion; and (c) fully unstructured interviews which only state a general topic area and allow for a conversation about the topic (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Robson, 2011). The downside of fully structured or standardized interviews is the possibility of not being able to access an individual's experience, perceptions or feelings about the particular phenomena (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Fully structured interviews assume that all participants understand the specific vocabulary that is used in stating the questions. Such interviews therefore give privilege to the researcher's view of the world (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Scholars contend that the best use of fully structured interviews is perhaps in collecting demographic data, conduct standardized interviews or to request definitions for specific terms (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

Qualitative studies generally utilize less structured formats based on the assumption that participants have unique perspectives and must be given the freedom to express their views (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Robson, 2011). Semi structured interview techniques are based on the assumption that the interviewer does not know what will emerge during an interview. Therefore, while the interviewer uses a set of predetermined questions, the structure of the interview does not depend on the order or specific wording of the questions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015), allowing the researcher to be fully present to the evolving nature of the interview session. Typically used in early phases of a qualitative research study, fully unstructured interviews are used when the researcher does not have much familiarity with

the topic, does not have a set of questions and therefore primarily relies on an exploratory approach to learn about the situation. The goal of many unstructured interview techniques is thus to learn enough about the topic in order to formulate a set of questions for future interviews (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

Aside from the extent of structure that is needed, interview techniques may also be determined by the philosophical foundation of the research study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Roulston, 2010). For example, Roulston (2010) identified six types of philosophical assumptions that impact the type of interview technique used (as cited in Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). These include: (a) a neo-positivist philosophical foundation which assumes that by asking the right questions and identifying biases, valid findings are possible; (b) a romantic philosophical foundation which assumes that it is impossible to separate biases, thus allowing subjectivities through intimate and revealing conversations; (c) a constructionist philosophical foundation which assumes that how the interview is constructed also impacts and constructs the findings; (d) a postmodern philosophical foundation which aims to identify the multiple truths and realities of participant experiences; (e) a transformative philosophical foundation which aims to expand the participant's knowledge or perception of themselves; and (f) a decolonizing philosophical foundation which aims to prioritize or privilege the indigenous or minority perspectives of the participants (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

The specific disciplinary perspective of the qualitative study may also impact the choice of interview technique. For example, an ethnographic study that is immersed within a cultural anthropological perspective utilizes interview questions that mainly focus on specific rituals, myths, or rites of participants (Spradley, 1979). A qualitative study that is phenomenological in

perspective would utilize open ended interview questions using a semi-structured approach to capture a deeper understanding of the meaning that participants give to their unique lived experiences of a particular phenomena (Creswell, 2013; Marshall & Rossman, 2015; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Seidman, 2013). The need for an interactive group approach for data collection would require a focus group interview technique. Such an approach utilizes an interactive discussion format typically based on semi-structured interview questions to gain a deeper understanding of how a group of 6 to 8 individuals construct meaning on a specific experience (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Stewart & Shamdasani, 2015). A focus group structure works best when groups of individuals share a common experience but do not usually have a chance to discuss the topic (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

And finally, if an interview is conducted online, it will impact the type of interview technique utilized. For example, interviews may be conducted through the use of email, online forums, social media (such as Facebook or Twitter), blogs, Skype or Adobe Connect, among others (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). The specific technique may depend upon whether the interviews are collected synchronously (in real time) or asynchronously (with a lag time involved). While synchronous interviews lend themselves to online tools such as Skype or Adobe Connect that allow for verbal exchanges, asynchronous interviews lend themselves to written email format. Scholars contend that it is much easier to build rapport with participants when interviews are synchronous and face-to-face, thus allowing for observation of nonverbal cues (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Salmons, 2015). On the other hand, asynchronous techniques such as email provide an instantaneous transcript of findings that saves time and money. While online interview techniques have the advantage of freedom from geographic constraints, the

downside may include issues such as participants' unequal access to robust online technology, technology breakdowns, and confidentiality (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Salmons, 2015).

Given the above considerations, an open-ended semi-structured interview technique was utilized within a face-to-face format to ensure the best possible collection of participants' experience of executive coaching. In addition to the above considerations, specific techniques of good interviewing were utilized in order to design a series of questions that allowed for the best possible use of time and sharing of experience. These considerations of good interviewing techniques and questions are shared below.

Good interviewing techniques. Conducting good interviews takes practice and consistent feedback (Robson, 2011). As such, the pilot interview process provided the opportunity to gain practice in ensuring the questions are asked clearly and the participant is engaged effectively in providing answers that are rich in content and depth. Scholars contend that conducting the interview in person allows for informal communication to also be taken into account (i.e., body posture) and a deeper level of connection in facilitating the engagement (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2015).

In addition, successful interviews with strong data depend upon well-worded and crafted interview questions (Creswell, 2013; Robson, 2011). In general, scholars suggest creating questions that are simple and easy to understand by participants, and questions that are open ended and invite as much descriptive data as possible (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2015). Examples of open-ended question stems include: "tell me about a time when, give me an example of, what was it like when" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 120). Among the types of questions to avoid are (a) why questions which tend to be speculative in nature, (b)

multiple questions within one which tend to confuse and provide unclear data, (c) yes or no questions which limit the depth of data, and (d) leading questions which tend to promote the researcher's point of view (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

Scholars also note the importance of asking probing questions throughout the interview in order to gain as much descriptive data as possible (Glesne & Peshkin; 1992; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Probes can be as simple as a request to clarify or expand upon an answer, or a silence to acknowledge the depth of what was shared and an invitation for more sharing (Glesne & Peshkin; 1992; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Examples of probing questions include: Would you give me an example of that? Would you walk me through that? Would you tell me more? (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Overall, it is important to ensure that the interview process does not create an interrogating experience for the participant, but rather creates a safe environment for deep exploration. The following section provides an overview of how the interview questions for this study were developed.

Interview protocol

This section provides a discussion of the development of the interview questions and steps taken in order to ensure reliability, internal validity and external validity. In short, this section addresses the question: does the study provide consistency in measuring what it says it is going to measure (Robson, 2011)? In the context of qualitative research design, scholars have differing opinions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Morse & Richards, 2002). Reliability and validity are about trustworthiness and rigor: can we trust the rigor of the research design to consistently explain reality in a clear way, and are the results actually valid and true (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015)? The term reliability refers to the strength of a study's methodological

approach to provide consistency of results if the study were to be replicated, and validity refers to the study's accuracy in terms of findings (Creswell, 2009; Morse & Richards, 2002). Especially in applied research studies, where results are often used by policy makers to impact society, it is inherently critical to ensure that research results are meaningful, relevant and conducted with high rigor and high ethical standards (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Morse & Richards, 2002).

Qualitative and quantitative studies measure a research study's trustworthiness in different ways because of their differing assumptions and research focus. While a quantitative study offers a glimpse of variables in specific points in time, qualitative studies are about understanding people's experiences (Firestone, 1987; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). This difference thus impacts the ways in which reliability and validity are assessed. For example, a "quantitative study must convince the reader that procedures have been followed faithfully because very little concrete description of what anyone does is provided" (Firestone, 1987, p. 19). On the other hand, "a qualitative study provides the reader with a depiction in enough detail to show that the author's conclusion 'makes sense'" (p. 19). While some scholars contend that reliability and validity cannot be attributed to qualitative research methodologies given the subjective nature of the data collection and analysis techniques (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), others argue that a qualitative methodology demands a different set of criteria to assess its reliability and validity - such as trust value and credibility (Leininger, 1994) or consistency, dependability, and transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Advocates of qualitative research design take a strong stance for the reliability and validity of qualitative studies and offer key suggestions to strengthen a study's reliability and

validity (Creswell, 2009; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Morse & Richards, 2002). In addition, a key to ensuring strong validity of results is for the researcher to “think qualitatively,” meaning that the researcher must continue to bring strong awareness to the questions being asked and the data being collected to ensure the research “challenges the obvious, reveals the hidden and the overt, the implicit and the taken for granted, and shows these in a new light” (Morse & Richards, 2002, p. 170). Without this deeper awareness, there is a risk that results will be a “shallow, descriptive study, with few surprises, reporting the obvious” (p. 170).

Internal validity (credibility). Also referred to as credibility, internal validity is the extent to which a study measures what it says it is going to measure (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). In other words, do the findings accurately measure the reality of the situation? Are the findings credible? However, in qualitative studies, the concept of reality is not objective, but rather socially constructed, dynamic and fluid. Therefore, the internal validity or credibility of a qualitative study depends upon the care and rigor involved in understanding participant experience and providing clear and comprehensive interpretation of it (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Scholars offer various suggestions in ensuring high internal validity in qualitative studies, including:

1. Triangulate or crystalize – includes the use of multiple methods, investigators, data sources, or theories to confirm findings (Patton, 2015; Richardson 2000);
2. Respondent validation – refers to sharing emerging findings and analysis with participants in order to increase accuracy in understanding (Crosby, 2004; Maxwell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015);

3. Adequate engagement in data collection – refers to engaging long enough in data collection and ensuring enough variety of perspectives to achieve saturation of data and findings (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2015);
4. Reflexivity - where researcher positions herself or himself in the study by disclosing biases and assumptions that impact their analysis of the study (Creswell, 2013; Maxwell, 2013; Probst & Berenson, 2014);
5. Peer review - where researcher invites colleagues to review the data and findings to examine plausibility (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015)

In this research study, three of the above five recommendations were applied in order to increase credibility and internal validity, including: a) adequate engagement in data collection, b) reflexivity, and c) peer review. First, the participant selection criteria and algorithm ensured the selection of eligible participants who share the minimum criteria for inclusion but also represent a variety of demographic characteristics to ensure maximum saturation. Researcher conducted the interviews herself and also transcribed the interview tapes herself. This allowed a deep immersion and engagement in the data collection process. Second, researcher ensured bracketing of her own bias and assumptions by providing a written statement of her involvement in the field of executive coaching and her particular biases in terms of methodologies of choice. In addition, researcher kept a reflexivity journal of instances where she was aware of her own judgments and biases. Third, researcher ensure inter-rater reliability by inviting three peer review advisors representing fellow student scholars to review the codes and findings from the first three interviews. Timely feedback from this peer review

group confirmed credibility of researcher's process in coding and categorizing themes. Details of this inter-rater reliability effort are discussed below.

Inter-rater reliability. A four-step process for inter-rater reliability was conducted as follows: a) researcher coded the first three interviews; b) the 3-member peer-review committee selected from fellow doctoral candidates with expertise in qualitative research reviewed the coding results of the first three interviews; c) differences in opinions were discussed and we arrived at consensus over the coding approach; and d) using the agreed upon coding scheme, researcher coded the remaining 12 interview transcripts.

External validity (transferability). Also referred to as generalizability or transferability, external validity measures the extent to which results from a research study can be generalized to other populations or larger contexts (Creswell, 2013). The prerequisite to external validity is ensuring a strong internal validity, thus ensuring that the findings are highly reliable to begin with (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). In quantitative studies, random sampling techniques and statistical levels of confidence determine the extent to which findings can be generalized to a larger population (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). In qualitative studies, however, readers or users of the study are best poised to determine transferability of findings to other cases (Erickson, 1986; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015), thus increasing their capacity for extrapolation and meaning-making (Eisner, 1998).

Scholars thus suggest several techniques for enhancing a qualitative study's external validity or transferability, including: (a) ensuring rich, descriptive and thorough accounts of the research procedures, observations and findings - what scholars refer to as "thick description" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985); and (b) ensuring either maximum variation in the sample selection

process to allow for diverse viewpoints and possible patterns across the diverse viewpoints (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2015), or typicality sampling to narrow the focus to a specific homogenous population (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2015). In terms of their application in this study, both of these points are discussed in greater detail in the data analysis and sample selection sections.

Reliability (consistency). Also referred to as consistency or dependability, reliability examines the extent to which a study can be replicated (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). In qualitative studies, measuring consistency can be problematic because human experience is quite varied and unpredictable depending on the context (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Wolcott, 2005). Therefore, it is not possible to repeat a research study and expect to get the same results. However, scholars contend that consistency and dependability in the qualitative context is about ensuring that if others had the same data, they would arrive at the same findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). This is also highly contentious because in a qualitative context, even if the same researcher reviewed the same data using the same process, different results may occur given the contextual and variable nature of human experience and understanding (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Tracy, 2013).

Therefore, scholars suggest a number of mechanisms to increase the reliability of qualitative studies, including an audit trail, in addition to the use of triangulation and respondent validation as mentioned earlier in the internal validation section (Merriam & Tisdell). An audit trail refers to the journals or historical logs that the researcher keeps in order to keep a record of the full research process. In this way, others are able to refer to the audit trail and gain a deeper level of understanding and confidence about the researcher's choices

and how the researcher arrived at the specific findings (Day, 1993; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Richards, 2015).

In this study, reliability procedures included peer review and keeping of a meticulous log of study procedures, challenges, decisions, and special considerations in terms of coding and analysis. As such, care was taken to take both detailed notes, and ensure clear recording of all interviews. The taped recordings were transcribed by the researcher in order to deepen the researcher's review of the interview content and include non-verbal communications such as pauses into the transcript. Care was also taken to ensure clarity and consistency in the coding across all the analysis of all interview data. Furthermore, care was taken to ensure that the same questions are asked of all participants in the same order. In addition, once expert validity of interview questions was conducted (see below), the interview questions were piloted with 3 individuals who are also executive coaches. They provided feedback in terms of the clarity of questions. In addition, the peer review of the coding and findings from the first three interviews (as discussed in the internal validity section above) ensured higher inter-rater reliability.

Interview questions. The interview questions were designed specifically to create a deeper understanding of each research question based on in depth literature review, personal knowledge as an executive coach, and the three-step process of establishing validity and reliability (Prima Facie, Peer Review and Expert Review processes to be discussed below). While participants reflected a rich representation of executive coaches who are successfully supporting global leaders, the following steps were taken to address prima facie, peer review and expert review validity of the interview questions:

Prima facie validity. Care was taken to ensure that each interview question upheld prima facie or face value validation with the intended research question. As such, a table was created (Table 1) to include the interview questions next to the best possible research question. Thus, at face value, the interview questions appeared to be the right fit for each of the designated research questions.

Table 8

Research and Interview Questions (Prima Facie)

Research Questions	Corresponding Interview Questions
RQ1: What are the strategies and best practices employed by executive coaches working with senior level executives in global organizations?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What are the most pressing challenges faced by your clients? 2. What planning process do you use to prepare for a coaching engagement with your client? 3. Are there any stakeholders who must be involved in your planning process? And if so, how do you best involve them? 4. How do you determine the needed strategies to use with your client? 5. What strategies do you use to support clients in engaging with complexity? 6. What are the top strategies and best practices you use to support your clients?

(continued)

Research Questions	Corresponding Interview Questions
RQ 2: What challenges are faced by executive coaches in implementing those strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What challenges do you face in the planning process? 2. What resistances do your clients exhibit during the coaching session? 3. Does anything go wrong that you had not planned for? How do you address that?
RQ 3: How do executive coaches measure the success of their strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How did you define success for your coaching sessions? 2. What are the final outcomes of your coaching sessions? 3. How do you measure and track your success?
RQ 4: What recommendations do executive coaches make in coaching senior level executives in global organizations?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If you could do things differently in the planning, engagement and post-engagement phases of your coaching, what would you do? 2. What advice would you have for other coaches working with senior level executives in global organizations?

Peer review validity. Similar to inter-rater reliability methods used in quantitative studies, qualitative studies utilize peer reviewers in “peer debriefing sessions” to discuss the procedures in detail and often acting as “devil’s advocate” to critically review and assess the methodology and interview questions (Creswell, 2013, p. 251). In this study, a peer group of 3 doctoral students (Appendix F) with expertise in qualitative research were invited to provide peer review validity. The process included the following steps: (a) each peer group member was provided with a summary of this dissertation research with instructions to review each research question and the list of corresponding interview questions, and (b) each person was then

invited to determine if each interview question is “relevant to the research question” in which case they would mark it as “keep as stated,” or if the interview question is “irrelevant to the research question” in which case they would mark it as “delete it,” or if the interview question “needs to be modified,” in which case they would mark it as “needs modification,” and finally there is space provided for any other recommendations or suggestions. Results are below.

Table 9

Research and Interview Questions (Peer Review Version)

Research Questions	Corresponding Interview Questions
RQ1: What are the strategies and best practices employed by executive coaches working with senior level executives in global organizations?	Icebreaker: tell me a bit about your career and what led you to coach global leaders? 1. What’s the typical profile of your clientele, in terms of age, gender, experience? 2. What makes a busy global leader want to make time to coach with you? 3. If your clients were to thank you for their success, what would they say about your contributions to making their success possible? 4. If you were speaking to a room full of eager executive coaches who want to learn about the best strategies and practices to support senior level global executives, what would those be?
RQ 2: What challenges are faced by executive coaches in implementing those strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?	5. What might you tell those eager executive coaches in terms of challenges they might encounter in implementing these strategies and practices? 6. What are you most proud of in terms of how you meet these challenges?
RQ 3: How do executive coaches measure the success of their strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?	7. What success criteria are you usually accountable for when you are coaching global leaders? 8. How do you measure your success?

(continued)

Research Questions	Corresponding Interview Questions
RQ 4: What recommendations do executive coaches make in coaching senior level executives in global organizations?	9. What role will coaches play in developing global leaders to be more effective in responding to events in the global economy? 10. What advice would you have for other coaches working with senior level executives in global organizations? 11. What's the best way for aspiring coaches to get to where you are?

Expert review validity. The dissertation committee members, Drs. Farzin Madjidi, Lani Fraizer, and Gabriela Miramontes, then provided final examination and review of the interview questions once the peer review was completed. The majority had to provide unanimous approval of each question. Committee chair intervened in case of a tie to provide the deciding vote. Final results are listed below.

Table 10

Research and Interview Questions (Expert Review Version)

Research Questions	Corresponding Interview Questions
RQ1: What are the strategies and best practices employed by executive coaches working with senior level executives in global organizations?	Icebreaker: tell me a bit about your career and what led you to coach global leaders? 1. What is the secret to effectively coaching a global executive? 2. In your opinion, what is the skill that sets a highly successful executive coach apart from the rest in terms of coaching global leaders? 3. If you were speaking to a room full of eager executive coaches who want to learn about the best strategies and practices to support senior level global executives, what would those be?

(continued)

Research Questions	Corresponding Interview Questions
RQ 2: What challenges are faced by executive coaches in implementing those strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?	<p>4. What might you tell those eager executive coaches in terms of challenges they might encounter in implementing these strategies and practices?</p> <p>5. Do you ever face constraints coaching global executives in terms of what you know works best in coaching and what the executive, organization or context will allow you to do? And if yes, please explain these constraints and how you might deal with them.</p> <p>6. What is the hardest part about doing good coaching with global executives?</p> <p>7. Have you ever experienced an ethical dilemma in your coaching of global leaders? If so, please explain it further and how you would address the situation.</p>
RQ 3: How do executive coaches measure the success of their strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?	<p>8. What success criteria are you usually accountable for when you are coaching global leaders?</p> <p>9. How do the organizations you've worked with typically measure coaching against these criteria?</p> <p>10. How do you measure your success?</p> <p>11. If your clients were to thank you for their success, what would they say about your contributions to making their success possible?</p> <p>12. What are you most proud of in terms of how you meet these challenges?</p>
RQ 4: What recommendations do executive coaches make in coaching senior level executives in global organizations?	13. What advice would you have for other coaches working with senior level executives in global organizations?
if time permits...	What role will coaches play in developing global leaders to be more effective in responding to events in the global economy?

Statement of Personal Bias

As stated earlier, a cornerstone of a phenomenological research study is the researcher's ability to bracket their own experience in order to clearly hear the interview responses (Creswell, 2013; Quay, 2016). This process, which is referred to as epoche, allows the researcher to truly hear what is being shared, instead of project their own experience onto the conversation. Epoche is an opportunity for the researcher to bring transparency to the research and deepen the trust with the interviewee (Creswell, 2013). Researcher has worked as an executive coach for over a decade and has participated in a number of executive coaching training programs over the years. The researcher considers executive coaching as her craft, and prioritizes her life long learning and deepening of her expertise in this area. Over the years, the researcher has come to identify key methods of executive coaching as more effective than others in supporting global executives. As such, care was taken by the researcher to be transparent about her background and expertise. In addition, the researcher took the following steps as suggested by Creswell (2013): (a) shared personal expertise and experience, and possible biases, prior to the interview process; (b) recorded biased thoughts or feelings in a journal to ensure it would be taken into account during data analysis; and (c) ensured that recorded biases were included in the study findings so that readers can be informed of the researcher bias.

The following is a result of the researcher's reflections on the epoche process:

As I reflected on my profession and experience as an executive coach, I first recalled the long and enduring path that led me to pursue a career as an executive coach. As an adolescent, I was in an arranged marriage with a man who was not very pleasant. I did eventually divorce

this man and focused on creating a healthy and vibrant life for myself. However, during my 20s and 30s, there was an intense individuality within me that drove me to certain levels of success, yet also kept me from creating and enjoying an interdependent community. The vision of wanting to be a more effective and fulfilled individual within a nourishing community led me to study with great teachers around the country. The culmination of many years of personal development and growth was a professional coaching certification that I completed through a program that focused a great deal on transformation. The methodology went beyond a cognitive/behavioral approach to coaching and instead focused on examining underlying belief systems and assumptions that lead to specific choices and even to self-sabotaging behaviors. Upon reflecting on the special nature of my decade long transformational education experiences, I noticed that I have some biases toward other methods of executive coaching. This realization allowed me to open up to the possibility of learning from executive coaches who have expertise in other schools of thought. I am very grateful for the epoche process since it allowed me to examine my own personal bias, and set it aside in order to glean and learn from expert coaches who may practice other approaches to supporting global leaders. Throughout the data collection and data analysis process, I ensured the recording of my personal biases in a journal to bring awareness to and bracketing of any personal experience that might impact my ability to clearly understand the data being shared.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is a process in which the researcher attempts to make meaning from the collected data in order to answer the predefined research questions of the study (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Data analysis is thus a complex iterative process of reviewing

bits of data and determining the larger categories or themes that are emerging (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). The task of the researcher is to identify the units of data that provide insight into a deeper understanding of the research questions. The units of data may be just a word, a sentence or several pages of descriptive narrative (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). There are two characteristics that define such units of data: (a) each unit must illuminate some aspect of the overall study in some way, and (b) each unit must stand on its own in terms of a complete concept (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The units of data are then analyzed to determine if they repeat across the data set in some way. If they do, they can be categorized into codes that make sense out of a set of data units (Creswell, 2013; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Saldana, 2013). In qualitative research, codes are used to “symbolically assign a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data” (Saldana, 2013, p. 3). An expansive approach to determining units of data is referred to as “open coding” or unstructured coding which means the researcher is open to all possible types of coding or categorization that is arising (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; p. 204). The process of creating categories that result from an open coding approach is referred to as “axial coding” or “analytical coding,” referring to the reflective and analytical approach to making meaning out of various units of data (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; p. 206).

In the case of this dissertation research, an open/unstructured coding mechanism is used to review the data that is contained within the interview recordings and transcripts. The coding process is the critical step that translates the data into meaningful explanations (Charmaz, 2006; Saldana, 2013). The codification that takes place within the coding process aims to create a systematic order with clear categories and classifications of the raw data

(Saldana, 2013). This enables the data analysis to take place by analyzing the various patterns that become present by reviewing the codes. Creswell (2013) notes a spiral process of data analysis for qualitative research where “one enters with data ... and exits with an account or a narrative” with the in-between process including a circling process in layers of analysis (p. 182). This spiral, according to Creswell (2013), includes various levels or loops which include: (a) data management, (b) reading and memoing, (c) describing and classifying, and (d) representing and visualizing. Below is a more detailed description of each level:

Data management: It is important to store the data in computer files with password-protected security to ensure confidentiality and protection of original data. Interview data were saved in a specific password protected digital folder on both the researcher’s laptop computer and on a flash drive kept in a cool, dry and safe location. Written transcripts were created immediately after each recorded interview in order to ensure the best recall of nonverbal cues, and to ensure that the voluminous amount of data is will be collected is managed methodically throughout the data collection process.

Reading and memoing: It is important for the researcher to read the interview content several times for a deeper level of understanding by writing notes and noting any key concepts that stand out. Merriam and Tisdell (2015) suggest “having a conversation with the data—asking questions of it, making comments to it, and so on. This process of making notations next to bits of data that strike you as potentially relevant for answering your research questions is also called coding” (p. 204). Therefore, the researcher actually transcribed the audio files of each interview. This provided the opportunity to become more deeply engaged with the data and to start the coding process early by making important memos and notes. This ensured that

the depth of the interviewee's thoughts and experiences were fully recorded and taken into account. The notes and comments were made in regards to data that appeared to be relevant to the research questions being examined.

Describing and classifying: The researcher coded three interviews in depth, and then created a chart of 25-30 codes and categories. These codes were developed into larger groups of five to seven themes, and finally interpreted into deeper levels of meaning. As scholars contend, it is important that the categories and themes reflect a pattern that is occurring throughout the data, and not specifically a unit of data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). As Glaser & Strauss (1967) explain, "these categories have a life of their own apart from the data from which they came" (as cited in Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 207). The following guidelines offered by Merriam and Tisdell (2015) were followed to ensure accurate creation of categories: (a) categories need to reflect the purpose of the study and the research questions being explored, (b) categories need to be exhaustive and include all of the collected data, (c) categories need to be mutually exclusive and include similar data, (d) categories need to sensitively and accurately reflect the data that is included within them, and (e) categories need to be congruent in reflecting the same level of abstraction, for example in capturing the types of learning, categories must all reflect a variation of learning.

Given that qualitative data analysis does not rely on statistical tests of significance, the researcher relies a great deal on their own intelligence, judgements and gut instincts in determining the significance of data and how they form into categories and themes (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2015). Therefore, to ensure accuracy of the categories and themes, a co-reviewer process was utilized to establish interrater reliability. Once data was coded, a table

was created with themes as columns and key words and phrases that relate to the theme in the rows. Next, a two-person panel of reviewers reviewed the table and offered suggestions for modification. The dissertation committee then reviewed the recommendations and finalized the coding process. Once the coding process was approved, the researcher continued onto coding the remaining 13 interviews.

4) Representing and visualizing: It is important to present qualitative data results and finding with as much texture and detail as possible in order to reflect its subjective and contextual nature. The findings from this study were tabulated in easy to read, review and interpret manner in order to best present the lived experience of each participant.

Chapter Summary

This study utilized a qualitative phenomenological approach to gain a deeper understanding of the lived experiences of executive coaches who support global leaders. Participant selection was based on an algorithm that ensures maximum variation. Interview questions were developed in collaboration with three executive coaches who agreed to help pilot the questions, and a peer review and expert committee panel to ensure prima facie and content validity. Data analysis was conducted in collaboration with a peer review and expert committee to ensure inter-rater reliability of coding and development of larger categories.

Chapter 4: Findings

The design of this phenomenological study was to gain a deeper understanding of the best strategies and practices that executive coaches use to support global leaders in this time of global complexity and unprecedented change, and the challenges they face in implementing and measuring the success of these strategies. This chapter provides details of participant recruitment, demographics and findings for each interview questions and the following research questions:

RQ1: What are the strategies and best practices employed by executive coaches supporting senior level executives in global organizations?

RQ2: What challenges are faced by executive coaches in implementing those strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?

RQ3: How do executive coaches measure the success of their strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?

RQ4: What recommendations do executive coaches make for coaching senior level executives in global organizations?

Participant Recruitment

The participant recruitment process was designed to ensure maximum variation of participants across demographics, experience and executive coaching style. Participant selection was based on a combination of LinkedIn algorithm search, Global Gurus list of Top 30 Coaches, and key informant referrals which resulted in the identification of 62 executive coaches with over five years of experience supporting global leaders. Twenty initial participants were selected from the list and were sent a formal invitation via LinkedIn in early January 2017.

Given the low number of acceptances by late January, the remainder of the individuals on the list of 62 potential executive coaches also received a formal invitation.

A total of 39 (63%) responded affirmatively to the invitation to participate. Participants include the co-founders or early developers of a number of internationally recognized coach training and leadership development organizations, including the International Coaching Federation (ICF) and the Coaches Training Institute (CTI) as listed below:

Table 11

Interview Participants, Respective Organizations, Interview Date

Participant	Organization	Interview Date
1. Riette Ackermann	Change Pace Coaching	March 22, 2017
2. David Allen	David Allen Company	February 20, 2017
3. Veronica Alweiss	Veronica Alweiss Coaching, LLC	February 28, 2017
4. Kevin Cashman	Korn Ferry International	February 21, 2017
5. Steve Chandler	Steve Chandler, Inc.	February 1, 2017
6. Diana Chapman	Conscious Leadership Group	February 22, 2017
7. Jim Dethmer	Conscious Leadership Group	February 23, 2017
8. Peter Felsmann	Perform Productivity Solutions	January 25, 2017
9. John Foster	Thrive Market	February 10, 2017
10. Peter Hawkins	Bath Consulting	March 1, 2017
11. Kristi Hedges	The Hedges Company	February 10, 2017
12. K.C. Hildreth	Hildreth Consulting	February 16, 2017
13. Joey Hubbard	Thrive Global	February 13, 2017
14. Jeff Hull	Harvard Institute of Coaching	March 8, 2017
15. Annie Hyman-Pratt	IMPAQ Entrepreneur	February 19, 2017
16. Robert Kaiser	Kaiser Leadership Solutions	February 9, 2017
17. Athena Katsaros	IdeaTribe	February 8, 2017
18. Karen Kimsey-House	Coaches Training Institute	March 8, 2017
19. Vanda Marlow	Independent coach	January 30, 2017
20. Craig Martin	Martin Global Leaders	February 3, 2017
21. John McKee	McKee and Associates	February 7, 2017
22. Angus McLeod	Angus McLeod Associates	March 6, 2017
23. Sabine Menon	Reflections, Ltd.	February 26, 2017
24. Freeman Michaels	From Group to Team Leadership Solns	January 25, 2017
25. Robert Mintz	Korn Ferry International	February 27, 2017

(continued)

Participant	Organization	Interview Date
26. Michael Neill	Genius Catalyst Inc.	March 6, 2017
27. Gary Ranker	Global CEO Coach	February 10, 2017
28. Marcia Reynolds	Covisioning, LLC	February 6, 2017
29. Kate Roeske-Zummer	Step-Up Leadership	February 9, 2017
30. Mark Samuel	Impaq, Inc.	February 23, 2017
31. John Scherer	Scherer Leadership International	March 19, 2017
32. Ina Schjott-Brackman	ISB-Co Active	February 14, 2017
33. Kirk Souder	Enso	February 2, 2017
34. Yvonne Sum	5Echo Consulting	February 6, 2017
35. Nader Vasseghi	Vistage	February 15, 2017
36. Ron West	WEST Executive Inc.	February 15, 2017
37. Jennifer Whitcomb	The Trillium Group	February 8, 2017
38. John Doe	XX (request for anonymity)	February 1, 2017
39. Paul Zonneveld	Mobius Executive Leadership	February 13, 2017

Data Collection

Data collection took place between January 25, 2017 and March 22, 2017. Although the original timeline included the completion of data collection by February 15, scheduling conflicts demanded that data collection be extended. Participants were initially sent an IRB-approved invitation via LinkedIn In-Mail function to participate. Those who accepted the invitation were given a follow up email or phone call to provide a brief introduction to the study and answer any questions. An electronic informed consent form approved by Pepperdine University was emailed to all participants. Upon completion of the informed consent form, a mutually convenient 60-minute time block was identified for the interview. The majority of the interviews were conducted using Zoom video conferencing platform given the participant schedule and geographic location. Prior to the interview, a copy of the interview protocol was provided to each participant for their convenience. Participants were invited to complete the demographics/background section of the interview prior to the interview session. Sessions

were recorded via the Zoom recording capability. Demographics/background questions included the following:

- Years of experience as an executive coach
- Age
- Ethnicity
- Coach training certifications, executive education, etc)
- Majority of coaching clients reside in which cities/countries
- The average age of your coaching clients
- The typical job title of your coaching clients
- Usual way coaching clients find you
- Primary language(s) you conduct coaching sessions in
- Primary language(s) of your coaching clients
- Typical way you conduct coaching sessions (phone, in person, etc.)
- Typical reason a global leader seeks you
- The theoretical basis or underlying principal(s) of your coaching method

Interview questions included the following:

Ice breaker: Tell me a bit about your career and what led you to coach global leaders?

- IQ1: In your opinion, what's the secret to effectively coaching a global executive?
- IQ2: If you were speaking to a room full of eager executive coaches who want to learn about the best strategies and practices to support senior level global executives, what would those be?

- IQ3: What might you tell those eager executive coaches in terms of challenges they might encounter in implementing these strategies and practices?
- IQ4: What are you most proud of in terms of how you meet these challenges?
- IQ5: In your opinion, what is the skill that sets a highly successful executive coach apart from the rest?
- IQ6: Do you ever face constraints coaching global executives in terms of what you know works best in coaching and what the executive, organization or context will allow you to do? And if yes, please explain these constraints and how you might deal with them.
- IQ7: In your opinion, what's the toughest part about doing good coaching with global executives?
- IQ8: Have you ever experienced an ethical dilemma in your coaching of global leaders? If so, please explain it further and how you would address the situation.
- IQ9: What success criteria are you usually accountable for when you are coaching global leaders?
- IQ10: How do the organizations you've worked with typically measure coaching against these criteria?
- IQ11: How do you measure your success?
- IQ12: If your clients were to thank you for their success, what would they say about your contributions to making their success possible?
- IQ13: What role will executive coaches play in developing global leaders to be more effective in responding to events in the global economy?

- IQ14. What is the best way for executive coaches to continue to sharpen their skills?

Data Analysis

All interviews were recorded and transcribed by the researcher thus ensuring deep familiarity with responses. Each transcript was then read three times for comprehension of themes. The first three interview transcripts were reviewed and themes were highlighted and coded. These three transcripts and codes were shared with three doctoral candidates at the Pepperdine University Graduate School of Education and Psychology who served as a reliability review panel. They reviewed the codes for each of the three transcripts. We jointly came to a consensus of the specific codes for each of the interview questions.

Data Display

The data display is organized according to the demographics/background questions and the four research questions. As the answers for each interview question were reviewed, common themes were recognized and highlighted. These themes were then categorized into emerging codes for easy display and understanding. The graphs for each interview question indicate the total number of participants who answered the question (N). In some cases, the participant either did not want to answer the question or we did not have enough time to address the question. Most questions had 38 responses. The specific “N” for each interview question is listed on the corresponding graph.

Demographics/background. The participant demographics section was completed utilizing a combination of completed demographics/background survey and review of participant LinkedIn profiles (Table 5). The participant background section (Table 6) reflects the results of the demographics/background survey that was completed by 28 participants (72%).

Of the 39 participants, the average age is 57 years old. The youngest participant is 45 years of age, with the oldest at 75 years of age. The majority of participants (56%) are between the ages of 51 to 60 years of age, followed by 23% who are between 61 and 70 years of age, 15% who are between 41 and 50 years of age, and 5% who are between 71 and 80 years of age. They included 14 (36%) women and 25 (64%) men. Their average years of experience in coaching is 17.2 years. The majority, 37 (97%), are Caucasian, with one Black and one Asian participant. The majority have either a bachelor of arts/science degree (31%) or a masters degree (19%). There are six participants (15%) with a doctor of philosophy degree, one with a doctor of dentistry degree, and one with an AA degree. Nineteen participants (49%) have completed an International Coaching Federation approved coaching certification program (see Table 12), with the remainder (51%) entering the field of coaching through personal/professional growth development training. Among the participants, 15 (38%) have written one or more books, for a total of 35 books on leadership or coaching. Thirty participants (77%) reside in the United States, with the remaining participants (23%) residing in Norway (one participant), Netherlands (two participants), Mexico (one participant), France (one participant), Poland (one participant), Malaysia (one participant), South Africa (one participant) and the United Kingdom (one participant).

Table 12

Coaching Certification Background of Participating Coaches

Coach's certification	Number of Participants
1. The Coaching & Positive Psychology Institute*	1
2. Certified Professional Career Coach (CPCC)	1
3. Ctr for Right Relationship, Org & Rel Sys Coaching*	1
4. Coach U*	1
5. Coaches Training Institute (CTI)*	4
6. Fielding Evidence Based Coaching Program*	1
7. Georgetown University Coaching Certification*	1
8. Gordon Inst of Bus. Sci (GIBS) Prof Coaching Program*	1
9. International Coach Academy (ICA)*	1
10. Meta Coach Foundation Certification Program	1
11. Neurolinguistic Programming Certification	1
12. New Ventures West, Integral Coaching*	4
13. Newfield Network Certified Exec Coach Training*	1
14. So African College of Appl Psych, Exec Coach Cert*	1
15. Team Coaching Int'l, Certified Team Perf Coach*	1
16. Univ. of St Monica, Soul Centered Prof. Coaching	1
17. Univ. of Pennsylvania, Master Coach Certification	1
18. Univ. of Texas, Prof. & Executive Coaching Certificate*	1
19. Worldwide Assoc. of Bus. Coaches (WABC)	1
<i>Total number of coach training programs cited</i>	19
<i>*ICF Certified programs cited</i>	13
<i>Participants with ICF-Accredited Certifications</i>	19

The 28 (72%) participants who completed the background survey (Table 12) listed 19 executive education programs that they completed and 13 assessments certifications they hold. The majority (75%) listed a psychological theory as part of their underlying coaching principles, with 57% identifying a coaching principle or skill, 36% identifying a mind/brain/thought framework, 25% identifying a leadership framework, 11% an adult development theory, 7% a learning theory, and 7% a key thought leader. The average age of coaching clients is listed at 44.3 years of age, with the majority of participants (79%) noting that their clients live in the

U.S., 36% noted that their clients live either in Europe or the U.K., 18% noted that their clients live in Latin America, 18% noted that their clients live in Asia, and 14% noted that their clients live in Australia. The majority of participants (71%) noted that their clients hold a c-suite or CEO-successor role, 42% noted that their clients hold an executive vice president, senior vice president or vice president role, 17% noted that their clients hold a director level, executive creative director, or director of training and development role, and 10% noted that their clients are either a president, founder, head of country or owner of their organization. Of the 28 participants who completed the background survey, 61% said that the typical reason clients seek their coaching services is for leadership development purposes, 29% said it was because of their reputation or key expertise, 18% said it was because they were seeking a promotion or to become better at their job, 18% said it was because of needing to learn tactical business skills, and 11% said it was through referrals or mandates from the HR or boss.

Table 13

Executive Education Background of Participating Coaches

Coach's executive education	Number of Participants
1. Advanced Client Systems (ACS)	1
2. Angeles Arrien Mentoring	1
3. Byron Katie's School for the Work	1
4. Dale Carnegie Executive Courses	1
5. Fast Forward Group Executive Coaching	1
6. Harvard Executive Coaching Program	1
7. IMAGO Relationship Therapy Workshops	1
8. Insight Education	1
9. Integrative Enneagram International	1
10. Landmark Education	3
11. Liberating Structures	1
12. LifeSpring	1
13. Mankind Project	1 (continued)

14. Pransky Practitioner Training	1
15. Search Inside Yourself Ldrshp Inst (Google)	1
16. Three Principles Mentoring	1
17. UCLA Management Dev for Entrepreneurs	1
18. USM MA in Spiritual Psychology	2
19. Vistage Executive Development	1
<i>Total number of executive development programs</i>	19

Table 14

Assessment Instruments Used by Participating Coaches

Specific Tool	Number of Participants
Personality/Attitude Assessments	
1. Big Five Personality Test	1
2. DISC	1
3. EQ-I 2.0 Emotional Intelligence	1
4. Hogan	1
5. iWAM	1
6. Myers Briggs Type Indicator	1
7. Tilt 365 Certification	1
360 Feedback	
8. Korn Ferry VOICE	1
9. Leadership Circle Profile 360	3
Interpersonal Needs	
10. The Attentional	1
11. Interpersonal Style Inventory	1
12. Firo B	1
13. Thomas Kilmann	1

Table 15

Underlying Theoretical Principles Used by Participating Coaches

Specific Principle	Number of Participants
Psychological theory	
1. Cognitive Behavioral Psychology	4
2. Existential Psychology	1
3. Gestalt	1
4. Integral Psychology	1
5. Jungian Depth Psychology	2
6. Narrative Psychology	1
7. Pastoral Counseling	1
8. Positive Psychology	2
9. Pragmatism	1
10. Psycho-Dynamics	1
11. Psychology of Executive Coaching	1
12. Saboteur Work	1
13. Somatic Psychology	1
14. Spiritual Psychology	2
15. Transactional Analysis	1
Coaching framework/skills	
1. Active listening	1
2. Awareness-Intention-Action	1
3. Be-Do-Have	2
4. Co-Active Coaching	1
5. Coaching Circles	1
6. Developmental Coaching	1
7. Egan's Skilled Helper Model	1
8. Emotional intelligence	2
9. Four Windows Coaching	1
10. Penetrating Questions	2
11. Self as Instrument of Change	1
12. Solution-Focused Coaching	1
13. Thinking Partnership	1
Mind/Brain/Thought frameworks	
1. Mindfulness	1
2. Mindset Shift	3
3. Neurolinguistic Programing	2
4. Neuroscience	2
5. Three Principles	2

(continued)

Specific Principle	Number of Participants
Leadership/Systems framework	
1. Complexity Leadership	2
2. Systems Thinking	4
3. Tribal leadership	1
Adult developmental theory	
1. Developmental	1
2. Positive Adult Development	2
Learning theory	
1. Action Learning Coaching	1
2. Adult Learning Theory	1
Key thought leaders	
1. David Hawkins	1
2. Kets De Vries	1

Table 16

Position of Participating Coaches' Typical Clients

Background	Number of Participants
C-Suite, CxO, CEO Successor	20
Executive VP, Senior VP, VP	12
Director, Exec Creative Dir, Dir of Training	5
President, Founder, Head of Country, Owner	3

Table 17

Typical Reasons Global Leaders Seek the Coach

Reason	Number of Participants
Leadership development	2
Enhance leadership effectiveness	2
Transition from ops role	1
Strategic problem solving	1
Leading accelerated change	1
Planning and visioning	2
Develop a senior leader	1

(continued)

Reason	Number of Participants
Executive presence	1
Self management	1
Emotional intelligence	1
Connect with authentic self	1
Existential problem solving	
Feeling “stuck”	1
Need for transformation	1
Find meaning and purpose	1
Reputation/expertise of Coach	
General reputation	2
Business expertise	3
Global teams expertise	1
Cross-cultural expertise	1
Org culture expertise	1
Promotion	
Desire for new role	1
Career transition	1
Onboarding	1
Desire to succeed	2
Tactical skills improvement	
Team improvement	1
Operational problem solving	1
Higher productivity less stress	1
Better communication	1
Managing up	1
Mandate/Referral	
Told they need to see me	1
HR refers them	1
They heard about benefits of coaching	1

Research Question 1. The first research question inquires about the strategies and best practices employed by executive coaches supporting senior level executives in global organizations. To explore this research question, the following three interview questions were asked of all participants:

- IQ1: In your opinion, what's the secret to effectively coaching a global executive?
- IQ2: In your opinion, what is the skill that sets a highly successful executive coach apart from the rest?
- IQ3: If you were speaking to a room full of eager executive coaches who want to learn about the best strategies and practices to support senior level global executives, what would those be?

The section below provides a detailed discussion of all the themes that were generated for each interview question.

Interview question 1. In your opinion, what's the secret to effectively coaching a global executive? Seven themes emerged which were either cited individually or in combination with others: (a) facilitate inner work, (b) be presence, (c) ensure trust, (d) facilitate leadership, (e) have business acumen, (f) see the whole person, and (g) facilitate globality.



Figure 3. IQ1 - What is the secret to effectively coaching a global executive?

Facilitate inner work. The most frequently cited secret to effectively coaching a global executive was captured under the theme “facilitate inner work.” Of the 39 respondents, 27 (69%) noted a response that related to the executive coach’s ability to facilitate their own and their client’s understanding of inner psychology and inner thinking, so that the client gains awareness of their unconscious patterns of thought and ultimately gain freedom from their habits of personality and thinking. Responses included an array of answers, including: (a) supporting their clients to examine their inner domain of thoughts, feelings and patterns; (b) ensuring that as a coach, they do their own inner work first and foremost; and (c) ensuring that the client gain an awareness of their inner realm within the context of their organizations, teams and environment. Examples of responses include:

- a) Supporting clients to examine their inner domain of thoughts, feelings and patterns:

- Tips and tricks without doing the inner work doesn't change anything. It's like you're giving someone a bigger whip. It's about the emotional level of your fears... what are the convictions holding you back... what are the emotions you are afraid of... many executives have gotten to the top because they are very smart people... but they've left their emotions and hearts behind while climbing the mountain... so it's also getting emotions and feelings back in line again to make smarter decisions with those around them. (Respondent 16)
- In a VUCA world, the old rules and heroic myths of success don't work... so we take them and start over... with self awareness and learning agility... the inside out view... they haven't taken the time to reflect about who they are right now... sometimes in decades... they've gotten lousy feedback or no feedback... for many of them they've spent their whole lives focused on the prize, and always stuffed down any existential issues they had... so much of the work is to unearth all that... it's Jungian... what's your shadow and let's use that. (Respondent 30)
- Like all of us, leaders are living in a reinforcing bubble that's reinforcing their behaviors and mindsets and assumptions... like all of us, they are prone to willful blindness... so my job is to prick the bubble... and to get them to recognize where this blindness is costly... coaches help CEO's to see what they've been willfully blind to seeing, helping them see their underlying beliefs and assumptions is the deepest level of transformation. (Respondent 32)
- Help to disentangle their personality and free them from habits and patterns of personality and point out their deepest selves ... coaching creates a relationship

with their deepest selves and intentions... their personality is in service to their bigger intentions... the personality isn't running its usual loops. (Respondent 2)

- When we coach, leaders need to look at themselves in the mirror, and really look at themselves... you need to know yourself and self manage yourself before you can do that with others. (Respondent 13)
- I define coaching in terms of how we help people get what they want... therefore, helping global execs to realize what it is they're really looking for. One is the obvious desire, such as I want to work better with my people. There's often something deeper, like they are not emotionally available. If they had that then they could... So the secret is to identify the desire behind the desire, or the challenge behind the desire. (Respondent 14)
- Regard all humans as global leaders... the outer reality may be different... but the inner is not... and THAT'S where the game is. (Respondent 18)
- You have to get them to face their fears and issues... I believe that to be an effective leader, you've got to be a conscious leader – to know yourself and go beyond your beliefs and limitations. (Respondent 5)

b) Ensuring that as a coach, they do their own inner work first and foremost:

- What's been coming up for me more and more is that in order to successfully coach others, it's important to do quite a bit of personal work on myself... and to do my own work... where one has an avenue to take a step back and look at what's going on in one's life... and to really just look at it from a difference perspective. (Respondent 37)

- You need to have worked your own process... otherwise, you enable the habits of the client's personality. (Respondent 2)
 - I am surrounded with very effective coaches. What I see in them is a constant work on oneself... I don't think you can be a good coach if you're not able to differentiate between what's your stuff and what's your client's stuff... I have to constantly work on myself and understand what we preach. (Respondent 29)
- c) Ensuring that the client gains an awareness of their inner realm within a systemic context of their teams, organizations and society at large:
- To coach at the c-suite, ultimately you need to be strong in personal leadership, helping the individual understand themselves... but leaders don't operate in a vacuum, so the personal leadership coaching is good but not sufficient... there's a system around that person that's important. (Respondent 8)
 - We need people who not only have good coaching methods and practice, but also have good adult psychology and development understanding... and we need people who understand organizational systems... and good business understanding. A lot of coaches are weak in one of those three... to have all three is rare... we are really short of people who can enable change at the individual, team, organizational and ecosystem levels. (Respondent 32)

Overall, respondents noted that many high level global executives are harboring unconscious patterns of fear, and often their fears are based on their unexamined assumptions and beliefs. Thus, they explained that the secret to having a successful coaching collaboration is to facilitate the inner work necessary for their clients to shift their perspective. And to do this,

the coach needs to be self aware and to ensure they facilitate their own inner work so that they do not enable their client's fear or unhealthy patterns.

Be presence. The second most frequently cited response to the secret of effectively coaching global executives was the category "be presence." This category refers to responses relating to the executive coach's ability to bring a sense of calm, respect, empathy, caring, deep listening, mindfulness and equanimity to the coaching conversation. Nearly 62% (24) of respondents noted that the coach's quality of presence and their ability to enable presence in their clients are ultimately the secret to their effectiveness in supporting a global leader. Responses include a variety of categories which convey and enable presence, such as: (a) conveying the difference between "being" and "doing," b) truly caring about the client, and (c) facilitating presence in the client. Responses include:

- a) Conveying the difference between being and doing:
 - o Executive coaching is not a doing thing. It's a being thing. Be the presence. Be non-triggered. Be loving appreciation. Teaching people how to do stuff is a waste of time. Great coaches are in deep integrity about being that which they are pointing their people to become. (Respondent 11)
 - o Meet them where they are at, be present, listen, focus on empathy and really caring about the client. (Respondent 1)
 - o In a VUCA world, it's such a rat race and it's changing so fast... so it's really hard to be present with all the other doings and tasks and circus around... I think it's also the way... when you intervene with a coachee, they've never talked to people like that in that way... and often it makes them want to do the same thing

with other people, their teams... it's actually very easy... it's about real presence and real listening... it's about love. (Respondent 13)

- I think the greatest effectiveness in my experience comes from a willingness to listen, instead of going in with an agenda or a set of prescribed ways to coach them. I want to hear from you the leader about how you see life. I'm listening for their belief system to reveal itself. I'm listening for what their expectations are and what their dissatisfactions are and what they think is their reason. The secret is to understand the mindset of the person you're coaching by being fully present with them. (Respondent 24)

b) Truly care about your client:

- You have to love your client. You have to enjoy being with them. You have to want to go to dinner with them! I am so for them, and for their potential. It's beyond empathy. You actually have to love who they are! (Respondent 6)
- Most clients have never talked to another person in this way... It's about real presence and real listening. It's about love. It's about wanting and caring and daring to care for yourself and others. (Respondent 13)

c) Facilitate presence in your client:

- CEO's are very busy people. They are hardly ever present. So I tell them, let's get present now. Let's create stillness and slow down the tempo of our conversation. When we take in a few long deep breaths together, presence is that natural home of every soul... it's my home... it's equanimity... it's our natural state. (Respondent 11)

- CEO's don't think they need to slow down... they think they need to speed up... we need to help people do three pauses: pause to grow self (self awareness, authenticity, purpose, resilience), pause to grow others (how do you coach and grow others to grow beyond you and create the future beyond you), and pause for innovation... to create new products and services and strategies... our work is to master these areas... and slowing them down. (Respondent 8)
- The opposite of being present is to be unconscious... when they are not present they are caught up in fear and franticness, a lack of awareness... when they are present, they are here and now in a non-triggered and non-reactive state... most people are not present enough to know that... it's a place of responding to the world around you versus reacting. (Respondent 6)
- Most of the time, we don't have reliable access to presence. Almost all the problems we are facing in life is something that we don't want to face squarely. Almost all our drama and suffering is that we are unwilling to face it. From equanimity, presence and grounded security in beingness, we have the capacity to fully face what we are turning away from. (Respondent 11)

The category “be presence” refers not only to the coach’s state of being which embodies compassion, non-judgment, present moment awareness and deep listening, but also to the coach’s ability to truly care for and love their clients, to be their champion. And finally, “be presence” also refers to the coach’s ability to slow down executives long enough so that they become present and face the reality of issues they are facing from a non-reactive state.

Ensure trust. This category received the same number of responses as “be presence.” A total of 24 (62%) of respondents noted that ensuring trust is the secret to effectively coaching a global executive. Responses included in this category are about bringing forth the qualities and practices that create a sense of psychological safety for the client and allow him or her to trust the coach. These qualities include: being authentic, honest, conveying credibility, being bold, courageous, being unattached and without agenda, and not allowing the executive’s power, money or status to deter good coaching. Respondents noted that most c-suite executives of global firms do not have many people whom they can trust, that they are surrounded by people who appease their egos and tell them what they want to hear. Therefore, establishing trust was cited as an important secret to effectively supporting a global executive in these times of rapid change. Responses include:

- I don’t think of their role as being any more valid than anyone else’s role. You have to not care about what they think of you! You have to be ok if they get upset with you. You have to be willing to get fired, or fire them. (Respondent 6)
- I know that they are a human being and don’t care about their positions or roles. I’m not impressed by the title. Their title doesn’t get in the way for me. (Respondent 7)
- Trust allows the leader to get real with someone they trust and respect.. and bring their whole self ... and they don’t bring their whole self anywhere... they get a chance to connect with their hopes and aspirations and dreams to achieve clarity. Ensuring trust allows the global executive to feel psychological safety to get out of self protection mode and bring the real stuff to the table. (Respondent 9)

A big part of ensuring trust is for the coach to be direct and confident about their own abilities. Many participants noted that it is important for the coach to not try to outsmart the executive. For example, Respondent 22 explains that for a coach to be taken seriously by a global executive, he or she has “to drop any pretense or any mask or need to look good or to be the smartest person in the room... to be relaxed and not be intimidated by the fact that they are running a huge company.”

Also, the majority of participants noted that executive coaches should “do everything possible to not give advice... the higher up you go the more educated and strong your people are... telling them what to do doesn’t work anymore” (Respondent 23). The ability to fully listen and not go into the conversation with a pre-planned agenda were listed by many participants as a key part of establishing trust.

Facilitate leadership. The next theme cited as the secret to effectively coaching a global executive is the ability to facilitate leadership. About 33% (13) of participants commented that executive coaches must be able to facilitate a global executive’s leadership abilities.

Respondent 8 explained that in a VUCA world, executive coaches have the choice of either supporting leaders to get through VUCA or transform their VUCA reality. While just helping them get through VUCA is a management concept, supporting them to transform VUCA is a leadership development concept (Respondent 8, personal communication, 2/21/17).

Respondents thus noted that executive coaches have the opportunity to support global executives to “flip volatility to vision, unpredictability to understanding, complexity to clarity, and ambiguity to agility” (Respondent 8). Comments focused on the fact that executive coaches must be able to use valid coaching processes and methods, yet they are also called upon to “to

be a real bonafide leadership expert who can discern the difference between management and leadership: do I use my coaching methodology to enable them to manage better or to lead better?” (Respondent 8).

In general, respondents noted that there is a trend in having global executives shift from the top down hierarchical decision making to one that is collaborative. While this horizontal approach to leadership is shown to be effective, “most people aren’t set up this way, so how do you retrofit their leadership and organizational processes?” (Respondent 28). Executive coaches must therefore know how to support their executive clients to create and lead effective teams and cultures. Part of the challenge of executives shifting to a more collaborative leadership style is linked to their lifelong experiences centered around being individually driven and competitive, being emotionally closed down where they “always stuffed down any existential issues they had” (Respondent 30). Not only does the executive coach need to support the leaders to “unearth all that” but to also support them in becoming better listeners and to learn that “they don’t have to figure it all out by themselves” (Respondent 30).

Yet this shift is necessary, according to the executive coaches who responded, noting that helping global leaders “facilitate collaborative decision-making and mining a room for solutions” is an important coaching skill (Respondent 7). They explain that global leaders are bright and smart people. Yet the technical skills that got them to their current roles as senior executives will not support them in being effective leaders. Executive coaches must therefore own their people expertise and support their clients in developing “collaborative horizontal thinking which takes time for leaders to understand” (Respondent 7).

See the whole person. This theme was identified by eight (21%) respondents. The comments typically referred to the need to see all facets of the lives of the senior executive leader, including their love life and their physical health, and not to limit coaching to workplace challenges. For example, Respondent 17 explained that “great leaders always have a meditative physical exercise routine” and that “they surround themselves with things and people they love.” Respondent 5 noted that you have to “care about their whole being and see what you can bring to the table.” Respondent 29 explained the stress that many global leaders working away from their countries of origin face, and that “if the coach doesn’t have this holistic picture, then they can’t understand their issues.” And finally, respondent 22 explained that self-care is a foundational building block of her coaching approach with executive global leaders to support them in taking care of their own physical and emotional health - “I’m coaching the whole person, the CTI way.”

Business acumen. Nine respondents (23%) identified business acumen as a secret to effectively coaching a senior global executive. Comments included the necessity to prove credibility and capability by understanding their business environment and supporting them in addressing their immediate business challenges. Once the leader experiences a coach’s solid business acumen in this way, then they will reveal more vulnerable aspects of their leadership challenges (Respondent 4). Another approach would be to identify internal shifts they need to make, but “also apply it to their practical business world as soon as possible” so they experience the change (Respondent 16). Respondent 19 noted the importance of keeping in mind that the company is also a client, “so being able to manage both the company and the client” is seen as critical to coaching success. Furthermore, “being able to be a sounding board

in the context of their work” is identified as impactful especially in terms of applying self awareness and emotional intelligence to their business context - thus “using the problem as a reason to collaborate and create transformation” (Respondent 20).

Global/systems acumen. Six (15%) of participants noted comments related to the necessity of the coach having a global or system outlook, awareness or acumen. For example, Respondent 3 noted that the secret for being an effective coach of a global executive is to “have a global mindset... to get them to go beyond their understanding of their base culture... and to show up and be there in person for each coaching session.” Similarly, Respondent 23 explained that “it’s important to know the culture of the country” and their customs and ways of social interaction. Respondent 26 noted that “you have to really love the idea of a multicultural world and have an intense curiosity... know how to operate in a multicultural environment and have your own experience with it.”

And finally, Respondent 32 explained that as coaches to global executives, one of our key strengths is to bring an outsider’s perspective and help them have an “outside-in” perspective. By outside in, Respondent 32 referred to the coach’s ability to “partner with the CEO to increase their beneficial impact to all the people and the environment they serve.” He added that “CEO’s are living in a reinforcing bubble that’s reinforcing their behaviors and mindsets and assumptions... like all of us they are prone to willful blindness... my job is to prick the bubble... and have them create value for all their stakeholders,” including the environment and culture they are a part of.

Interview Question 1 Summary. Seven themes emerged in identifying the secret to effectively coaching a global leader. The top three themes were facilitate inner work (71%), be

presence (63%) and ensure trust (62%). The fourth theme was facilitate leadership (38%). And the bottom three themes were see the whole person (21%), have business acumen (21%) and have global/systems acumen (16%).

Interview Question 2. If you were speaking to a room full of eager executive coaches who want to learn about the best strategies and practices to support senior level global executives, what would those be? Eight themes emerged as answers to this question: establish trust, facilitate presence, facilitate inner work, support business goals, coach as instrument, increase relational/leadership intelligence, wellness practices and cultural awareness. An interesting pattern is evident among the responses. The first three themes (establish trust, facilitate presence and facilitate inner work) appeared to be intertwined, with one impacting the other in meaningful ways. Similarly, the next three themes (support business goals, coach as instrument and increasing relational/leadership intelligence) are also closely related. This section provides an analysis of these findings.

Overall, there was a strong pattern in the interview data that suggested the coach's ability to establish trust (87%), facilitate a safe psychological space of presence (79%) and facilitate the client's ability to do their own inner work (76%) of confronting their fears were among the best strategies/practices of supporting a global executive. While the comments under the theme "establish trust" were related to the coach's ability to bring authenticity, honesty and credibility to the relationship; the comments under the theme "facilitate presence" were related to the coach's ability to be fully in the present moment by letting go of any agenda and thereby creating safety for the client to slow down and be present.

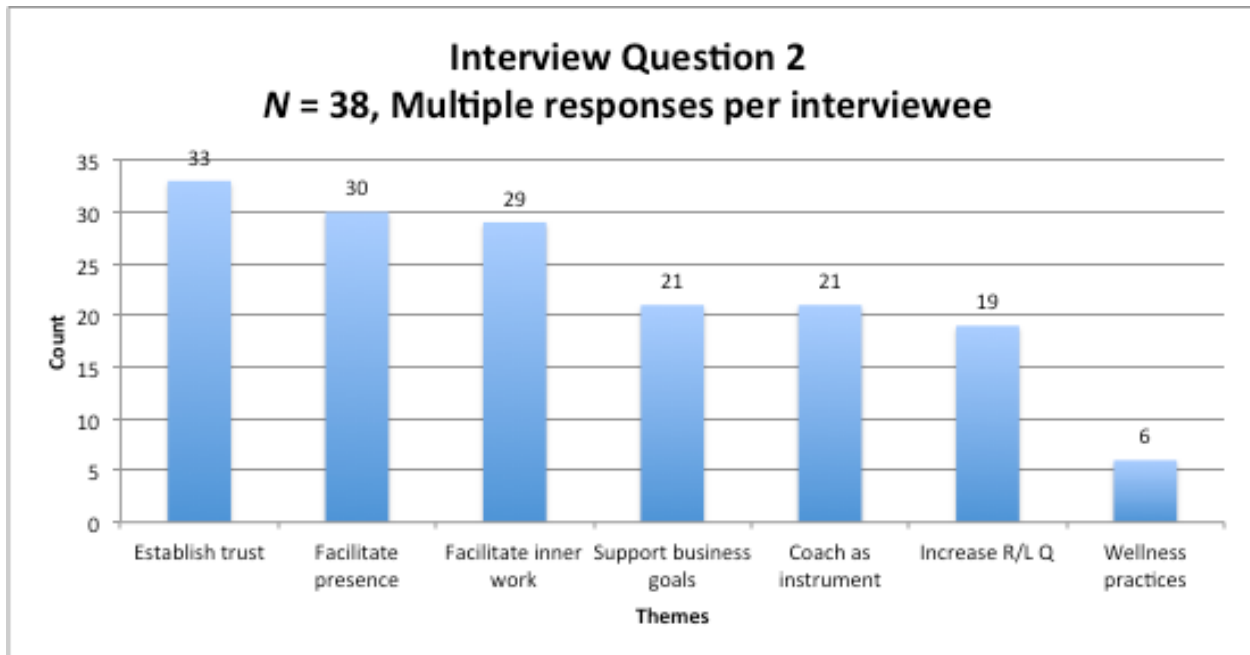


Figure 4. IQ2 - What are the best strategies for coaching a global executive?

Establish trust. Thirty-three respondents (87%) expressed that a key best strategy/practice of effectively supporting a global executive is the coach’s ability to establish trust with the client. As a strategy, establishing trust meant that coaches bring a sense of authenticity and credibility to the coaching session. As Respondent 8 stated poignantly, “trust is not something you establish yourself, but something your client confers on you. Look them in the eye and be sincere. Don’t pretend you know all the answers. Create confidentiality.” The capabilities of being direct, listening deeply, being authentic and having the courage to point out the client’s blindspots were among the responses shared. Most respondents noted that a strong part of establishing trust with a global executive is to be confident in the value and expertise that you have as coach. In other words, respondents noted that as a coach, they are not there to outsmart their clients, but rather they are there to provide their psychological and

relational expertise to the client. For example, Respondent 6 who does not have a certified coaching degree or business experience explained that a strong part of establishing trust is your confidence in your coaching expertise: “your clients need to know that you know you belong at the table with them. So you have to have clarity about your equal value. They want to know that you’ve got the stuff that they want.”

Many coaches noted the importance of “meeting them where they are at” instead of imposing their own agenda on them. Respondent 8 explains this as the necessity of establishing trust: “The coach really has to have deep empathy and compassion to understand the life of a CEO, their demands, their intellectual challenges, the human and interpersonal challenges and that everything is happening all at once on a 24-hour clock and it’s really an inhuman and impossible job and they’re figuring out their way of doing it.” Similarly, Respondent 9 noted, “you’ve got to walk the talk and be there to know their reality. First, you have to build a strong trusting relationship. They have to find you credible and trustworthy and safe. Have a track record. Do good work.”

A number of coaches pointed to the importance of “not knowing” or “staying neutral” as a key part of establishing trust with the client. Respondent 13 explained that her background at the Coach Training Institute (CTI) demands that “a coach doesn’t have an agenda... it’s only about questions. It’s this Co-Activity that you are at the same level. You’re not showing up as a guru... dare to be clueless about their business.” Participant 16 noted: “stay neutral and don’t have a stake in their outcome.” Similarly, Respondent 17 noted: “never give advice. Always keep staying neutral and wise like Yoda... global leaders are smart... so you don’t want to outsmart them.”

Being courageous and direct were expressed by many respondents as an important part of establishing trust with the executive. This included the ability to be at ease in their presence, to clearly point to the fear patterns that are keeping them back and to provide a roadmap for how you will support them. For example, Respondent 20 explained that “a coach has to be ready to be extremely direct and it takes lots of courage to tell a powerful executive that they are full of BS.” He added that executives are like any other human, with lots of fears about being vulnerable and confused. Therefore, he noted the importance of creating a “road map” for the executive to support them in feeling at ease about the coaching process. Respondent 23 also noted the importance of creating a road map as a way to establish credibility and trust. He specifically uses the “Four Windows” coaching process as a model that allows executives to feel more at ease about the road ahead.” As Respondent 25 added, “I think that having a framework at the beginning is a great crutch to keep you focused and stop wondering into different places... senior execs are used to frameworks.” Overall, ensuring trust is captured beautifully by Respondent 31: “Be a pro. Don’t allow role-reversal. Executives are used to tell others what to do. Respect them but also have them report to you.”

Facilitate presence. Twenty-nine respondents (76%) expressed the importance of the executive coach facilitating presence as a best strategy/practice in supporting global executives. This state of presence, as the coaches described, has less to do with technical skills of coaching and much more to do with the ability to be with the client with an attitude of compassion and respect without the need to know. As Respondent 15 explained, “it’s not about learning more coaching skills, it’s about relaxing more into being present and being able to listen on different levels without judgment.” For example, Respondent 30 explained “too many coaches think it’s

about the toolkit. But those are just the tools. It's really the ability to sit with somebody... and not know with them... you're journey partners together." Respondents expressed the critical importance of the coach staying neutral in the engagement without a sense of personal agenda to look smart or save the day, listening deeply, and facilitating a safe psychological space where both the coach and client can be present with was it. As Respondent 18 noted, "hold your client in unconditional positive regard. My role isn't to judge them. It's to be of service to their own growth and fulfillment." Overall, respondents explained that the goal of facilitating such a state of presence would be to bring awareness to the real issues that are present, instead of what the coach thinks needs to happen. This state also allows the client to slow down and become aware of his or her thoughts and patterns. In a way, the coach is supporting the client to "shift from doing to being" (Respondent 14).

In order to create such a state of presence, respondents noted the following: "don't have an attachment, drop your ego, start with awareness, listen to how they are speaking about themselves" (Respondent 1), "be open and really listen" (Respondent 3), "don't feel the need to have all the answers, but have good questions" (Respondent 30), "coaching is about one human being having a deep connection with another human being... embrace silence... lots of coaches feel they need to fill the space... that doesn't give the client the room to see and explore themselves" (Respondent 18). By bringing this level of deep listening without a personal agenda enables the coach to "truly listen to what is the block that's stopping the client" (Respondent 15).

Facilitate inner work. The above two themes (establish trust and facilitate presence) were noted as an important ingredient to supporting a senior global executive to do their inner

work. There were 24 participants (75%) who identified “facilitating inner work” as a best strategy for supporting a global executives. From the comments they provided, facilitating the client’s inner work refers to the skills that the coach brings in noticing the deeper fear-based beliefs and assumptions that the client is unaware of and bringing it into their awareness in a way that the client can both hear and understand, and have the tools to shift this internal state. As Respondent 24 stated, “create a trusting space where the leader can reflect on the reality of the situation instead of the story about the situation. All this allows the client to have insights.” Respondent 13 further explained: “it’s about finding out the patterns they get into when they get nervous or afraid or stressed... then you have a choice about how you want to be when you see it... and then choosing it. We have to meet the people where they are and make them aware of who and how they are.” The power of identifying these internal beliefs and assumptions is to support executives in “experiencing that when they create an internal shift, their external reality also shifts!” (Respondent 18).

For example, responses included the following: “support them with how they are relating to the issue, themselves, and others... help them shift from victim to owner... identify the lens they are operating from” (Respondent 1), “support them with their internal capacity to manage their internal states” (Respondent 2), “help them get self awareness, social awareness and other’s perceptions” (Respondent 3), “you have to get them to confront their fears and stories” (Respondent 5), “I make sure to point to their inner critic or saboteur -- that part of them that’s all about coulda woulda shoulda... most haven’t been aware of that part of them being in the driver seat... we buy into the inner critic story as a kid and it stays with us. It’s deep work and I’m not afraid to go there” (Respondent 7). Respondent 8 explained that this “pause

for self awareness and self growth” is an important part of leadership development in that it allows the executives to become aware of unconscious and self sabotaging thought patterns and therefore become more authentic and resilient as a result.

A number of participants noted that facilitating inner work and supporting the executive in better managing themselves is where the coach brings the biggest value because “we never know their business enough to give them business advice” (Respondent 9). A recurring theme that came up in terms of best strategies/practices was the skillfulness of the coach in support the executive to understand when they are in reactivity, and how to shift into a compassionate mindset. For example, Respondent 10 explained that it’s important for the executive to understand when they are in reactivity and to compassionately facilitate their inner shift to a place of compassion and collaboration.” Similarly, Respondent 13 explained “I use process coaching to uncover feelings... that’s when they see big patterns they haven’t seen before.”

In other words, facilitating inner work is about the coach’s ability to “identify what the limiting paradigms might be in keeping people in doing versus being” (Respondent 14). Respondent 15 explained this process as “helping them clarify their own self concept... a leader’s struggle is really about their own definition of who they are as a leader and what is right behavior... I teach a lot about ego structures and what we are protecting in terms of self image... I point out their emotions... and see how they are like that in other areas of their lives and why.” Respondents noted that shifting internal belief structures helps a great deal with reducing stress levels. For example, Respondent 16 explained that “what helps them the most with stress is a regained awareness of themselves and how they are reacting... and noticing what was upsetting them way before they get upset.” Similarly, Respondent 18 explained that

the best way to bring their internal belief system to their awareness is to keep reflecting back to them what you are hearing them say so that they start to understand their own limiting beliefs and judgments. This constant loop of reflection, he added, supports the executive leader in “getting out of their own story so that they can experience transformation around their challenge. What’s often helpful is to repeat the story back to them and to ask them how’s that working for you?” The challenge that executive coaches face in knowing “where to shine a flashlight... have to shine the light on where you think they are blocked” (Respondent 17).

Overall then, comments about “facilitating inner work” are about the many tools and practices that executive coaches can draw upon which allow them to “help their clients on their journey... and help them see the most unvarnished mirror and truth about themselves... it’s about unpacking their assumptions and helping them see things clearly” (Respondent 30). As Respondent 30 summarized, one of the greatest strategies a coach can bring to a global executive is “the ability to connect the dots and point out their fears in the moment... point out their assumptions and help them see if it’s based in reality or related to some old story they are carrying around.” One of the biggest fears that shows up in global executives, according to Respondent 31, is their fear of failure and not being enough: “in order to create sustainable success and fulfillment over time, they had to address the judgments beneath the fear of failure... the problem is these fears are what got them to where they are and each exec thought that if they let up they’d lose their edge... so my coaching here is to help them experience the power of leading from inspiration.”

Support business goals. There were 21 participants (55%) who, to varying degrees, identified the ability of the executive coach to support a global leader’s business goals as a best

strategy/practice. In this section, respondent discuss the various approaches that an executive coach can take in order to utilize business challenges to facilitate growth. While the specifics of approaches might vary, respondents note the importance of the executive coach's awareness of the business. Respondent 32 explained that a coach's role is to partner with the global executive to benefit all stakeholders, including the ecosystem. Therefore, to Respondent 32, the business context and goals are key to driving the internal transformation of the leader and the organization - an outside/in approach to coaching global executives. Yet Respondent 8 noted an inside/out approach, noting that business transformation arises from a personal transformation, which leads to team transformation, which leads to innovative strategies and products. As Respondent 20 explained about senior global executives, "you have to know the business they are in... they are usually obsessed with their business... it's hard to get them to talk about themselves without establishing the context of the business." Similarly, Respondent 30 noted that "walking a mile in my shoes applies a great deal in this field. I think I get hired because they know that I've been through a lot of the similar battles they've been through." Comments in this area were thus mainly around three topics: (a) having an understanding of the global executive's business world is key to a successful coaching engagement; (b) having a methodology, roadmap or assessment that shows the executive a formal approach to addressing their business challenges supports the strengthening of trust and rapport between the coach and client; and (c) business challenges can be used as pathways toward personal, leadership and organizational transformation.

Respondent comments included: "I understand the context of the disruptive change that we are in right now... I talk in practical ways that impact their business... and I help them

manage their main three stakeholders: media, board and shareholders” (Respondent 3); “you have to understand business well enough and have the business acumen so that you can apply real compassion for them” (Respondent 10); “always help them see correlations with their bottom line profits... decisions made from the heart impact so many bottom line results” (Respondent 14); “the closer you get to where they are, the easier you are to influence them... the business problem is the vehicle for personal transformation” (Respondent 4). As Respondent 19 summarized, “you have to be able to speak the language of a senior executive... you have to understand what they care about and talk at that level... it’s not tactical coaching, but strategic coaching.” In terms of methodologies, respondents noted: “have a methodology that’s articulate” (Respondent 9); “road maps work with junior coaches because it gives them some confidence” (Respondent 23).

The assessments and methodologies listed include:

- Leadership Circle Profile: “it’s not me telling them that their relationships are suffering... they can actually see a report on it!” (Respondent 7)
- Pause Principle: to help people pause to grow, pause to grow others, and pause for innovation (Respondent 8)
- Hogan’s suite of personality assessments
- 360 leadership
- Coaching for Performance, by Whitmore (Respondent 25)

Coach as instrument. There are 21 individuals (55%) who noted that the best strategy/practice for coaching a global leader is for the coach to continue to develop themselves and strengthen their own self awareness. Some expressed very direct comments:

“do your own work! Transform your own world! It doesn’t matter what the coaching method, but you have to have integrity around it. Practice and own it yourself!” (Respondent 11).

Respondents noted the 10,000 hour rule in ensuring that the coach is treating their profession as a craft, to know their own biases, to be self aware and to be attuned to the client in multiple ways (Respondent 1). Respondents noted the importance of executive coaches developing and being guided by their intuition (Respondent 5); “develop yourself... you are the instrument” (Respondent 2); “most master coaches can trust their intuitive process... when the coach is open from the head/heart/gut, there’s an energetic connection with the client” (Respondent 15); “you have to have the awareness and willingness to let go and allow your intuition to guide you” (Respondent 17). After all, explained Respondent 11, “you can’t take people deeper than you have taken yourself.” Respondent 11 added that “if you ever lose touch with the reality that you’re a safe space of being and seeing and knowing, you’ve lost your magic.”

Respondent 10 explained the importance of the executive coach maintaining a sense of inner compassion so that they can more easily support their clients in meeting VUCA realities: “when you’re in compassion with yourself and others, the solutions are different. You see things for what they are without bringing the baggage. You’re not engaged in self protection” (Respondent 10). The importance of this level of inner attunement seems to be best articulated by Respondent 13: “you need to go deep into yourself to know how you are wired... what is it that you want... what are your values... and then mirror that with the coaches... as a coach, you need self insight and self awareness.”

Self care was also pointed out by the respondents as an important part of the executive coach supporting themselves as the critical instrument for transformation. “As a coach, you

need good sleep and good food... you have to be nimble and dance with them like a tracker” (Respondent 17). Respondent 10 explained the importance of facilitating presence as a key part of dealing with VUCA: “it’s important for the coach to be able to be in VUCA... to be with the volatility, the uncertainty, the complexity, and the ambiguity... I have to be with that... before I can solve anything... I have to be able to be with VUCA and not need to control or minimize it.” If the coach can have the strength to be present with current VUCA conditions, then the coach can “help execs meet VUCA by going into compassion mode... when you’re in compassion with yourself and others, the solutions are different. You see things for what they are without bringing the baggage. You’re not engaged in self protection.”

Increase Relational and Leadership intelligence. There were 19 participants (50%) who identified the ability of the coach to strengthen the global executive’s relational and leadership intelligence as an important strategy/practice. “We’ve achieved a lot in the last few years from getting from IQ to EQ... now we need to get to WeQ” (Respondent 32). Thus, comments in this area mainly related to the executive coach’s skills to develop the global executive’s ability to have better relationships and a stronger ability to lead collaborative teams. For example, Respondent 1 noted that coaches must support global executives with the human side of things and “be the human expert” (Respondent 1). To do this, Respondent 3 noted the need for the executive coach to become “an expert in interpersonal relationships... and help them understand the three personalities: self, corporate and nation” and meet with their client’s 360 circle. Most noted the importance of supporting the global executive’s ability to “become more aware of how to develop others... and support them in becoming more connected with others” (Respondent 4, personal communication, February 15, 2017). As Respondent 32 explained, “we

need far less individual coaching and far more team coaching... and how that team relates to all the teams and all stakeholders... we need to not see coaching and OD as separate.”

A key point that was raised is that VUCA conditions demand more collaborative problem solving, and supporting the global executive to relax with the fact that they alone cannot solve their challenges: “I help them become facilitators of conversations. In a VUCA world, being a facilitator is a very important leadership skill in order to address complex wicked problems... so many leaders think they need to solve all the problems. But this is impossible in a VUCA world with wicked complex problems. They need to be comfortable being vulnerable enough to say I don’t have the answer and that we have the answers” (Respondent 7). “These VUCA times demand we get executives from reactivity to leadership because the only way they will manage these extreme conditions is to bring the team together and collaboratively come up with solutions” (Respondent 10). Thus a number of respondents note a necessity to shift from “I to We” and that this shift feels threatening to global executives who have focused on being individualistic most of their lives (Respondent 7). “So the coach really has to know how to elevate this system and the team to another level... when the I is in the service of the I, great damage may occur... when the I is in service to the we, then great things can happen... that’s why I think coaches also need to be leadership experts” (Respondent 8).

There is thus a shift that the coach is being called to shepherd, and that is the “shift from old paradigms of authority and control toward alignment, agreement, and accountability” (Respondent 10). In this vein, respondents noted a need for the coach to support their executive client to “influence key stakeholders instead of being domineering” (Respondent 15). Respondent 24 listed two key strategies and practices he utilizes in creating such a shift in

relationship: supporting clients to ask for agreements instead of rely on expectations, and helping them turn complaints into requests (Respondent 24). Overall, respondent 26 summarized the key strategy/practice that an executive coach of global leaders requires to develop: “a means to assess and then prepare the leader for complexity” (Respondent 26). In other words, supporting the global leader “going from vertical to horizontal” leadership capacity (Respondent 28). As respondent 30 noted: “most senior leaders are oblivious to organizational dynamics” and it is the coach’s responsibility to bring that to their awareness and help them shift into behaviors that impact the organization in positive ways.

Wellness practices. Seven participants (22%), identified wellness practices as an important best strategy/practice for supporting global leaders. Comments included: “they need to be able to manage their sleep, diet, exercise, booze... all this has a huge impact” (Respondent 9); “I teach them body awareness in order to deal with stress... I teach them about breathing and they experience how that changes their stress levels” (Respondent 16); “I start my sessions with 2 minutes of meditation... can we just use two minutes to center into our intentions about the goals of the session. They've got so much going on that they haven't thought about the session at all” (Respondent 18).

Interview Question 2 Summary. Responses to the second interview question identified the best strategies/practices in supporting a global leaders. The majority identified either establishing trust (86%) or facilitating presence (79%) as the most important practice in ensuring a successful coaching engagement. While 76% noted that the coach’s ability to facilitate the client’s inner work is the most important, over half of all respondents identified supporting business goals (55%), coach as instrument (55%) and increasing relational or

leadership skills (50%) as the most important. And finally, 20% noted that supporting the client by providing them with wellness practices was the most important.

Interview question 3. In your opinion, what is the skill that sets a highly successful executive coach apart from the rest? Seven themes emerged from this interview question: coach’s presence, facilitating awareness, coach’s self awareness, being courageous, business acumen, leadership development, and understanding local culture. The following section presents a more detailed presentation of the data for each theme.

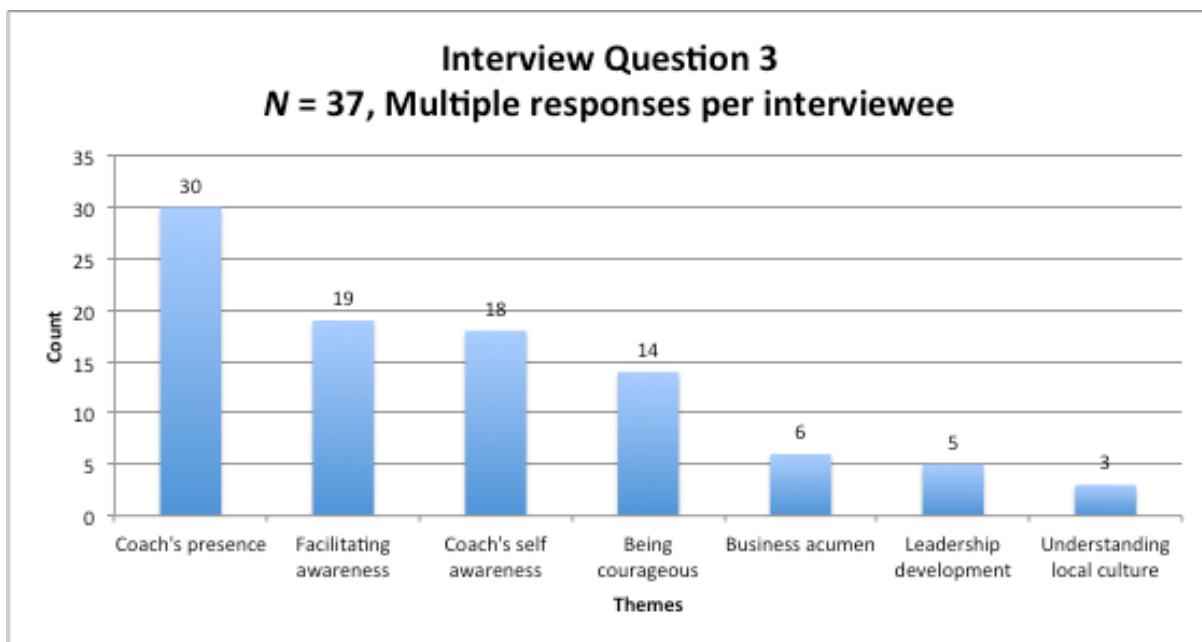


Figure 5. IQ3 - What are the challenges you face when implementing these strategies?

Coach’s presence. There were 30 participants (81%) who identified the coach’s presence as the skill that sets a highly successful coach apart from the rest. The responses in this category reflect the interviewees’ belief that a coach’s ability to listen deeply, be empathetic and

compassionate, be open minded, put their own agenda aside, be nonjudgmental and have love, caring and high regard for their clients is the defining characteristic of a highly successful coach. Comments include: “be able to listen to what they client is saying and not saying... listen empathetically” (Respondent 2), “curiosity instead of control” (Respondent 12), “there’s only one skill, and it’s presence... deep listening, being non judgmental” (Respondent 13), “the paradox of letting go of control and have the discipline to let come what needs to be come” (Respondent 17), “to be willing to model the key attribute which is to be in the authentic self... to be in our loving, as opposed to be in our mind and our thinking” (Respondent 18), “very important to be neutral and extremely present” (Respondent 20), “deep listening on multiple levels” (Respondent 21), “Presence is a big part... I hold them in very high regard and I really care deeply about these people... if I don’t care about them, then I don’t coach them” (Respondent 22), “it’s not only what you know in your head, it’s how present you are in your heart with the client” (Respondent 27), “a successful coach has a real sense of purpose and moral values” (Respondent 32).

Facilitating awareness. There were 19 respondents (50%) who felt that the executive coach’s ability to facilitate a greater sense of awareness for their clients is the skill that sets them apart from the rest. The responses reflected the range of opinions about the coach’s skill to expand the client’s conscious awareness and support them to shift fear-based thoughts to those that are more expansive. The overall sense from the comments is that the CEO of a global organization does not necessarily need business advice, but rather the support to trust themselves and their intuition during such complex times: “the challenge for this group of people is that they are not trusting their inner voice enough in service to creating exponentially

greater than their current level (Respondent 18); “uncovering how leaders see the world ... seeing thought habits in the way of the leader making the breakthrough” (Respondent 24).

The fear that most CEO’s experience, according to Respondent 31, is mostly about their “fear of losing control and power” which is based on deep patterns of thinking they are not good enough. Therefore, the skill that sets a highly successful executive coach apart from the rest is to “coach the client in identifying and changing their perspective and releasing the fear of losing control and power in service to their leadership, business and personal fulfillment.”

Other comments included: “helping them become aware of their fears... helping them operate from love” (Respondent 1); “helping them see the source of their fear - mostly it’s psychological and rooted in their childhood” (Respondent 5); “helping a leader to become present and non reactive so they have full access to their EQ, IQ AND BQ” (Respondent 6); “know how to pull people into compassion... help them to create perspective shift from reactivity to compassionate leadership” (Respondent 10); “the ability to co-create a learning crucible” (Respondent 17).

The ability of spiritual attunement was also stated by respondents as a way to help clients to experience their greater potential: “they haven’t brought you on to be smarter than they are! Your contribution is on the spiritual level and the challenges you bring to them to shift their thinking (Respondent 18); “having a spiritual attunement to detecting their needs and opportunities... and tapping into the potential within them for greater leadership contribution” (Respondent 26).

Coach’s self awareness. There were 18 respondents (49%) who noted that the coach’s level of self awareness is the skill that would set them apart from the rest. Overall, the

comments referred to the coach's ability to live the principles they are teaching and to be on a continual path of personal and professional development. The power of this, according to Respondent 7, is that "if the coach is more self aware and aware of their own emotions and the emotions of those around them, they can lead the client to self awareness" (Respondent 7). Basically, "you can't go deep with your clients, if you haven't been there yourself... if you don't know how scary it can be to go there, how can you help others" (Respondent 16). Strengthening self-awareness within the coach allows them to "become aware of the transference and counter transference" that is likely to occur in a coaching relationship (Respondent 29).

Comments include: "the coach's own willingness to look at emotional intelligence in terms of their own lives" (Respondent 7); "you have to have done your own personal work... you have to be in a good place of self management" (Respondent 9); "level of training I've gotten in becoming self aware allows me to have relationships based on the fact that I've done it, explored it, failed at it, and have a level of awareness about it" (Respondent 14); "the skill to go deep in yourself, to be very vulnerable to yourself" (Respondent 16).

Other comments include the necessity to have the support system as a coach so that you can continue to deepen your own self awareness: "continuing to be coached by a coach farther ahead on the path you seek" (Respondent 31); "I'm still in intervention and supervision groups with colleagues where I am totally transparent and totally open to anything that's going on in me" (Respondent 16).

Being courageous. There were 14 respondents (38%) who noted the quality of courage as differentiating a highly successful executive coach from the rest. Comments were mostly

about the level of courage it takes to be a strong effective coach to highly successful people who are not used to being challenged by others. Yet this ability to be courageous enough to challenge their thinking is a strong determining factor of the executive's sense of trust in the coach's abilities. Respondent 29 explained the need for courage in this way: "the worst thing is to be manipulated by the client... if they're not doing the work, call them on it."

Comments included: "willingness and courage to ask the hard questions... not to be pleasing but give them a hard time... have the courage to stretch the client's viewpoint... don't be afraid to help them figure out the source of their fear" (Respondent 5); "have the courage to be fully present and share what comes up" (Respondent 15); "be brave enough to model compassionate presence" (Respondent 18); "it's not only what you know in your head... it's how courageous you are in being in your heart" (Respondent 27); "courage is very necessary to have fearless and ruthless compassion for the client" (Respondent 32). Respondent 16 summed it up as: "a successful coach has no fear in stating what is... they can ask deep questions... asking questions that people might not like but are important to ask."

Business acumen. There were six respondents (16%) who identified business acumen as the defining characteristic of a successful executive coach. The comments highlighted the experience that when coaching a global executive, it is highly necessary to have awareness of their business world and the pressures they are feeling from all their stakeholders in delivering business success. As Respondent 9 explained: "psychology isn't enough... you need to be fluent in business too... you will be limited in how far you can go with a senior executive of a global organization unless you understand their business stressors."

Comments include: “executive coaches who can meet leaders where they are at in their business” (Respondent 10); “in the corporate world, the more you understand their business pain points, their challenges, the more effective you can be coaching them” (Respondent 14); “having good business sense and systems understanding” (Respondent 32). Overall, as Respondent 10 explained: “you have to have the fundamental business acumen so that you can stand in the shoes of the executive... you have to really understand what’s foundational about the executive’s business... to understand the pressure the executive is under from the stakeholders and the struggles they are facing.”

Leadership development. There were five participants (14%) who identified the coach’s leadership development skill as being what sets them apart from the rest. Comments in this area referred to the relational and leadership skills that executive leaders must learn in order to collaborate with their teams and stakeholders during these complex and shifting times. Comments include: “the role of the executive coach is to bring the client back to reality with their stakeholders, so they can take better steps forward (Respondent 10); “you have to be able to play 3-dimensional chess.. to connect with the client and then be able to connect them to their stakeholders (Respondent 9); “you have to help clients learn about relationships... educating them about how others can best work with you... helping leaders to become facilitators of conversations among teams” (Respondent 7); “being committed to a work, an organization, a team that works for everyone... supporting leaders to shift from the win/lose game” (Respondent 28). Overall, as Respondent 32 noted: “successful coaches can facilitate change in a global leader’s behavior to work in service to the larger system... it takes a leadership mindset that’s aware of the eco-systemic perspective.”

Understand local culture. Three participants (8%) identified the ability and curiosity to understand the global leader's local culture as the skill that sets them apart from the rest. Respondent 32, for example, defined this understanding as more of an "ecosystemic perspective" which helps the coach to expand the vision and mission of the executive global leader to impact their local and global cultures. Respondent 26 provided a similar perspective in that "cross culturalism lives in the business space.. those global leaders have an opportunity and obligation to contribute to global understanding, compassion, empathy, respect..." a good coach has to be able to facilitate this depth of understand. And Respondent 9 explained that "to truly be a good global coach, you have to understand the cultures you are working in... the one that your client is working in... best is immersion... take a few trips there and soak it up... be interested and then interesting."

Interview Question 3 Summary. Answers to this question identified the skill that sets a highly successful coach apart from the rest. Seven themes emerged: coach's presence (81%), facilitating awareness (51%), coach's self awareness (49%), being courageous (38%), business acumen (16%), leadership development (14%), and understand local culture (8%).

Research Question 1 Summary. The first research question addresses best strategies and practices for supporting senior global executives. Based on the analysis of answers to the first three interview questions, it appears that the coach's ability to bring a presence of compassion, empathy and present moment awareness is seen as a key element in helping to create an atmosphere where issues can be brought to the surface with more clarity. While the ability to ensure a trusting environment is related to the coach's capability, honesty and authenticity, the ability to facilitate presence is related to the coach's ability to bring a sense of

calm, respect and empathy to the coaching relationship. Once presence and trust are established, then the coach is able to support the global leader in becoming aware of limiting beliefs and patterns that are keeping them from achieving results, and to facilitate the deep inner work that is necessary in order to have sustainable change.

In addition to the above capabilities, the coach needs to have a sense of business awareness to be able to connect coaching practices to business outcomes. And at the same time, be aware that today's VUCA conditions require the global executive to create collaborative and agile teams who are aware of the eco-systemic impact of their business. For this reason, respondents noted the importance of the coach to have leadership, organizational development and systemic expertise in order to support the global executive in transforming VUCA conditions to opportunities for individual, team and business success.

Research Question 2. What challenges are faced by executive coaches in implementing those strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations? To explore this research question, the following four interview questions were asked of all participants:

- IQ4: What might you tell those eager executive coaches in terms of challenges they might encounter in implementing these strategies and practices?
- IQ5: Do you ever face constraints coaching global executives in terms of what you know works best in coaching and what the executive, organization or context will allow you to do? And if yes, please explain these constraints and how you might deal with them.
- IQ6: In your opinion, what's the hardest part about doing good coaching with global executives?

- IQ7: Have you ever experienced an ethical dilemma in your coaching of global leaders? If so, please explain it further and how you would address the situation.

Interview question 4. What might you tell those eager executive coaches in terms of challenges they might encounter in implementing these strategies and practices? Four themes emerged in reviewing the answers: coach’s capability/presence, the client’s coachability, the client’s schedule and the organization’s culture. The following section explores these themes.

Coach’s capability/presence. There were 28 respondents (74%) who explained that the challenges they might encounter in implementing best strategies and practices are to be found in their own capabilities and sense of presence as a coach. There were three categories of comments which addressed: (a) the coach’s ego and their desire to be liked and to be right, (b) the coach’s inability to understand the magnitude of their client’s business, and (c) the ability of the coach to do bold coaching but to also be patient for real transformation to occur.

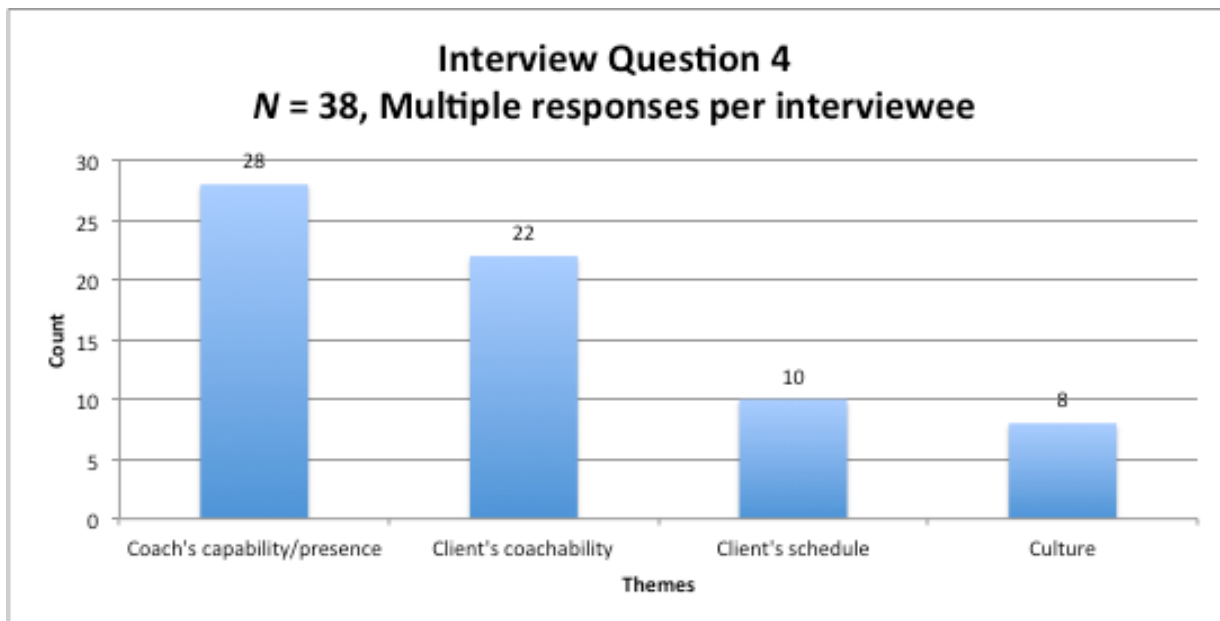


Figure 6. IQ4 - What is the toughest part about coaching a global executive?

The most frequent comment was about the coach's own ego and their own desire to be liked and to know everything about how to fix their client's problems. For example: the biggest challenge is "when the coach tries to be a CEO" (Respondent 4), "being in the learning, being in the humility (Respondent 28); "don't try to outsmart them in terms of business strategy... just point to the pressure points and help them work through things" (Respondent 10); "you need to know when to stop, otherwise you get into a manipulative pattern...if you don't put your agenda aside, it compromises the trust... you shouldn't be trying to fix them" (Respondent 13). Respondent 10 explained that coaches need to support the leaders in coming up with their own solutions and to act as trusted "sounding boards." Respondent 20 cautioned coaches: "don't have an agenda... the desire to teach and have a point of view... that's annoying!" (Respondent 20). Respondent 23 explained that a coach's need to show off goes against coaching principles: "there are many people in this field who are just full of themselves... and want to tell you about themselves and how wonderful they are... those people are often going to the CEO to tell them what to do... I don't think that's the foundation for coaching." As Respondent 11 explained: "if I'm doing anything from a place of not enoughness, I'll never get a certificate of anything that'll tell me I'm enough... I have to experience enoughness from inside."

Other comments referred to the coach's inability to understand the client's business. Comments in this area include: "I see much too much in coaching where people are certified by a great coaching group... but they don't have the contextual understanding like business and leadership to help people develop as a leader" (Respondent 8); "executive coaches have to have strong business acumen, if they don't the leaders think you can't grasp the magnitude of

the problem... the leader will push back if they sense you don't have strong business acumen" (Respondent 10).

Finally, comments in this theme also referred to the coach's ability to be both directive and patient. For example, "you can't feel intimidated by them... you have to meet their energy... if they feel you're intimidated, they don't want to work with you... they have to feel that you are just as good at what you do as they are at what they do" (Respondent 22); "it's important to come in with a combo of humility and to believe in your own skills... they are so used to having things their own way... be confident about what you're doing... if you're not, then there's no point" (Respondent 29). Respondent 32 pointed to the coach's responsibility to help their client to learn how to change behavior even after they have had an aha moment: "sometimes the coach blames the client for not being committed enough to their action plans and goals... but this is about the coach's ability to demonstrate and role play the behavior change... currently we are coaching gold players at the bar... we need to take coaching out of the closet."

Client's coachability. There were 22 participants (58%) who noted the client's unwillingness or resistance to being coach as a challenge in implementing best coaching practices. A number of respondents noted that the change process is challenging, and often clients become resistant through the process. As respondent 32 explains, "you have to deal with the CEO's large and well defended ego... and cope with them being emotional about being challenged." Often it is possible to support them through, but many times the client becomes very resistant. For example, Respondent 2 explained that "clients go through the shock of learning about their blind spots... it's about holding their hands through the process."

Respondent 3 explained that CEO's walk a tough tightrope, and are "never prepared" to meet the demands of their stakeholders... as such "if I get too psychological, I will lose my client."

Other respondents explained that the client's mindset may be the toughest challenge a coach has to face. For example, Respondent 6 explained that she supports her clients to "do their deep work around their values, instead of look for it from their coach... sometimes they want you to give them business strategy advice... I don't do that! My job is to get them to step out of fear so they can identify the best business strategy themselves." Respondent 9 noted that most of the global leaders he works with are not used to looking within and may resist the coaching strongly. Respondent 11 explained that the client's resistance comes from three areas: "wanting approval, wanting control or wanting safety... these are the core terrors that confront all of us, including our clients."

Some respondents explained that the client may not want "to create and keep trusted organization systems," and "don't want to look into themselves.. and expect you to give them all the answers at the beginning." For example, Respondent 14 explained that "when you have a client that's just staying in the level of story and the mental level of story... there will be no transformation if they are just staying at that level... they have to want to change." So the key question that coaches need to know is "does the executive have the mindset for coaching." Respondent 24 explains that there are two types of resistances that come up with coaching a global executive:

One is the leader's lack of willingness to explore and experiment with new forms of communication, and second, the leader's inability and unwillingness to see and learn the cause of their own dissatisfaction or the cause of their own internal stress and

frustration... when a leader fights you on that or clings to the ego or a fixed mindset and not open up there's not much a coach can do. (Respondent 24)

Client's schedule. There were 10 participants (26%) who said that the client's busy schedule is the biggest challenge they face in terms of doing effective coaching. For example, Respondent 16 noted that "don't take it personally if they don't have time for you... coaching is often not their priority... there are lots of external circumstances that might come up and take precedence. Respondent 20 explained that "executives are used to being on their own time... so you have to come up with a strong commitment so that they don't mess with your time." Respondent 26 noted that "it's just the classic challenge of not having enough time to engage in coaching." Respondent 4 pointed out that although the client often gets caught up in a busy schedule, the coach has an opportunity to show them "where they are spending time to control outcomes, instead of influencing their teams."

Culture. There were eight participants (21%) who noted the country or the organization's cultural context as a challenge in terms of implementing effective coaching strategies and practices. For example, Respondent 3 explained that a global executive "gets disconnected if they don't understand the local culture of the country they are operating in." Respondent 7 further added that "when coaching global leaders it's important to be aware of the different cultural tendencies and attitudes that underlie many behaviors and slow the rate of change." For example, she noted that U.S.-based leaders "are not as open to dealing with diversity in the workforce as are non-U.S. based leaders because non-U.S. based leaders seem to be more aware of the world and how vast it is, whereas U.S.-based leaders need to be educated about the positive aspects of diversity."

Respondent 5 explained that the client might be “misaligned” between the old top down ways of doing things within an organization, and the new collaborative cultures that demand a different set of behaviors. Therefore, as Respondent 32 explained, another challenge to effectively implementing best strategies/practices is that “too few coaches are engaging with the executive’s teams... they’re not doing team coaching... and they are not supporting their CEO’s in coaching their teams either.” The organization’s culture is likely therefore to be a strong impediment to effective implementation of coaching best practices.

Interview question 4 summary. Responses to question 4 were in regards to the challenges that executive coaches often encounter in implementing best coaching strategies/practices. The top two responses were in terms of the coach’s capability and presence (74%) and their client’s coachability (58%). The bottom two responses were about the client’s packed schedule (26%) and the organizational culture (21%).

Interview question 5. Do you ever face constraints coaching global executives in terms of what you know works best in coaching and what the executive, organization or context will allow you to do? And if yes, please explain these constraints and how you might deal with them. The following seven themes emerged: interference, availability, relational/cultural, coachability, none, confidentiality and coach’s ability. The following section examines each theme in greater detail.

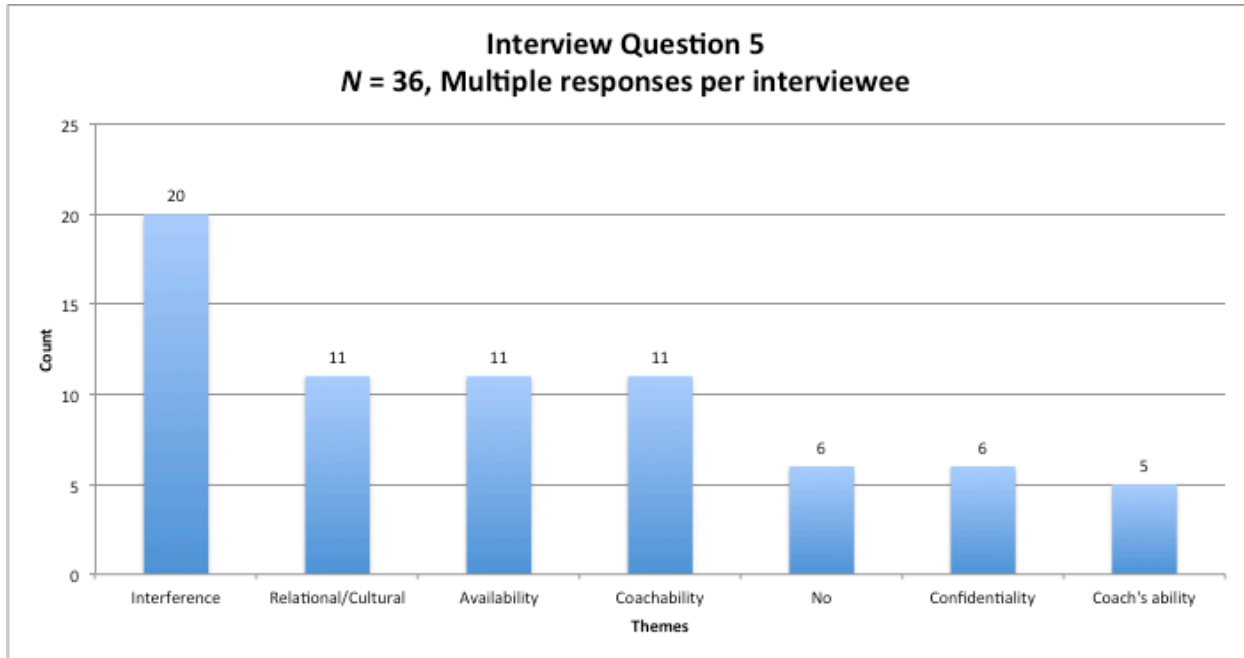


Figure 7. IQ5 - What constraints do you face in coaching a global executive?

Interference. There were 20 participants (56%) who identified some form of interference from the organization as a constraint on their coaching experience. These interferences were mainly a result of the person or committee who hired the coach in terms of how they should coach their client, or what specific methods they should use. For example, Respondent 1 noted: “the constraint I experience is when the person hiring me has an idea of what the leader I’m coaching should be like.” Similarly, other respondents noted: “HR firm telling me how I should coach” (Respondent 2); “in an organization like Cisco, there are certain acceptable and non acceptable models of coaching... they don’t necessarily want you to peel the onion to the next depth” (Respondent 5); “organizations can be very prescriptive about the types of assessments to use... corporate often want to centralize things” (Respondent 9); “often they say, you can’t

talk about his youth or psychological background or that you have to look forward and not backward in their life” (Respondent 16).

Given these constraints that HR might place on coaches, some coaches noted that “sometimes you have to get with the sponsoring organization to identify what are the hard fast rules and what they are flexible on... as a coach you need to have clarity upfront” (Respondent 19). Respondent 28 explained that there is often “inherent tension about the outcomes of coaching and the process... usually they want concrete outcomes but the process is fluid and we have to allow for the unfolding.”

Relational/Cultural. There were 11 participants (31%) who noted that relational or cultural dynamics were the biggest constraints in their way. As Respondent 30 noted, “real life has an annoying way of showing up to render your best laid plans moot... you’re always dealing with human beings... there’s always someone who thinks you’re a threat and wants to throw you under the bus... you never know where it comes from.” The comments in this section addressed the politics of corporate culture. For example, Respondent 10 explained that one of her biggest constraints is the actual role of the CEO and the “impossible... no-win positions” that they are often in. Their impossible positions often make it tough for the executive to be authentic. Therefore, Respondent 11 explained that “it is really important for executives to value feeling their feelings all the way to completion -- however there are sometimes cultural bias around, for example, candor and transparency... in some cultures there’s a commitment to collusion of not telling the truth.” At the core of it, therefore, “the organization and the team has to want you” (Respondent 13), but the “clients may run into organizational limitations about what they can or cannot do” (Respondent 14).

There is thus a necessity for the coach to be “continually aware of creating effective strategy to match the business needs and culture/politics” (Respondent 20). There may also be real and opposing differences between what the headquarter feels needs to happen, and what the local culture is able to deliver. For example, Respondent 29 explained that “the headquarter of many global organizations expect that I empower their local Chinese executives to be collaborative... but in China employees prefer the executive leaders to be more directive rather than empowering.”

Availability. There were 11 respondents (31%) who noted that the executive’s availability or busy schedule poses a constraint in their effective coaching. For example, Respondent 29 explained that “the biggest challenge is to catch them! My sessions are 2 hours and making time for that is tough.” Respondent 32 suggests offsite sessions, noting that “coaching a busy CEO in the middle of a busy day won’t have much of an impact... what you say will be drowned out by the noise... tell them you need to do an offsite.” Other respondents similarly noted scheduling as a constraint, noting that “you lose momentum if their calendar gets busy” (Respondent 2), or that “behavior change requires time and effort... busy people may not make the time for that” (Respondent 25).

Coachability. There were 11 participants (31%) who identified the client’s openness and willingness to be coached as a constraint in their effective implementation of coaching strategies and best practices. Respondent 2 explained that busy executives might get in “fight/flight” mode when it comes to dealing with their stressful challenges, making it challenging for them to open up in coaching sessions. Others noted that the biggest constraint is when “the client isn’t committed to the process or doesn’t understand the point of having a

coach” (Respondent 4), “when they’re not fully committed, I’m not interested” (Respondent 9), or it could be that there is not a good chemistry or connection (Respondent 16), or the client “isn’t sure why they want a coach” (Respondent 28).

None. There were six participants (17%) who said they never experienced any constraints in their coaching of global executives. Most noted that the reason is either because they are hired directly by the executive or that they will not accept a coaching contract unless they have full commitment from the individual and zero interference from other departments. For example, Respondent 23 explained that “if somebody reaches out to me and wants me as a coach, I’m pretty up front about my requirements.” Respondent 24 explained that “I don’t allow any constraints.” Similarly, Respondent 31 explained that “I don’t take on executive coaching clients where I am not free to coach fully without any constraints...and, regardless, the organizations are focused on results, not how i get my client there.”

Confidentiality. Six participants (17%) identified confidentiality as a constraint in their coaching experience with global executives. For example, often, they are asked by HR or other parties who have paid for the coaching that they need to break confidentiality and share the coaching process. Or the coach is told to keep a certain news away from the client. All participants noted confidentiality as the highest priority in their coaching relationships. Respondent 10 explained that “you have to be ok with the possibility of getting fired if you stand up for your client and their confidentiality.” Similarly, Respondent 22 explained that “often, the boss or others want to find out the results of the client’s 360 -- I push back and tell them that coaching has to be built upon a basis of confidentiality. I don’t report to anyone, it’s

up to the client.” Respondent 7 noted that confidentiality is often a constraint she faces, yet her stance is: “I won’t budge on 100% confidentiality with my clients.”

Coach’s ability. Five participants (14%) who expressed concern that their own fear-based patterns is often the constraint they experience. For example, Respondent 10 shared that “it’s taken me a long time to be able to not lose my footing when I’m being criticized.. I’ve had to learn that if I get scared and go into pleasing mode then I’m not going to be an effective coach.” Similarly, Respondent 13 added that “you can’t lead others before you can lead yourself. You can’t manage others before you can manage yourself.” Respondent 11 explained that “there is always resistance in the form of the coach’s fear... fearing to be as magnificently clear and powerful as you are.” Respondent 32 explained that “there’s no such thing as a resistant client... there’s only a mode of connecting that we haven’t had” -- noting that it is the coach’s ability and responsibility to break through creatively.

Interview Question 5 Summary. This question invited participants to reflect on possible constraints they experience that might impact their full ability to coach. Interference by the hiring department or individual appeared to be the most frequent constraint they experienced. In response, certain coaches noted that they demand 100% freedom in their coaching of executives, while others expressed flexibility in using the organization’s assessments and tools if necessary. However, coaches reiterated the importance of ensuring 100% confidentiality, regardless of any pushbacks from the hiring group. Other frequent constraints were in regards to relational challenges that arise due to the culture/politics of the organization. In response, coaches noted the importance of supporting clients in managing key relationships and teams. And to always be aware and accepting of cultural/political challenges and not allowing

them to force you from walking away. The client’s availability and coachability were also cited as possible constraints that may arise when coaching a global executive. Most respondents noted that the client’s willingness to make the time and their openness to being coached is a key element in having positive outcomes. Finally, a few respondents noted that all these challenges and constraints are a normal part of many corporate environments, and that the coach needs to continue to strengthen their ability to communicate strong boundaries and educate themselves in terms of creative ways to deal with constraint

Interview question 6. In your opinion, what’s the hardest part about doing good coaching with global executives? Four themes emerged in response to this question: coach presence, speaking truth to power, scheduling and client resistance. This section provides a detailed account of each theme.

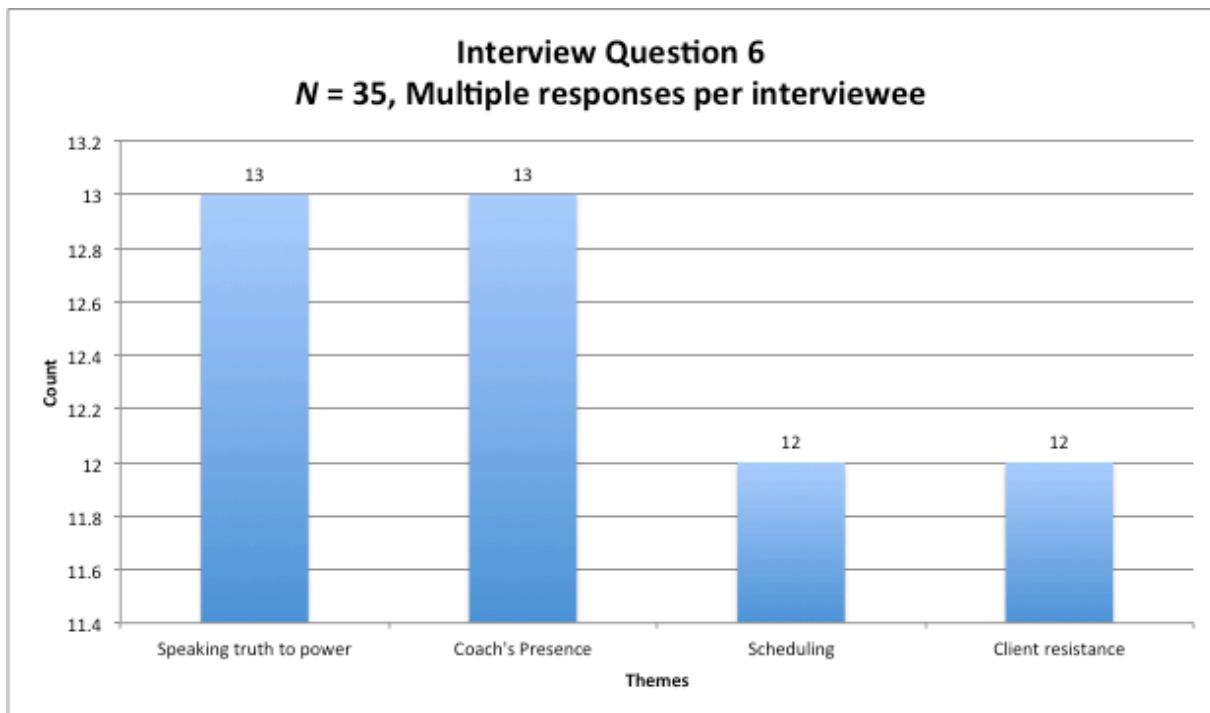


Figure 8. IQ6 - What’s the toughest part about doing good coaching with a global executive?

Speaking truth to power. There were 13 participants (37%) who identified the courage to call the executive on important truths and to draw strong boundaries as the toughest part of doing good coaching with a global executive. For example, Respondent 5 noted the challenges involved when he wants to ask a deep question from an executive, yet he wonders “if it’s my place to ask that question.” Respondent 10 explains truth to power as her ability to “not fall into pleasing mode when I’m getting heat from the executive... because the second I get into pleasing mode, I’m a terrible coach.” Respondent 13 shares her perspective on truth to power, by noting that it’s important “to be daring... it’s daring to feel the truth and offer my thoughts and reflections.” Another respondent explains speaking truth to power as:

Keeping them on focus... not let them evade the topic because it’s challenging... not to succumb or be tempted to go into strategic planning... it’s often not a technical business skill that they have to learn, it’s often about how they are dealing with others...I bring it back to personal responsibility and awareness. (Respondent 16)

Similarly, Respondent 22 noted that one of the hardest parts of coaching a global executive is to keep them focused on their leadership vision and show them how they consciously and unconsciously create their experiences. As Respondent 18 explained, establishing boundaries with a strong global executive is challenging because “they are used to having everything they want and when they want it.” Similarly, Respondent 28 explained how the hardest part of coaching a global executive for him is to point out the importance of the relational aspect of their leadership and all the ways they are authoritative and controlling,

instead of “generous and generative.” Overall, however, it is the coach’s ability to “know when to say no” and when to “let go when it’s the right thing to do” is one of the hardest parts of coaching a global executive (Respondent 30).

Coach presence. There were 13 participants (37%) who identified maintaining their coaching presence as the hardest part of doing good coaching. Discussions of coach presence included comments related to the coach’s ability and challenges to stay in a compassionate, patient and focused mindset to ensure a sacred coaching connection which allows the client to solve their own problems. For example, Respondent 10 explained that the hardest part for her is “staying in compassion.” Respondent 11 explained that the hardest part for him is “not to get distracted or seduced away from my calling and what I’m there to do... there’s lots of seduction of power and money and it’s easy to lose track of your life.” As Respondent 12 explained, you have “to be willing to have patience, to have them move at their own pace.” In order to do this, Respondent 19 explains that you have to be willing “to let go of your own agenda and rules around your coaching so that you can meet them where they are at.”

Furthermore, Respondent 22 explained the temptation all coaches face in solving their client’s problems, however, it’s the awareness that it is not the job of the coach to solve their problems. The reason that maintaining a compassionate presence is challenging is explained best by Respondent 29: “it is challenging to be fully present and mindful at all times. We are all human beings with stuff going on in our lives. It’s tough to be in the here and now with them. It’s tough to not judge sometimes.” To ensure a strong coaching presence, Respondent 32 suggests that the “coach needs a good personal spiritual practice in order to develop their capacity so that they don’t over identify with their own ego!”

Scheduling. There were 12 participants (34%) who identified scheduling difficulties as the hardest part of coaching a global executive. As Respondent 15 explained, “they have so much to do and they’re so busy - they sometimes don’t have the time and just want answers.” The comments to this question included: “their time” (Respondent 19); “scheduling and keeping the momentum going” (Respondent 21); “scheduling regular sessions with a busy global executive who is flying all around the world with an unpredictable schedule” (Respondent 24); “their calendar gets pushed beyond imagination... often it’s easiest for them to cancel their coaching” (Respondent 25). Respondent 32 noted the hardest part of coaching a global executive is to “get time on their schedule;” yet he adds that what makes it more challenging is that “most global CEO’s are overwhelmed by the complexity of what they’re dealing with” and they often draw the coach into their overwhelm so that their coach could also feel it.

Client resistance: There were 12 participants (34%) who noted the hardest part of coaching a global executive is the resistance they have to being coached. They explained client resistance in a number of ways. As Respondent 6 explains, “their ego gets in the way and challenge them to wake up ... their ego wants to keep them unconscious and holding onto old self protective patterns.” For many global executives, Respondent 7 explained that it is very difficult for them to discuss their feelings or even to get them to feel or articulate how they are feeling. Respondent 20 added that “sometimes the client just doesn’t get it and progress can be very slow.” Respondent 23 explains that “sometimes very successful people don’t see any value in coaching and wonder why their boss or colleagues want them to get a coach.”

Interview question 6 summary. The four themes that emerged in response to this question appear in relatively equal percentages. While 37% identified Speaking Truth to Power as the hardest part of coaching a global executives, nearly similar numbers of individuals identified Coach Presence (37%), Scheduling (34%) and Client Resistance (34%) as the hardest part. From the comments shared by participants, it appears that given the busy schedules of global executives and their tendency to have strong defense mechanisms, executive coaches face challenges in ensuring they are speaking the hard truths, instead of appeasing, while showing up to the coaching relationship with compassion and clarity.

Interview question 7. Have you ever experienced an ethical dilemma in your coaching of global leaders? If so, please explain it further and how you would address the situation. The following four themes emerged:

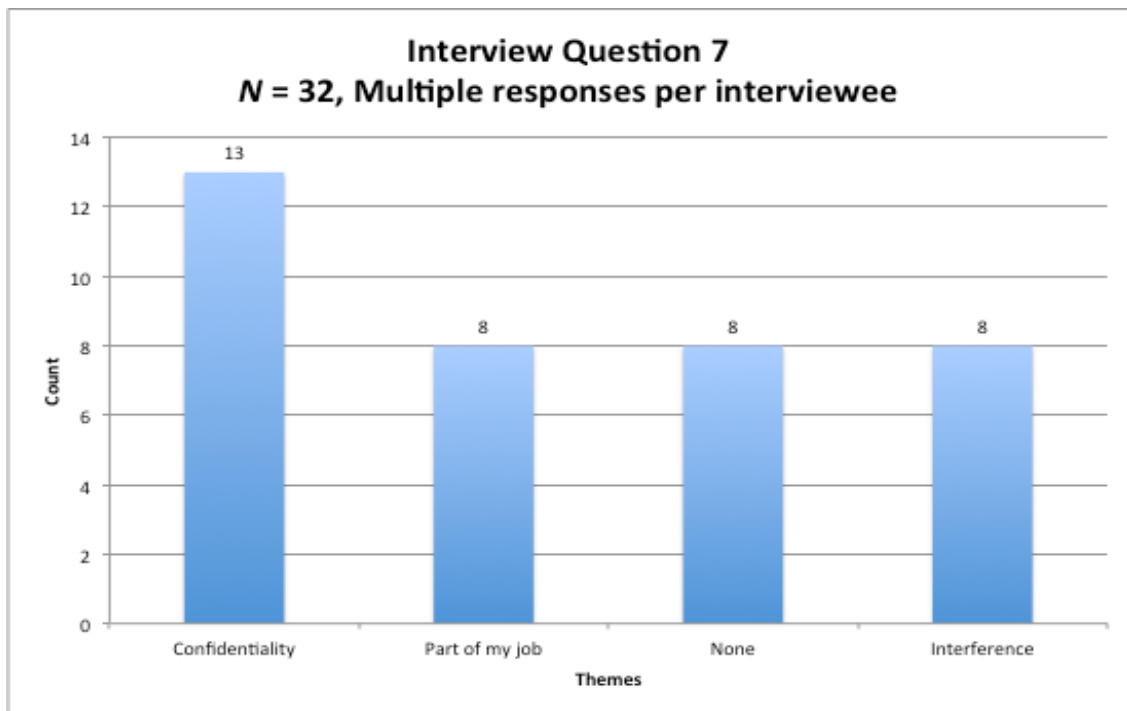


Figure 9. IQ7 - What ethical dilemmas do you face when coaching a global executive?

Confidentiality. There were 13 participants (41%) who identified confidentiality as an ethical dilemma they have experienced in coaching a global executive. The comments referred to the HR or other parties who have paid for the coaching for wanting to learn more about the content of the coaching relationship. Participants spoke about the strong code of silence they follow in ensuring 100% confidentiality with their clients. Respondent 23 explained that, to him, “ethics are about confidentiality and clear agreements up front. That’s the only ethical issue. The privacy of coaching.” Respondent 24 noted that “the ethical dilemma arises because the one paying for coaching is often different than the one receiving the coaching, so the question for the coach would become, who are you responsible for?”

As Respondent 15 explained: “It’s not good for me to tell others in the company about my client’s progress. But they do call and want to know. You have to draw the line and you have to have your client’s back. If you want to talk, then be transparent about it with your client.” Even if HR makes demands, Respondent 22, for example, explains that “I tell them that I have to bring it up with my client and be transparent.” An additional component of confidentiality is a point that Respondent 32 shared about confidentiality toward the CEO’s team: “A common dilemma I experience when I coach a CEO is that I make it clear that I won’t comment on their team members when I’m coaching them. They ask me which one I can fire, and I tell them that it’s not my job to comment on that.”

Part of my job. There were eight participants (25%) who explained that it was part of their job to deal with the many ethical dilemmas that arise while they are coaching a global executive. For example, Respondent 3 noted that “I help people with their scandals. Ethics is situational.” Respondent 6 explained how she has to “be mindful of cultural nuances. In some

cultures bribes are ok. In some cultures having an extramarital affair is acceptable. So I have to put things within a cultural context.” Respondent 10 explained how “ethical dilemmas can come up with political dilemmas within the organization... and it is when you’re being asked to do something that I feel crosses a values line.” Respondent 23 explained how he utilizes the ethical dilemma to support his client. For example, “if the client is being asked to lie to a customer... that’s an opportunity to help the leader to resolve the situation.” However, he adds that “I’ve fired clients because they were unwilling to operate with integrity either toward me or someone else.”

Respondent 27 explains that he has come across unethical business practices in the organization’s sales or revenue models. He refers to this as the “organization’s shadow” which “we kept bumping up against” – “my work with them ended because we couldn’t reconcile that. You can’t manipulate one area in your life without manipulating other areas.” Similarly, Respondent 29 noted that “I will see someone plant bad seeds somewhere and I have to put myself on the line to confront them quickly. I have to have strong borders, a sense of integrity. For me, it’s about what’s motivating this... is this a bad person doing bad things? Or a good person caught up in a bad situation? If it’s the former, I pull out.” Respondent 32 explained his approach to ethical dilemmas: “a coach’s job is not to solve the CEO’s problems, but to sue the problems to challenge them to grow ethical capacity.”

None. There were eight participants (25%) who noted that they have not experienced an ethical dilemma while coaching a global executive. Respondent 16 noted: “I’ve been able to avoid those... I work with people who want to make a positive impact in the world.”

Interference. There were eight people (25%) who noted that they experience an ethical dilemma when the hiring body dictates how to coach or want to impose a specific outcome on the coaching process. Other situations of interference is when the coach finds out that the hiring body has ulterior motives or is manipulating their client in some way. When this happens, Respondent 21 notes that “I sometimes stop the engagement.” The “ethical challenge” according to Respondent 27 is when “the person who hires you has an agenda.”

Interview question 7 summary: There were 32 overall responses to interview question 7 which addressed any ethical dilemmas the participant had faced in coaching a global executive. The majority of the responses were about situations where the coach is placed in a situation where they are either asked about confidential information about the client, or they become aware of information about the client which the client is not aware of. In these situations, the coaches noted that their first priority is their loyalty to their client. And that even if they were asked to reveal a client-related matter, they would first discuss it with their client. Nearly an equal number of respondents noted that facing and addressing ethical dilemmas is a part of why they are hired as an executive coach. And that the opportunity is to ultimately leverage the ethical challenge as a way to strengthen the client’s “ethical capacity” (Respondent 32).

Research Question 2 Summary: This research question examined the challenges that executive coaches experience in supporting senior level global executives. The challenges had a great deal to do with the realities that senior global leaders face in leading in a very fast paced and complex environment where their schedules are packed and in a constant state of flux. Global executives are described as very smart and often very guarded. Therefore, they often challenge executive coaches and it may take some time for them to feel a certain level of trust

to be vulnerable and open up to being challenged about their underlying assumptions and beliefs. In this environment, where ethical dilemmas appear to be part and parcel, the main challenge that executive coaches appear to have is their own sense of confidence in their coaching abilities, and their courage to speak the hard truths and set strong boundaries. In addition, executive coaches mentioned that it is challenging to maintain a strong, neutral and compassionate presence. They noted that it is often challenging to know when to say no to a client, and when to practice patience and allow the client their own process.

Research Question 3: How do executive coaches measure the success of their strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations? To examine this question, the following three interview questions were asked:

- IQ8: What success criteria are you usually accountable for when you are coaching global leaders?
- IQ9: How do the organizations you've worked with typically measure coaching against these criteria?
- IQ10: How do you measure your success?

Interview Question 8: What success criteria are you usually accountable for when you are coaching global leaders? The following five themes emerged: perceived behavior change, develop together, client satisfaction, increased presence/wellness, and pre/post 360. The following section provides more detailed analysis of each theme.

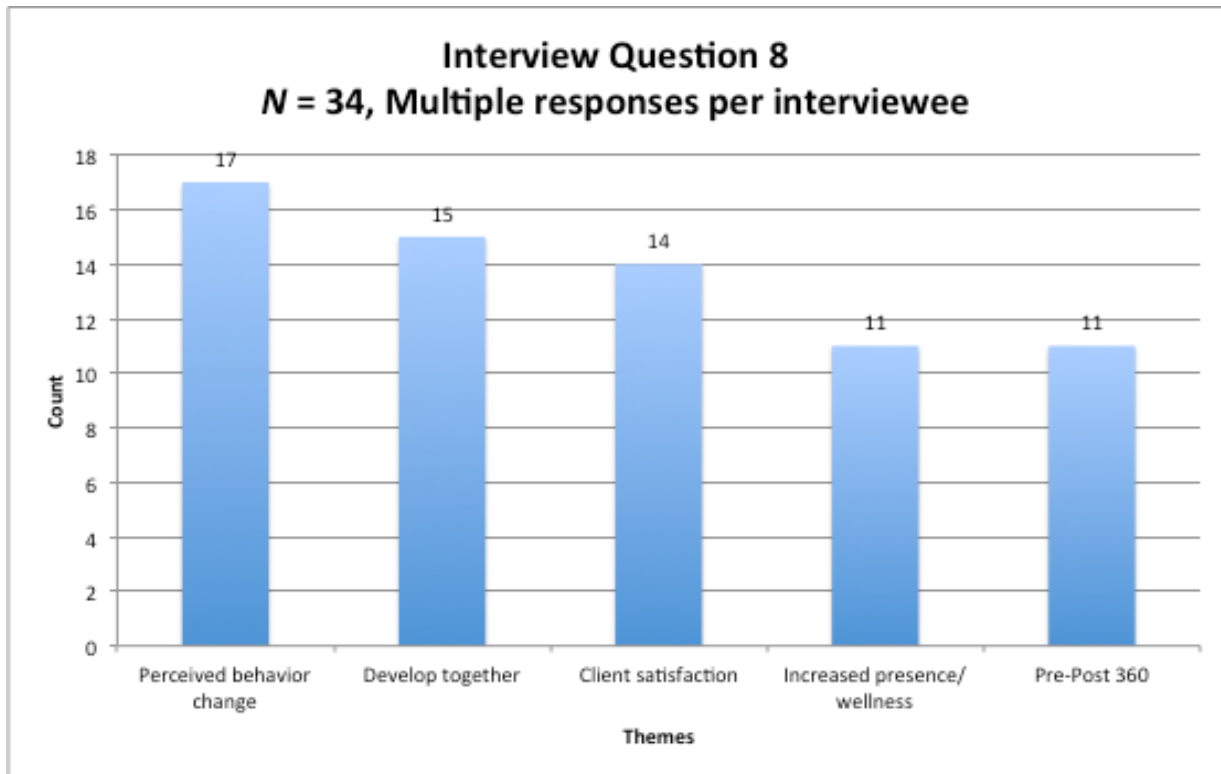


Figure 10. IQ8 - What success criteria are you usually held accountable for?

Perceived behavior change. There were 17 participants (50%) who noted that the success criteria they are held most accountable for when coaching a global leader is perceived behavior change. Responses in this area refer to mostly informal perceptions of behavior change from the people who interact with the client. As Respondent 19 explained, “success criteria is all over the map. It’s usually if the people around them see improvements.” Similarly, Respondent 22 noted that “most companies just want better performance the executives and don’t know how to get them better.” One respondent noted that she usually works with a “clear set of objectives that are linked to tangible behaviors/actions.”

Other comments included more general accountability of behavior change: “My success criteria is if the person is more effective as a human being and as an executive” (Respondent 5), “and are the bosses happy with his or her performance” (Respondent 9), “getting behavior change” (Respondent 10), “to change behavior via that increased awareness of being” (Respondent 13). Another respondent further explained that:

Outcome would not just be people being better in their job but how the coaching helped create a team that’s creating value? I’m accountable for the 7 generations that came before me, and the 7 generations that will come after me, and all the beings... am I doing my best to have a beneficial impact in the world? (Respondent 32)

Develop together. There were 15 participants (44%) who noted that the success criteria they are held most accountable for when coaching a global leader is developed jointly with the client and sometimes their teams at the onset of the coaching agreement. Responses ranged from specific criteria that the executive or coach alone define as a success criteria, to criteria established through a group effort. As Respondent 30 explained, “it’s unique to each assignment... be in agreement and recognize it’s an organic agreement.”

For example, Respondent 7 noted that her success criteria is “whatever the client defines as success... and the biggest difference between me having success with someone and not, is how bought into the need for coaching they are.” Respondent 10 explained that “I am the one who sets the outcome goals. I’ve had to learn to take responsibility in setting that.” Similarly, Respondent 16 noted that “it’s their agenda... so we are mutually accountable for the success... I’m accountable for staying on target and making sure we get somewhere in line with the goals the leader has wet with me.”

Comments in regards to group effort include: “If the company hires me, it’s about setting expectations” (Respondent 27); “setting the success criteria depends... sometimes I’m being asked by a head of HR to go somewhere... so the criteria would be to get them to that result” (Respondent 14); “often we set the goal and clear it with the boss beforehand” (Respondent 15). Similarly, Respondent 19 explained that “I generally develop the goals with the client and track it throughout just with the client.” Overall, it appears that the success criteria varies depending on the specific situation. As Respondent 24 explained, “it varies with every leader because each one is looking for a change or breakthrough.”

Client satisfaction. There were 14 participants (41%) who noted that the success criteria they were held accountable for was the client’s satisfaction. For example, “do they feel like it’s working?” (Respondent 1); “I’m accountable to the executive... if the coaching is going well, that’s what I’m accountable for...” (Respondent 2); “if they feel they are getting value” (Respondent 3); “the accountability they impose on me is if the executive is getting good out of it” (Respondent 9).

Increased presence/wellness. There were 11 participants (32%) who explained that the success criteria they are held accountable for is their client’s increased sense of presence and wellness. Comments under this theme refer to the client’s ability to experience a shift in their awareness and as a result gain an overall sense of wellness. As Respondent 29 explains, “the success has more to do with the well being of my client... I help them bring more meaning to their lives... there are 40 leadership skills that we use... but the real measure of success is if they feel better about their lives.”

Other respondents made similar comments. For example, Respondent 3 explained his success criteria being: “they say they understand themselves and their shortcomings... and understand others.” Similarly, other respondents noted: “if the person is more effective as a human being and as an executive” (Respondent 5); “my success criteria is when they become less reactive and more living in their genius... if they do that, they’ll experience their own success” (Respondent 11); “increased awareness for themselves... about how they act and how they are...” (Respondent 13); “my promise to my clients is that if they fully engage in the process, they will have a transformational experience where they feel significantly different than when we first started” (Respondent 18); “the success has more to do with the well being of my client... that’s why they refer me” (Respondent 29).

Pre/Post 360. There were 11 participants (32%) who noted the use of an assessment similar to a 360 that is conducted prior and after a coaching engagement as their success criteria. For example, Respondent 19 explained that he generally uses a 360 at the start of a coaching engagement, and then develops success criteria based on that assessment in collaboration with his client which they keep track of throughout the engagement. Others noted the effectiveness of using an assessment such as the 360 in that “assessments work best for self awareness and gives them a good framework...” (Respondent 20). Respondent 9 noted that he utilizes the proprietary 360 assessments that he has developed to hold himself and the client accountable to. Respondent 2 explained that she prefers the use of a 360 before and after a coaching engagement because it helps the executive in becoming aware of how they are being experienced by others in a way that seems objective and empirically based.

Interview question 8 summary. The aim of question 8 was to gain a deeper understanding of the success criteria that executive coaches are usually held accountable for when coaching a global executives. There were 34 people who responded to this question. Overall, their answers revealed that the primary success criteria often used with global executives is the development of goals developed in collaboration with the executive (50%) and the perceived behavior change from colleagues throughout the course of the engagement (44%). Often (32%), a pre/post 360 assessment is utilized to develop the goals. Respondents noted that the use of a pre/post assessment is helpful in allowing the executive to have an empirical metric to work with. Aside from behavior change and metrics, the basis of success criteria for many participants (35%) is the client's perceived sense of overall wellness and renewed clarity and meaning about their life.

Interview Question 9: How do the organizations you've worked with typically measure coaching against these criteria? There were 27 participants who provided an answer to this question. Four themes emerged: assessments, don't know, perceived behavioral change, and client satisfaction.

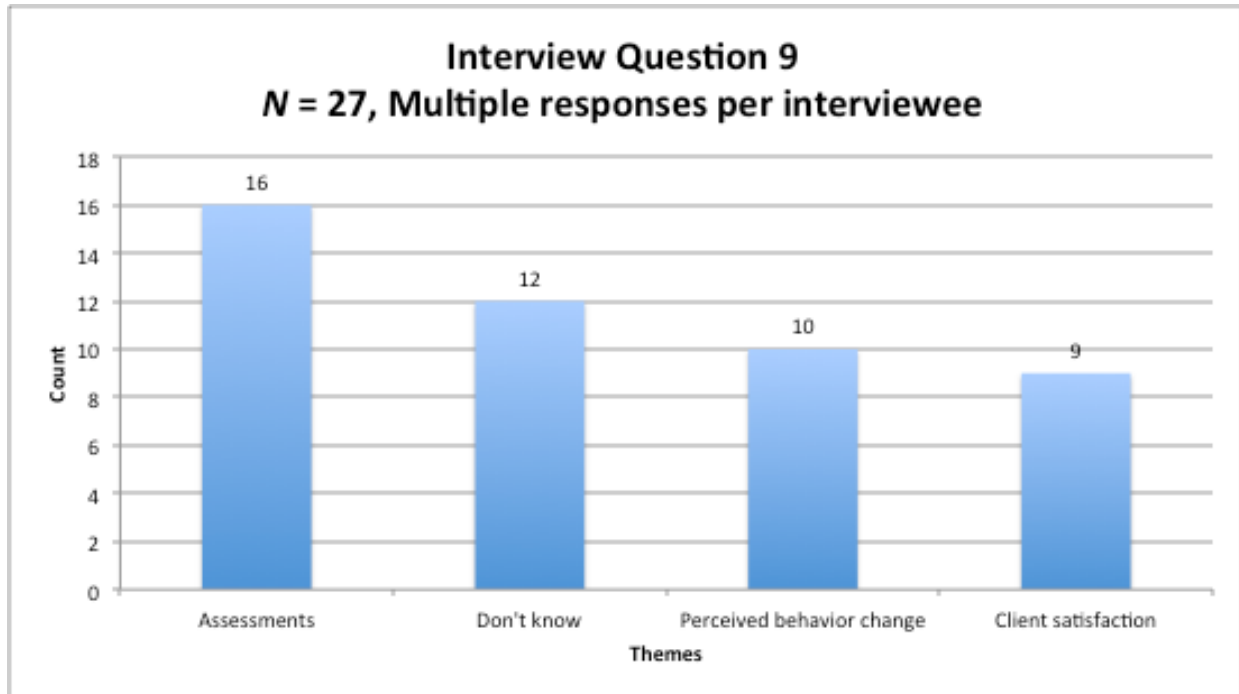


Figure 11. IQ9 - How do organizations measure coaching against the success criteria?

Assessments. There were 16 participants (59%) who noted that the organizations they work for usually utilize a form of pre/post assessment instrument to measure coaching effectiveness. As respondent 9 explained, “I prefer to use whatever scores or metrics they already use.” Similarly, Respondent 21 explained that “they do a combo of qualitative and quantitative assessment at the end of the coaching engagement.” Others explained that they prefer to use their own measurement instruments: “I do the measuring... you have to specify the concrete change that you’ll achieve... I do quite a bit of assessment and understand what’s going on with the business” (Respondent 10).

Don't know. There were 12 participants (44%) who expressed that they either don't know or are not aware of what the organization uses to measure coaching effectiveness, stating that a measurement of a return on investment (ROI) is typically very hard to do. For example,

Respondent 29 noted that “organizations do a lousy job of evaluating what we do.” Others noted that in their opinion, “I don’t think any of them measure success ... it’s very surface level ... nothing numerical” (Respondent 7); “it’s rare for them to have any metrics” (Respondent 19).

Perceived behavior change. There were 10 participants (37%) who said that organizations typically measure coaching success based on an informal assessment of the client’s perceived behavior change. As Respondent 7 explains, “they just focus on informal ways of seeing if the negative behavior has gone away.” Similar comments included: “their criteria is more subjective... measures of perceived behavior change...” (Respondent 9); “it’s really hard for the organization to measure the success... but it’s easier to sense that the person is more at ease or less angry... and how they’ve shifted in their way of relating to people” (Respondent 13); “the organization measures success by their team’s perception of the leader’s changes” (Respondent 14); “the measurements are somewhat subjective because they want a leader to simply be more personable and less of a personality problem so the coach is hired to work with them on their people skills... so that’s measured subjectively by others” (Respondent 23).

Client satisfaction. There were nine participants (33%) who noted that the organizations basically measure the success of coaching based on whether the client was satisfied with the value they received. For example, Respondent 3 noted that the organizations that he has worked with typically measure success based on “if a CEO is pleased or not.” Other coaches noted that they ask the client whether he or she was satisfied with the coaching after each session. Respondent 32 added that the true measure of success should be in measuring value creation for all stakeholders, including the client.”

Interview question 9 summary. There were a total of 27 participants who responded to question 9. Overall, nearly 60% of respondents noted that organizations rely on pre and post assessments to measure the changes in behavior for the person being coached. About 44% were not aware of any type of formal measurement of coaching criteria. Yet, close to 40% of respondents noted that organizations rely on perceptions of behavior change as an informal indicator of coaching success. Over 30% of respondents explained that organizations mainly rely on the client's satisfaction as a measure of coaching success. These responses indicate that there is a combination of informal methods that organizations utilize to gauge coaching effectiveness, mainly observation and client's satisfaction), and quite often they use some form of assessment to gauge the pre and post differences in key indicators of leadership behavior.

Interview Question 10: How do you measure your success? There were 20 participants who responded to this question, with three overall themes emerging: client satisfaction, coach satisfaction, and referrals.

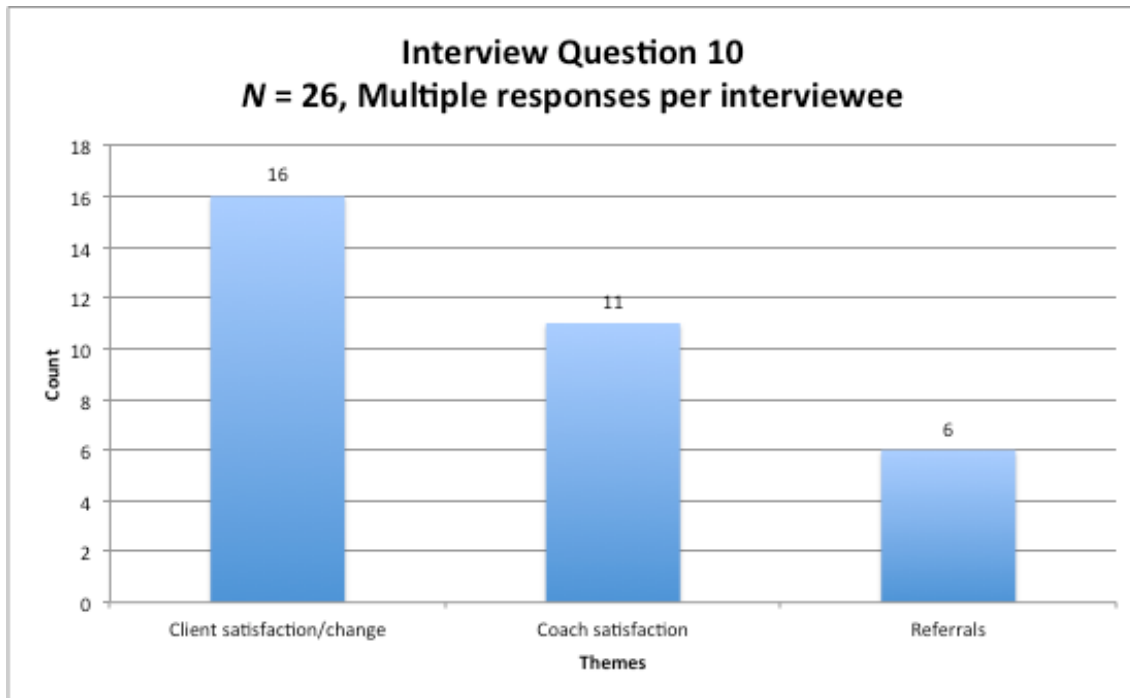


Figure 12. IQ10 - How do you measure your coaching success?

Client satisfaction. There were 16 participants (62%) who noted that their own measure of success is whether the client was satisfied with the coaching engagement. Responses included comments such as: “when a client says my life wouldn’t be where it is without you” (Respondent 1); “if I’ve helped them deepen their capacity” (Respondent 2); “through my client’s success... if they are getting good results, then I’m happy with my work... my work is less about me than about them” (Respondent 10); “I get it from my coachee... you feel it after each session” (Respondent 13); “I gauge success in terms of my client’s happiness” (Respondent 17); “if the client felt they grew... how they feel when we wrap up... was this a good value for them” (Respondent 19); “if they are feeling better about their lives” (Respondent 29).

Coach satisfaction. There were 11 participants (42%) who noted that their way of measuring their coaching success is through their own sense of satisfaction about the session.

The satisfaction is gauged differently by different coaches. Some measure their satisfaction by the extent of fun they had, or the moments of clarity they brought to their clients. Others define their own satisfaction by the level of coaching master they brought to the session. For example, Respondent 31 explained that “I measure my success by an honest self assessment and review of my coaching and what occurs in the context of the coaching engagement... I know when I’ve brought my best and given everything I have and I haven’t.” Other comments include: “If I’m having fun and doing good work together;” “if I stayed present and on purpose... if I was a space of loving acceptance... if I was fully candid, if I was fully willing to make a mess” (Respondent 11); “by knowing I did the best I could with the client” (Respondent 25).

Referrals. There were 6 participants (23%) who noted that they measured their success by whether or not they received referrals. For example, Respondent 21 noted that she measures her success “if I keep getting work from them through referrals!” Similarly, Respondent 23 explained that “for my personal practice, I measure it by the rate of renewal and the rate of referral... If the clients are renewing and they are referring other leaders to me... that’s a measure of success.”

Interview question 10 summary. The 26 individuals who responded to this question noted that the measure their own coaching success through client satisfaction (62%), their own satisfaction (42%) or referrals (23%). While client satisfaction referred to the ways in which client’s provided feedback of their satisfaction and overall sense of happiness as a result of the coaching engagement, their own satisfaction measures were based on whether they felt they brought their best skills and presence to the session. Another typical way of measuring their own success was whether clients were referring them to others or renewing their contracts.

Interview Question 11: If your clients were to thank you for their success, what would they say about your contributions to making their success possible? There were 30 participants who responded to this question, with four overall themes that emerged: I helped them shift perspective, I was a kind & tough guide, I helped them live a better life, and I taught them practical skills. The section below examines in each theme in more detail.

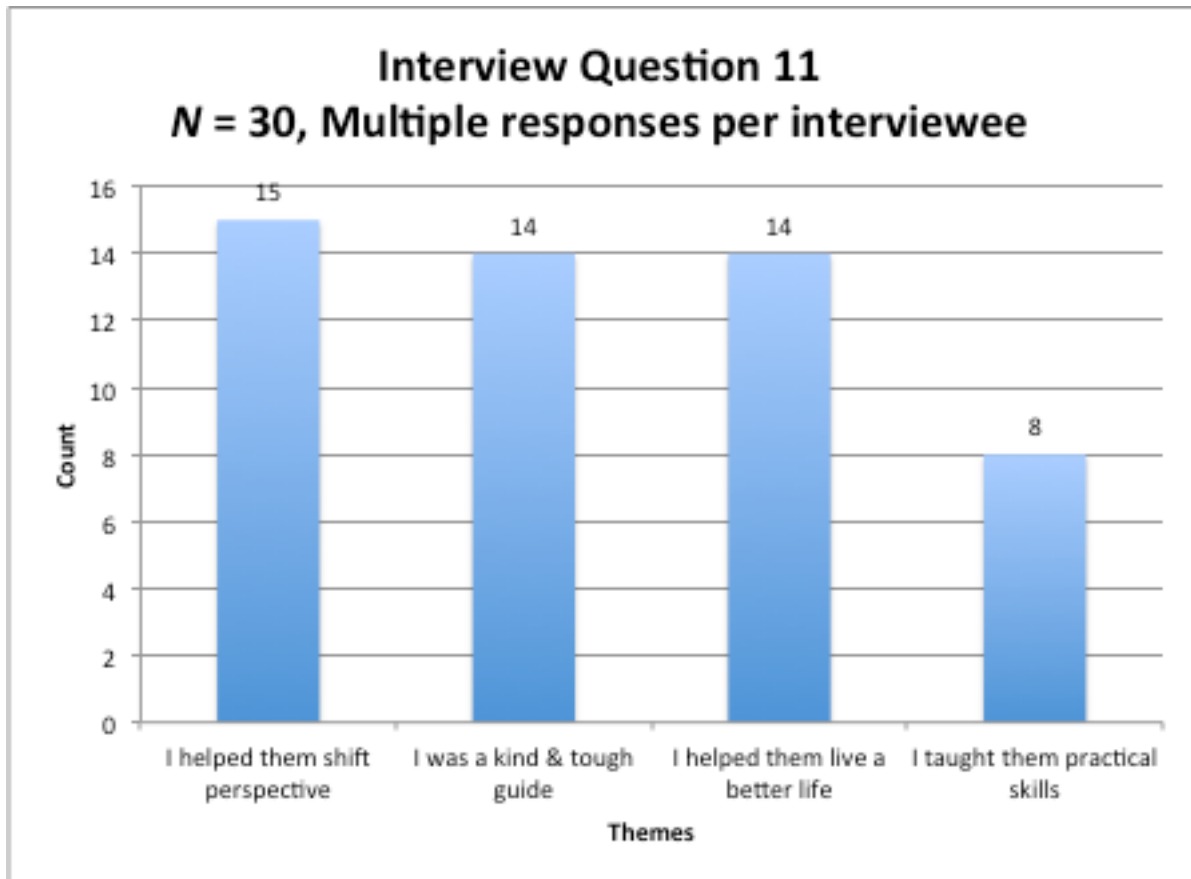


Figure 13. IQ11 - If your clients were to thank you for their success, what would they say?

I helped them shift perspective. There were 15 participants (50%) who noted that their clients would probably thank them by saying that they shifted their perspective as a result of working the coach. For example, Respondent 1 noted that his clients would typically say: “he helped me shift from fear and self doubt and motivation through fear into a faith, trust and

peaceful way of being.” Respondent 6 explained that his clients would typically say that “I helped them look at their unconscious lens, and shift to more integrity and conscious awareness... they’d say I helped them learn more about their own psychology and the fear patterns that come with their particular personality type... I don’t coach the business problems they bring to me... I coach them to just see all their issues from a higher more compassionate perspective. Then everything else flows from that.”

Similarly, Respondent 11 noted that his clients would typically say: “As a result of our relationship, their eyes opened and they saw life like they’d never seen it before... they’re more free and less encumbered... they are more playful and have more fun... they hardly take anything seriously.” Respondent 13 added that “they’d say there was much more awareness... they have realized a lot of things they have never talked about... some say they’ve worded things that they’ve never shared with anyone.” Respondent 16 explained a similar response, in that “most of the time they tell me I surprise them with the type of questions and took them to places they had no knowledge of before in themselves.” Respondent 32 similarly noted that his client would say that “he helped me see the bigger picture.”

I was a kind & tough guide. About the same number of participants, 14 (47%), noted that their clients would typically say that the coach was a much needed compassionate, yet challenging presence for them to guide them through this journey. For example, Respondent 2 said that her clients would perhaps say that “they appreciate my kindness, humor and fierce authenticity.” Respondent 10 explained that “they’d say all kinds of nice things like I’m smart, compassionate, dedicated, get them through, reliable.” Similarly, Respondent 25 noted that “I think they feel heard... they feel supported... they feel cared for.” Respondent 32 noted that his

clients would perhaps say that “he got me through the complexity to simplicity on the other side.” Respondent 27 explained that his clients would probably say that “they felt loved and supported.”

I helped them live a better life. There were 14 participants (47%) who noted that their clients would typically say that they are now living a more fulfilled and happier life because of their coaching experience. For example, Respondent 1 noted that “I helped them see a more powerful and happier way of living.” Similarly, Respondent 6 noted “they’d say I’m happier than I’ve ever been, and more content in all my relationships.” Respondent 10 added that “once they are more confident with the people part, they get to experience the best in themselves.” Likewise, Respondent 22 expressed that “they usually say things like you’ve opened my eyes and I realized I had this limiting behavior that was tipping me over... and as soon as I got passed that I started to do better.” Respondent 28 explained that as a result of coaching, his clients would typically say that “they’re doing what they love and they’re benefitting in every area of their life.” Respondent 29 similarly explained, “I made them feel better about their lives.”

I taught them practical skills. There were eight respondents (27%) who noted that their clients would typically say that it was the practical skills that they were taught during the coaching session that best contributed to their success. Responses include: “They can deepen their capability and leave with a plan... walk the path with practical feet” (Respondent 2), “they come away with better leadership skills... I work with lots of clients who don’t know what to do with tough situations that have a human element to it... most of them feel they come to me unable to deal with the people part” (Respondent 10); “you gave me confidence” (Respondent 18); “you held me accountable and helped me reach my goals” (Respondent 21).

Interview question 11 summary. There were 30 participants who responded to question 11 and shared their perspective about what their clients would say about how the coaching experience contributed to their success. Overall, responses covered four overarching categories about the coach's contributions: I helped them shift perspective (50%), I was a kind & tough guide (47%), I helped them live a better life (47%) and I taught them practical skills (27%). The top three themes help explain a general notion that clients contribute coaching success to helping them shift their fear-based perspectives by being a kind and tough guide and thus helping them live a better life overall.

Research Question 3 Summary. Research question three was about gauging the ways in which executive coaches best measure the success of their best strategies/practices. The four interview questions provided key insights into the various forms of measurement: (a) how they identify the success criteria, (b) how the organizations measure the attainment of the success criteria, c) how the coach measures their own success, and (d) what the clients might say about the coach's contribution to their success. First, they noted that the success criteria they are usually held accountable for is mostly based on their client's perceived behavior change (44%), their client's satisfaction (41%), or their client's experience of increased presence and wellness (32%). These outcomes are often developed jointly between the coach and client (50%) or through pre and post assessments such as a 360 (32%).

Second, participants noted that the organizations they work with typically measure the achievement of these success criteria through assessments (59%), perceived behavior change (37%), or expressions of client satisfaction (33%). However, nearly 45% of respondents noted

that they are not fully aware of how and if the organizations they work with have any formal way of measuring coaching effectiveness against the success criteria.

Third, participants explained their own way of measuring the success of their coaching. Their responses indicated that about 62% measure their success based on their client's satisfaction, 42% measure their success based on their own satisfaction with the coaching engagement, and about 23% measure their own coaching success by the referrals they receive from their coaching clients. Fourth, respondents noted that if their clients were to thank them for their success, they would typically say that the coach helped them shift their fear-based perspectives (50%), was a kind and tough guide (47%), helped them live a better life (47%), and taught them practical skills (27%).

Research Question 4: What recommendations do executive coaches make for coaching senior level executives in global organizations? The following three interview questions were designed to gain more insights into research question 4:

- IQ12: What are you most proud of in terms of how you meet these challenges?
- IQ13: What role will executive coaches play in developing global leaders to be more effective in responding to events in the global economy?
- IQ14: What is the best way for executive coaches to continue to sharpen their skills?

Interview question 12. Interview question 12 inquired about the executive coach's personal sense of pride in how they deal with the typical challenges that arise when coaching a global executive. Six themes emerged: facilitate awareness expansion, presence, courage,

resourcefulness, positive comments/referrals, and business results. The following section provides a more detailed analysis of each theme.

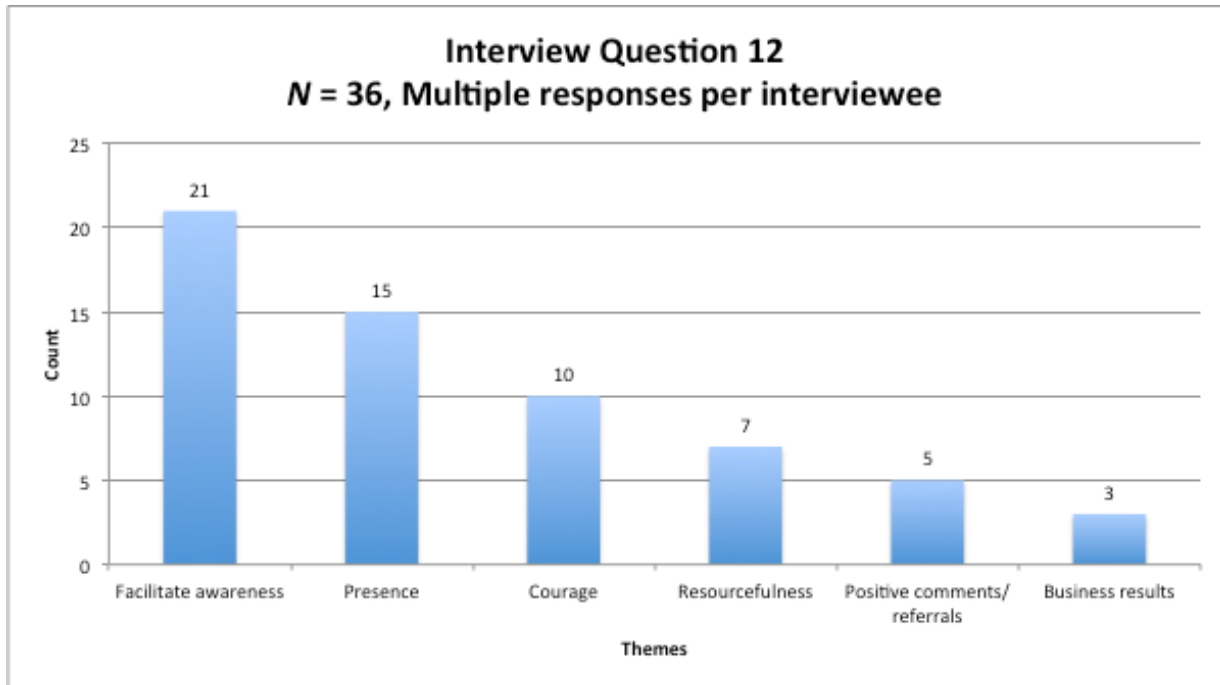


Figure 14. IQ12 - What are you most proud of in terms of supporting a global executive?

Facilitate awareness expansion. There were 21 participants (58%) who noted that what they were most proud of in addressing the challenges that arise in coaching a global executive is their ability to facilitate their client’s expansion of awareness. As Respondent 4 explains, “often they haven’t faced the truth about their own patterns or habits and how that impacts their lives, they haven’t faced the truth of their own ways... seeing them make the shift from the old story to new ways of being.” Similar responses included comments such as: “I help them see their lens and drop old stories” (Respondent 1); “when I help someone make a complete turnaround, when they shift their thoughts and habits and achieve the results they want” (Respondent 4); “just realizing that I’ve opened a new door for them or a new way of looking at

things” (Respondent 5); “so much joy in seeing them shift out of fear... to watch the rippling effect of their joy and integrity... watching them become more happy peaceful people... I’m proud that I help them become more conscious people” (Respondent 6).

Respondent 7 explains her pride in that “when they realize that being more authentic actually helps them in all areas of their lives!” (Respondent 7). Other responses include: “I can see not enoughness as it shows up either in me or in you...and point it out” (Respondent 11); “I’m proud of getting people from doing to being” (Respondent 14); “I’m proud when I see them deepen the process and awaken to the power of their own truth... when they break free of their own story and see what their potential is about... when they realize that by creating an internal shift, the outer reality changes too” (Respondent 18); “I’m proud to be of service... it’s very rewarding when you work with someone and they have a profound shift” (Respondent 19).

Presence. There were 15 participants (42%) who stated their pride in terms of the compassionate, caring and nonjudgmental presence they are able to bring to the coaching engagement where they are open to learning and growing together in a safe space. For example, Respondent 11 notes that he is very proud of the fact that:

I’m totally willing to see my own not enoughness when it shows up... and when it shows up, I’m not afraid of it... it’s just a scared part of us that needs a little love... I’m proud that I know the path back to enoughness... I’m proud that I can be a safe space... see their sense of lack from a place of love... and invite them into accepting it all.

Similarly, Respondent 13 explains that she is proud of “really just staying without judging... it’s very hard... took me years to get there.” Respondent 15 also mentioned that “I’m most proud when I catch myself when I’m in a judgment mode.” Likewise, Respondent 17

explained that “I’m most proud when I can say it’s not about me... when I have the ability to be present and just observe that they are being slippery or challenging... I’m most proud when I can stop myself and just tell myself to breathe... and to trust in my discipline that something will come up.”

Other responses include: “I’m proud to be a great active listener... I’m curious and know how to do probing questions” (Respondent 20); “I’m most proud of creating a trusting space where the leader can reflect on the reality of the situation instead of the story about the situation” (Respondent 24); “I’m most proud that I trust them, respect them, and believe they are honorable people... the limitations you can work through...” (Respondent 30).

Courage. There were 10 participants (28%) who noted that they are most proud of the courage they bring to the coaching engagements. Courage is expressed both in terms of being able to have the tough conversations, and also being able to walk away if the client is not willing or ready to be coached. Responses include comments such as: “I’m proud that I can I walk away if necessary, if they don’t want to change” (Respondent 2); “I’m proud that I have the courage to share what’s present for me” (Respondent 15); “I’m proud that I have the courage to call them out on their blind spots” (Respondent 16); “I’m proud that I have the courage to work with very challenging executives” (Respondent 21); “I’m proud that I’m courageous, tenacious... that I have grit... grit beats talent every time! I don’t wait to be perfect... I keep being in the game... I don’t wait for it to be comfortable” (Respondent 27); “I’m proud that over time I’ve learned to not hold back and rather to stand in my authentic leadership” (Respondent 31).

Resourcefulness. There were seven participants (19%) who were most proud of the resourcefulness they brought to the coaching engagement through the various homework, assessments and tools they shared with their clients. For example, Respondent 1 explained that “I’m proud when I give them homework based on where they are stuck at – whether in awareness, intention, or actions.” Similarly, Respondent 20 explained that “I’m most proud of the transformational experiences I design for my clients.” Likewise, Respondent 22 shared that “I’m proud of my mapping skills and looking for patterns and engaging them in pattern recognition.” Respondent 30 referred to his pride in terms of his “age and experience” that has allowed him to be resourceful and to be able to be in a coaching engagement without the need to have all the answers.”

Positive comments/referrals. There were five participants (14%) who explained that what they are most proud of is the positive comments they receive from their clients or the referrals they get as a result. For example, Respondent 16 noted that he’s most proud that “lots of clients refer me.” And Respondent 19 explained that “I’m proud of the stories people have told me about how our conversation continues to support them.” Similarly, Respondent 24 explained that “I’m proud of the track record of results... a track record of having leaders find a new understanding about how their own mind works... how communication can be a lot simpler and more compassionate... I’m proud of the track record of leaders who have embraced these new ways of communicating.”

Business results. There were three participants (8%) who cited the attainment of business results as their point of pride from a coaching engagement. Comments include: “I’m good at helping people problem solve and think through complex challenges to create business

results” (Respondent 20); “I’m proud of my ability to work with behavior and behavior change to impact business results” (Respondent 10); “assisting someone to achieve their business results is a nice feeling” (Respondent 14).

Interview question 12 summary. When asked about what they are most proud of in terms of meeting coaching challenges with global executives, the majority of the respondents (58%) noted that they are most proud of their ability to facilitate a shift or expansion in the awareness or consciousness of their clients where they drop fear-based stories. About 42% of respondents noted that they are most proud of the compassionate, nonjudgmental and caring presence they are able bring to their coaching engagement which allows their clients to feel a sense of psychological safety to share deeply. While about 28% were proud of the courage they bring in terms of asking the tough questions and being able to walk away if the client is not open to being coached, 19% were proud of the resourcefulness they bring to their clients in terms of the specific tools they share with them. The remainder of the responses where about pride in the comments or referrals they received (14%) and the business results they are able to support their leaders with (8%).

Interview question 13. This question inquired about the best ways for coaches to continue to sharpen their skills in terms of supporting global executives. There were 34 total respondents, with four overall themes emerging from their comments: continue self transformation, be a relational/leadership expert, get coaching/keep coaching, and continue professional development. The following section provides a more detailed analysis.

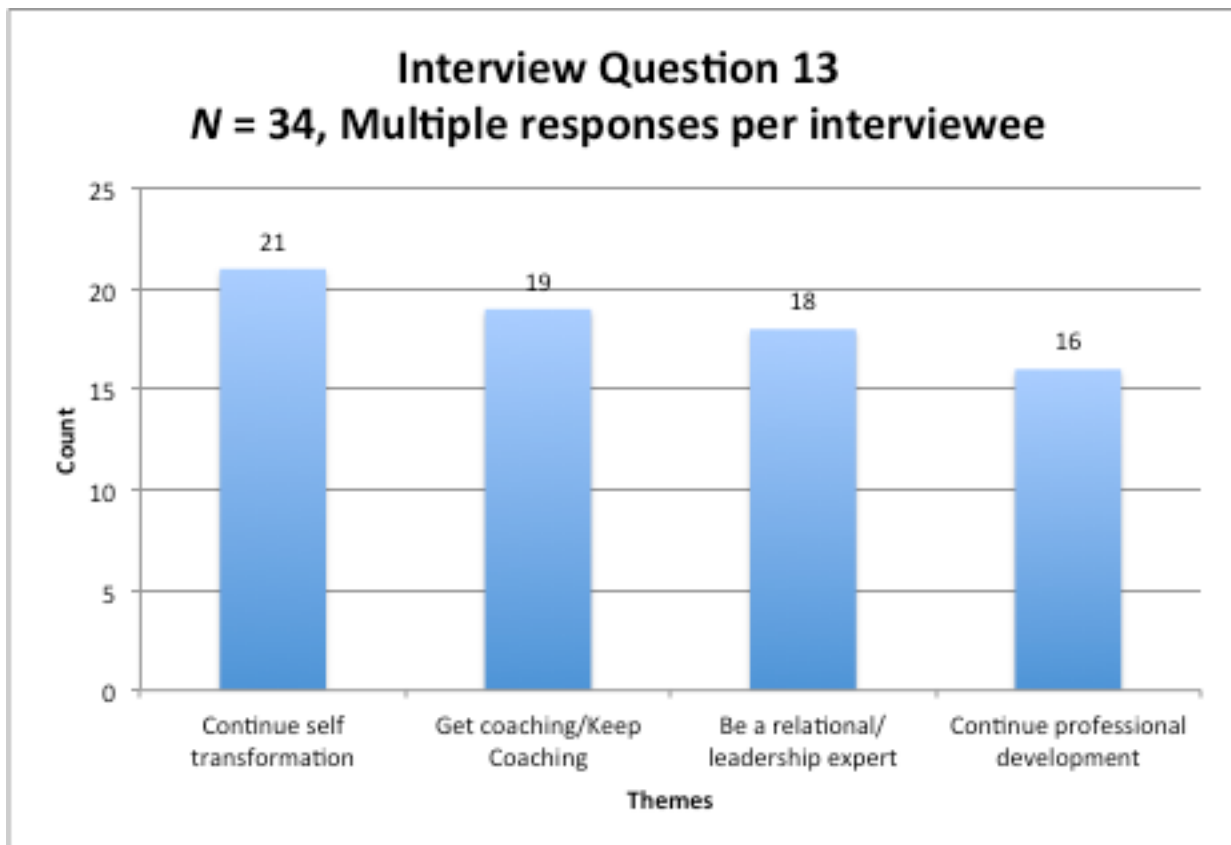


Figure 15. IQ13 - What suggestions would you give to other coaches of global executives?

Continue self transformation. There were 21 participants (62%) who identified continued self transformation as the best way for coaches for continue to sharpen their skills. Responses pointed to the importance of coaches continuing to let go of their own limiting beliefs and inner blocks that keep them in fear. As Respondent 16 explained, “you’re constantly asking yourself the questions you are asking your clients... becoming sharper in detecting how we make our own decisions, will help our clients to make their decisions.” Respondent 10 explained self transformation as deepening into self compassion: “we need to sharpen our own compassion skills while we face VUCA – we have to have compassion for ourselves.” Similarly, Respondent 11 noted: “keep working on their own compassion and self awareness.” Likewise,

Respondent 15 stated “any practice that deepens presence... to catch yourself and reflect on your emotional triggers and how to release them to be more present.”

Other comments include: “continue to practice self awareness... know when you are operating in fear” (Respondent 1), “understand yourself and your biases” (Respondent 2); “the way coaches can stay sharp is to be on the journey of transformation and learning themselves” (Respondent 4); “do what you preach, walk the path” (Respondent 5); “executive coaches need to be doing their own inner work... they need to know when and how they are operating out of fear or scarcity” (Respondent 6).

Be a relational/leadership expert. There were 18 participants (53%) who noted the importance of coaches learning about relational and leadership development skills. This skill was noted as being important in supporting global executives facilitate collaborative teams and decision making in a VUCA world. Respondent 8 explained: “to coach at the c-suite, you need to be strong in personal leadership... and know how to coach and develop teams and know how teams work.” Similarly, Respondent 9 explained: “VUCA has brought a shift in leadership development practices – they have to learn how to bring teams together and mine for solutions and information... coaches need to know how to do that so they can support their clients to do that.” Likewise, Respondent 7 explained that “coaches who are coaching global leaders must learn about leadership development... just coaching the client is not enough... they need to give their client the tools to work with their teams in more collaborative ways.” Respondent 10 also noted that “to get great strategy, the environment has to be collaborative... everyone needs to be involved in bringing the information to the table to work on it.”

Other comments also focused on the importance of team development: “In a VUCA world, it’s about getting more potential from people and having them get in their right place so they can experience more freedom and possibilities...” so coaches need to know how to those skills (Respondent 13); “learn how to help them be better leaders in VUCA conditions... it’s about how they can be with their teams” (Respondent 22); “learn how to help the client listen more... and be patient and collaborative with their teams” (Respondent 30). Respondent 32 moves leadership development to a systemic context by noting that:

It’s not about sharpening our skills, but we need to fundamentally change our mindset from trying to coach an individual or coach a team or organization... but to always be coaching the individual in relationship with their ecosystem... the organization in relationship with its ecosystem.

Get coaching/keep coaching. There were 19 participants (56%) who noted that getting coaching and continuing to coach are the best ways for coaches to continue to sharpen their skills. Comments referred to ensuring having their own private coach, to participating in peer coaching and supervisory coaching collaborations, and also to continue to practice the art and craft of coaching. For example, Respondent 23 suggests:

I think the best way is to be coached... an executive coach who doesn’t have a coach and is not being coached is not optimizing his or her skills... after a while, they are operating in a bubble and they’re relying on the same old same old... so their opportunity to grow is stunted.

Respondent 10 explained how “coaches are natural people pleasers – we need to received coaching so we can stay healthy and with healthy boundaries.” Respondent 13

expressed the importance of continuing to participate in peer coaching groups and supervision opportunities. As Respondent 17 explained, “we need both certification programs, but also the apprenticeship journey.... We need the structure and freedom to practice and explore... you need to be in it constantly... peer review is really important, more than accreditation.” Likewise, Respondent 19 suggests, “have a community of coaches around,” and Respondent 20 encouraged coaches to “share and discuss with peer colleagues and coaches.” Similarly, Respondent 21 strongly suggests: “have your own coach... get feedback on your coaching.”

Continue profession development. There were 16 participants (47%) who suggested that the best way for coaches to continue to sharpen their skills would be through continued professional development. Responses included suggestions for coaches to continue to immerse themselves in workshops and training programs that strengthen the coach’s skillset and support them in strengthening their craft. As Respondent 15 noted: “you have to accept that mastery is an ongoing process, it’s not a destination... we are constantly looking to get better at what we do.” For example, Respondent 4 explained: “if you’re not learning yourself, you’re not trying new things, you won’t be effective.” Similarly, Respondent 7 explained that “you got to be reading and training... it’s part of what comes with being a coach”

Other comments include: “continue training... continue to be curious about your progress and how you perform;” “I’m always reading and putting myself in rooms where there are people I can learn from;” “I think if executive coaches could see their work as a craft and look at it as craftsmanship, that’s the best way to improve” (Respondent 16); “an executive coach who is a perpetual student is very powerful” (Respondent 23).

In terms of certifications, some respondents noted the usefulness of becoming certified, but that certification in and of itself does not guarantee excellence. Respondent 19 noted that: “I don’t think certification is necessary, but it’s helpful.” On the other hand, Respondent 26 explained the usefulness of becoming certified and to ensure the renewal of the certification. He adds: “coaches should endeavor to be credentialed and certified and at the very least have their own standards of sharpening themselves.”

Interview question 13 summary. This question aimed to gauge the respondent view on the best ways that executive coaches can continue to sharpen their skills. While, the majority of respondents, over 60%, explain the importance of coaches to continue to deepen their own level of self awareness and transforming fear-based thinking, nearly 53% also emphasized the importance of bringing relational and leadership expertise in order to support global executives to lead collaborative decision making and effective team development in VUCA conditions. Furthermore, respondents explain the importance of continuing to receive coaching and being a coach (56%) and continuing to invest in their own professional development (47%).

Interview question 14: The final interview question inquired about the role that executive coaches would be playing in developing global leaders to effectively respond in the global economy. There were a total of 36 participants who responded to this question, with three themes emerging: raising consciousness, leadership/organization development and trusted adviser. The following section provides a more detailed analysis of these themes.

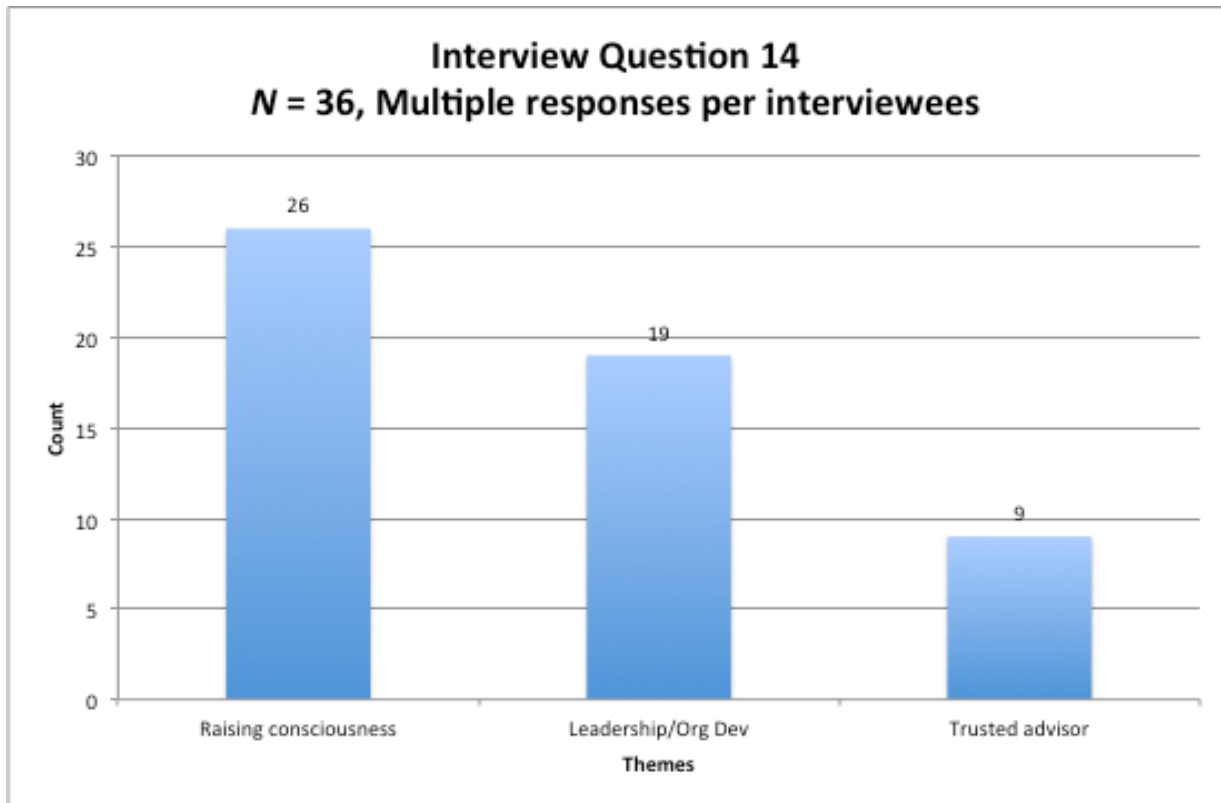


Figure 16. IQ14 - What role do executive coaches play in facing global challenges?

Raising consciousness. There were 26 participants (72%) who identified the role of executive coaches as catalysts for raising the consciousness of global leaders. The general contention of these comments was about the opportunity that executive coaches have in supporting leaders of global organizations to address societal issues that politicians are failing to address by expanding their consciousness. For example, Respondent 1 noted that executive coaches will play the role of “raising the consciousness of global leaders to spread love through their leadership... helping leaders to work with the flow of love instead of fear” (personal communication, February 16, 2017). Respondent 4 explained that:

the impact of executive coaches will be greater than what one government or religion can do... I believe executive coaches can help change the world by impacting the way

leaders lead their organizations and develop their people... one decision by a leader can impact thousands of lives.

Respondent 5 explained that “by a conscious person I mean a whole person... when a person is aware of their whole self (their mental, spiritual, physical, emotional selves)... they will have more impact.” Respondent 6 noted that:

It used to be that as a business leader $a + b = c$... so you didn't need to be present... but now, in a VUCA world, $a + b$ does not equal c anymore... it equals to so many other things... you can't predict any more... you have to be able to respond from presence... in a VUCA world of emerging complexity, the company and team that are the most present will win... and the job of the coach is to support them in becoming present.

Overall, the comments emphasized the important role of the executive coach in supporting the leader to expand their awareness so that they can respond effectively to the complexity of today's world. For example, Respondent 3 explains that “if I can bring more conscious awareness to the leader, then I know we are impacting the world in better ways.” Respondent 9 further explains that “we can help global leaders become more mature people... more complex people.. people who are more differentiated and more integrated... more self aware and more reflective... they become more open to more things.. so they become more wholesome and authentic.” Respondent 10 further explains consciousness as:

the compassion piece... executive coaches are the bearers of compassion and connection... without compassion, we don't get connection... without compassion we can't do anything... we can't do stuff together... business is about people working together... if we do stuff together while we are in self protective mode, the results are

crappy and our lives are crappy.... It's no way to live... what's possible in self protection mode is limited... everything is possible in compassion and connection.

Other comments on the definition of raising consciousness include: “these bosses, more than ever, need space for themselves.... They need to free space to reflect and find their way back to themselves... to really nourish themselves and be on purpose... “ (Respondent 13); “you’re helping them become better people... helping them understand who they are and their sense of being...” (Respondent 14). A deeper explanation came from Respondent 16:

the real potential that we have if we take our business seriously and work on our selves and connect with global leaders... I think we can make this world a better world... we can have global leaders make wise decisions, not just smart decisions... smart has many meanings like fast, quick, rich... wise decisions take into account all the stakeholders... if we can help leaders to become more human again, to have more heart, we can have a very big effect on the world at large... may be that's the only reason I do this.

Respondent 17 suggested that “I think we would become a company doctor!” And Respondent 18 added a deeper perspective:

Global leaders have this amazing scale platform to create amazing change... this is what distinguishes them... coaches can help them make giant impact by uniting them to their inner truth and potential... helping to ignite someone who's operating at the top of that platform so they can take that transformation to their platform and convert that into these new vectors around transformation and impact... that's why I'm in the game.

Respondent 23 explains this response further: “every leader and every person has a number of blind spots... no matter how they reflect on themselves, they can't see it

themselves... so the role of the coach is to partner with the leader so that the leader can experience their own great potential.” Other responses include: “I think our job is to help leaders be as thoughtful, prepared, mindful and purpose-driven as possible...” (Respondent 26); “I’ve been doing this for the past 10 years intensively... I know that I do more than just coaching. It’s about higher self awareness... you can’t be a good leader if you’re not self aware... it’s about developing your own and their empathy levels” (Respondent 29); “to shift human consciousness to be fit in the 21st century... to listen, learn and change” (Respondent 32).

Leadership/Org Development. There were 19 participants (53%) who identified leadership/organization development as a primary role that executive coaches play in developing global executives to be more effective. Overall, respondents pointed to the increased complexity facing business leaders and how they are not capable of finding solutions on their own, and that increasingly they need to have the facilitative skills of bringing teams together to collaboratively address pressing issues. And a key part of facilitating conversations is to be able to develop those around them. Responses include; “As executive coaches, we have an important role in helping them change their mind about how and when to develop those around them... a huge impact to all stakeholders when leaders learn to open space to develop the people around them” (Respondent 4); “It’s really important for coaches to train leaders to be facilitators of conversations... in a VUCA world, leaders can’t do things on their own... they have to bring the whole team together to figure out solutions... and the skill of facilitation is very important” (Respondent 7); “to coach at the c-suite, you need to be strong in strategic leadership and understanding how teams work” (Respondent 8, personal communication,

February 21, 2017). As Respondent 32 emphasized: “ultimately, we have to realize that coaching is part of a much bigger field of OD” (personal communication, March 1, 2017).

Trusted Adviser. There were nine participants (25%) who noted that executive coaches play the role of trusted advisor in developing effective global leaders. Overall, comments in this area reflected the need for the increasingly busy executives to have a trusted and grounded adviser who will be a safe sounding board for their brainstorming of ideas and tell the hard truths that others may not have the courage to do. For example, Respondent 30 explained how global executives “count on the coach as the trusted adviser for certain things: you’ll always tell them the truth in a way they can hear it... you’ll protect them, you’ll do no harm, you’ll stay worthy of their trust no matter what the situation.” Similarly, Respondent 9 explained that “coaches who function at the level of the trusted adviser have more impact – a deeper relationship.” As a trusted adviser, Respondent 2 explained that coaches “help leaders stay steady in the face of a VUCA world... they can be that grounded outside person.” Respondent 12 explained that in today’s complex world, “everyone needs all the help they can get, especially with the speed of change increasing... any time anyone who can help someone stay sane in the midst of that would be great.” Respondent 13 explained that in a VUCA world, “leaders are often off track and that can be scary...” and therefore the role of the coach would be the grounded trusted adviser they can turn to for support in grounding themselves.”

Interview question 14 summary. Research question 14 inquired about the role that executive coaches would be playing in developing global leaders to be more effective in the face of global events. Over 70% of the 30 respondents indicated that role of executive coaches will be in raising the consciousness of global leaders to become more purpose-driven and

compassionate leaders and address the global challenges that politicians are failing to address. Over 50% of respondents noted that given the complexities facing global organizations, executive coaches will also need to support the leadership and organization development needs of their global executives, and help them to be facilitators of conversations. And finally, 25% of respondents noted that during such complex times, global executives need a trusted adviser they can turn to in order to get grounded, be able to have a confidential sounding board, and to have someone who is not afraid to tell them the hard truths.

Research Question 4 Summary: Research question 4 inquired about the recommendations that executive coaches make for best supporting global executives. Interview questions gauged the respondent's views on what they are personally proud of in terms of meeting coaching challenges, recommendations they would make for coaches to continue to build their skills, and the role that they believe executive coaches play in supporting the effectiveness of global leaders. Over 60% of respondents were most proud of how they facilitate the expansion of awareness and consciousness of their global executives and 40% are proud of the caring and compassionate presence they bring in creating an environment of psychological safety for their coaching relationship. Therefore, over 70% of respondents suggest that executive coaches continue to deepen in their own self awareness and transformation so that they can increasingly be a presence of compassion. Yet at the same time, nearly 65% of them recommend that executive coaches also gain relational and leadership expertise in supporting their clients to better garner the support of their teams for creative problem-solving. To do so, over 50% of respondents highly recommend executive

coaches to receive their own coaching or be involved in peer or supervisory coaching opportunities and continue to invest in their own professional development.

When looking toward the future, over 70% believe that executive coaches will be supporting global executives to expand their awareness and be more compassionate leaders, while over 50% believe that executive coaches will support leaders to grow their leadership and organizational development capabilities to meet the increasingly complex demands of the future. About 25% believe that executive coaches will be playing the role of the trusted adviser to global executives in order to provide the necessary grounding and the courage to speak the hard truths.

Chapter Summary

Findings from the 14 interview questions provide key insights into the best coaching strategies that support global executives, the challenges that executive coaches might face in implementing those strategies, the ways in which success is measured and the recommendations they have for other executive coaches who wish to coach global executives. Throughout the interviews, the themes of presence, trust, empathy, compassion and the ability to support the global executive in shifting their awareness out of fear appeared to be paramount. Additionally, coaches are seen as relational and leadership development experts who can support their clients in not only doing their own inner work, but to also be facilitators of conversations among their teams, leading to more collaborative and purpose-driven responses organizations. In the increasingly complex VUCA environment, respondents believe that executive coaches play a key role in supporting global leaders in raising global consciousness and addressing global challenges.

Chapter 5: Conclusion & Recommendations

While staggering investments in leadership development programs are not showing consistent positive outcomes, executive coaching is continuing to show positive results in supporting senior level executives to navigate the permanent white waters of today's complex global economy. There are many models and competencies that identify the *what* of successful coaching. However, the *how* of coaching is challenging to represent through predictable models, given the often "swampy" nature and "muddiness" of the dynamic and complex social process that entails coaching in general (Mallett, 2007, p. 419). This study was therefore designed to gain a deeper understanding of the best strategies and practices that successful executive coaches identify in their work with senior executives of global teams and organizations. This chapter provides a summary of the study's key findings, implications, and recommendations for future research.

Summary of the Study

The design of this qualitative study was intended to gain a deeper understanding of: (a) the strategies and practices that successful executive coaches utilize in supporting senior executives of global teams or organization, (b) the challenges they face in implementing these strategies, (c) the ways in which they measure the success of executive coaching, and (d) recommendations they have for other executive coaches. Therefore, the following four research questions guided the design, development and implementation of this research study:

- RQ1: What are the strategies and best practices employed by executive coaches supporting senior level executives in global organizations?

- RQ2: What challenges are faced by executive coaches in implementing those strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?
- RQ3: How do executive coaches measure the success of their strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations?
- RQ4: What recommendations do executive coaches make for coaching senior level executives in global organizations?

Summary of Findings

A total of 39 executive coaches participated in this study, all regarded as respected and successful executive coaches as evidenced by their years of practice, referral base, client roster, and testimonials. The majority are Caucasian, with the exception of one African American male and one Malaysian-Australian (Asian) female. They ranged in age from 47 to 75 years of age, with an average age of 57 years old. There were 14 (37%) women and 24 (63%) men, all with university degrees, including five with doctoral degrees, 18 with masters degrees, and 14 with bachelor degrees. Their experience providing full time executive coaching support to global leaders ranged from a low of 5 years, to a high of 30 years, with an average yielding 17 years. The majority resided in the United States, with others living in Norway, Netherlands, Mexico, France, Poland, Malaysia, South Africa and the United Kingdom. Nineteen participants held a coaching certification from an International Coach Federation (ICF) approved coaching program. Participants noted they obtain clients mostly through referrals and word of mouth.

Data collection was comprised of face-to-face semi-structured interviews lasting about 60-minutes each, with the majority conducted via Zoom online conference platform during the months of January to March 2017. Participants responded with candor, generosity and

thoughtfulness, drawing on personal reflections from their years of executive coaching experience with senior executives of global organizations. The fourteen interview questions generated the following nine strategies of highly successful executive coaches supporting senior level executives of global teams or organizations:

1. *The secret:* The secret to effectively coaching a senior level global executive is to be credible and compassionate enough to create a psychologically safe space for the executive to reveal tightly held vulnerabilities and fear-based defense mechanisms.
2. *The best strategy:* The best strategy is to facilitate a state of presence in yourself and the client, which has less to do with the technical skills of coaching and much more to do with an attitude of compassion, respect and present-moment awareness.
3. *The winning skill:* The skill that sets a highly successful executive coach apart from the rest is the coach's presence – the ability to listen deeply, be compassionate, open minded, non judgmental, agenda-free, and hold the client in high regard.
4. *The toughest part:* The toughest part about coaching a global executive is the coach's insecurities, manifested in their desires to be liked or to be right, inability to speak truth to power, and inability to be patient for real transformation to occur.
5. *The typical constraint:* The most frequent constraint that interferes with providing executive coaching to global executives is the mandates from the organization in terms of reporting, the use of specific coaching models, or sharing of confidential information.
6. *The ethical dilemma:* Confidentiality is a tricky part of coaching a global executive, because of the magnitude and implications of what is shared by the client and the sponsoring agency. The best way is having loyalty and transparency with your client.

7. *The outer success metric:* The frequent measure of success is agreeing on key outcomes and conducting pre/post assessments– but the executive’s informal assessment of whether the coach helped shift their perspective from fear to love is the most powerful.
8. *The inner success metric:* The most frequent way that coaches measure their own sense of success is whether they facilitated the expansion of their client’s awareness from fear and doubt to love and possibility.
9. *The advice:* The most frequent advice for aspiring executive coaches of global leaders is to continue their own self-transformation, followed by: become a relational/leadership expert, continue to receive coaching and supervision, and develop professionally.

Key Findings

This study set out to answer four key questions through conversations with 39 global executive coaching practitioners in terms of: (a) the best practices for coaching senior executives of global organizations, (b) the challenges in implementing those practices, (c) the ways in which success is measured, and (d) recommendations to other executive coaches for future success.

Best executive coaching practices for supporting global leaders. Findings indicate that the ability of the coach to create a trusting environment is key to coaching success. As Schaubroeck, et al. (2011) explain, trust is made up of two components: affect-based trust and cognition-based trust. While affect-based trust refers to the emotional bonds between people that create a sense of caring, concern and empathy, cognition-based trust refers to individual performance that creates a sense of competence, responsibility, reliability and dependability (p. 864). In work-settings, scholars suggest that cognition-based trust positively influences affect-

based trust (p. 864). Therefore, if co-workers can trust each other to be competent, responsible, reliable and dependable, then they naturally form a sense of empathy and caring, the hallmarks of affective-based trust.

Similarly, respondents in this study noted that the factors that strongly impact a trusting coaching engagement are the coach's credibility, reliability and authenticity. Respondents strongly suggested that the coach not try to outsmart the global executive, suggesting that global executives are very smart and competent, and that coaches will never be able to outsmart the executive. However, the credibility that coaches bring is in their relational and psychological expertise – in their ability to not only know the client's psychology but their own psychology as well. This is indicative in the respondent's strong conviction that the secret to effectively coaching a global executive is in their ability to facilitate their inner work.

Scholars (Amabile & Kramer, 2007, 2011) point to the importance of inner work life especially when it comes to understanding workplace psychology. They define inner work life as the "constant stream of emotions, perceptions, and motivations as they react to and make sense of the events of the work day" (Amabile & Kramer, 2007, p. 74). Over 70% of participants noted the executive coach's ability to support their client in becoming aware of their inner work life and helping them to shift to a more healthy belief system the secret for effectively coaching a global executive. The findings reveal that participants noted that expertise in facilitating inner work is not enough, that executive leaders are very guarded and cautious in their willingness to open up and trust a coach enough to allow them to facilitate their inner work. The key, therefore, to creating a fully trusting relationship goes beyond cognitive expertise in coaching and psychology. Findings show that the ability of the coach to "be presence" and to "facilitate

presence” are the secrets to having the executive open up to the transformational aspect of coaching. Respondents defined presence in terms of the coach’s ability to be fully present in the moment, and to slow down the client enough so that they are able to experience this presence as well.

Though the concept of presence is not yet explored in academic literature for executive coaching, Wasylyshyn (2015) explores the significant importance of presence as it specifically relates to the evolving role of the executive coach as a Trusted Leadership Adviser (TLA). Moreover, Wasylyshyn (2015) reminisces about the significant advice she received from one of her key mentors, Mark X. Feck, who “urged me to step away from my tools (tests), trusting that my *presence* with senior leaders was the major instrument in establishing rapport and promoting their growth” (p. 282). With its roots in the work of Carl Rogers (1986) and humanistic psychology, the role of presence and its impact on client health and wellness have been studied within clinical and therapeutic settings (Bugental, 1989; Geller & Greenberg, 2002; Moustakas, 1986; Robins, 1998; Rogers, 1986; Schmid, 2002). Aside from “credibility, experience, and chemistry,” Wasylyshyn (2015) explains that “presence is the glue that binds [the relationship and] relates to how we show up, how we commit ourselves to these relationships, and how we anchor ourselves in the tumultuous seas upon which our clients strive to sail” (p. 287).

A therapeutic description of presence “involves a *being* with the client rather than a *doing* to the client...” (p. 288). For example, Geller and Greenberg (2002) explain that therapists need to “let go of theoretical knowledge, and yet allow this knowledge to inform intuitive responses when it resonates with the experience of the moment (as cited in Wasylyshyn, 2015,

p. 288). Within a TLA relationship, Wasylyshyn (2015) describes the three states of presence as: (a) crucible: where the TLA supports the client to meet the challenges of their business world, (b) sanctuary: where the TLA affirms and reinforces the client's strengths, and (c) personal harmony: where the TLA supports the client's psychological preparedness for life (p. 289). Therefore, presence in the crucible of business challenges refers to the TLA's ability to "build a container-for-two strong enough to withstand the heat of escalating business events and crisis [while holding] a firehose to douse the flames and help clients toward clear and solid ground" (p. 290). Presence in the sanctuary includes the "core elements of therapeutic presence, particularly quiet listening, reflective questioning, reframing, nonjudgmental receptivity, and empathy" which supports the client to reaffirm their internal locus of control (p. 290). And finally, presence in personal harmony, requires the ability of the TLA to support the client's developmental needs to gain harmony within their particular developmental age range (p. 290).

Given the executive's very busy schedule, many coaches noted that their focus is on helping the executive shift from "doing" to "being." This state of presence was described as a place of observation without judgment, a state of being which is coined as "equanimity" in the Buddhist mindfulness tradition. Respondents note that the coach's ability to create psychological safety is key to supporting executives in becoming aware of their own underlying beliefs and assumptions, and being open to feedback. Observation without judgment for self and the client was shared most frequently in terms of contributing to a trusting environment. Research studies examining equanimity note its potential in supporting global executives to be able to observe unpleasant experience with neutrality and compassion (Desbordes, Gard, Hoge, Holzel, Kerr, Lazar, Olendzki, & Vago, 2015; Grabovac, Lau, & Willett, 2011).

Respondents also noted that executive coaches must bring an expertise on relational and facilitative skills to their coaching engagements with global leaders. With the VUCA conditions continuing to increase the rate of change and disruptive innovation, respondents noted the increasing pressure and stress that global executives are feeling when they do not know how to respond or come up with winning solutions on their own. Scholars note the importance of drawing upon the collective capacity of teams within the organization in order to address their key challenges. Respondents noted that most global executives rose to the top of the organization not because of their relational expertise, but because of their often ambitious and singularly focused and competitive desire to be the best. Yet these capabilities of individual achievement is not the top skill that defines successful executive leadership, especially at the c-suite where a CEO is never prepared to deal with the enormity of pressure from key stakeholders, such as shareholders, board members or the media and their consumers and employees. As such, respondents noted the importance of executive coaches bringing not only their psychological expertise to the coaching engagement, but also their keen abilities and skills to support the executive is being able to lead their teams and manage their stakeholders.

Scholars are overwhelmingly discussing the importance of developing vertical capabilities in leaders (relational and wisdom-based), as an addition to their already horizontal knowledge base (technical and information-based). Such relational skills are developmental and require a longer steady state of engagement with the executive. While most suggest a 6 month engagement, other coaches suggest a year or longer to ensure that they are supporting the executive to meet their work challenges by continuing to practice new relational skills that allow them to reduce their often controlling managerial style and step into a more influencing

leadership style of leading. Respondents noted that such transformational capabilities require both an inside/out and outside/in approach to learning. For example, an inside/out approach to coaching an executive focuses on helping them shift their underlying beliefs and assumptions first, and then allowing this internal shift to impact their external environment. But respondents also noted the importance of an outside/in approach where executive leaders did not have to wait for their inner habits to shift. Instead, they would be guided by their coach to do certain tasks which impacted their internal landscape. For example, one respondent explained how he instructed his executive client who was perceived as harsh, uncaring and controlling to walk around his company for 15 minutes each day and complement his employees on the good job they are doing. The coach explained that at first the global executive felt this was fake. But after this exercise, he noted that he felt compassion and enjoyed the kindness others showed him.

Executive coaching scholars (Ennis et. al, 2008; Stern, 2004) point to the importance of the executive coach having a solid combination of business and psychology experience, including four competencies - psychological, business, organizational, coaching – together with personal attributes such as maturity, positivity, flexibility, influence, and integrity (Ennis et. al, 2008). Empirical research also confirms that executive clients not only prefer coaches with graduate psychology training, business understanding, and reputation (Wasylyshyn, 2003); but also those with strong personal characteristics that honor confidentiality, emotional intelligence and the ability to balance a directive and collaborative coaching approach (Passmore, 2010), and those with strong listening, compassion and authenticity (de Haan et al., 2010). Furthermore, Wasylyshyn (2003) showed that the top three executive coaching strengths are the ability of the client to connect with their executive, their professionalism and

their use of effective coaching methodology. Findings suggest that in addition to the above recommendations, executive coaches of global leaders must also be able to support their clients in creating and leading effective teams.

Challenges in implementation of best practices. The majority of respondents noted key challenges that often arise in supporting global leaders: (a) the coach's capabilities and sense of presence, (b) the client's coachability, (c) interferences, and (d) regional/cultural issues. Most respondents noted that often coaches might be intimidated when working with a senior level executive. When this type of fear sets in, they often resort to people pleasing or wanting to prove their worth and value. The desire for the coach to be liked, to be right, to have the solutions and to attempt to outsmart and fix the executive's challenges are cited as the most typical challenges faced by executive coaches. In addressing this challenge, respondents noted the importance of the coach to develop their own internal sense of confidence, self awareness and presence so that they can be calm in challenging situations and not feel the need to fix things. In addition, coaches may bring their own personal biases to the situation. Therefore, respondents noted the importance to remaining neutral and supporting the client to achieve their goals, instead of imposing some sort of personal or professional agenda on the client. In fact, once high level senior coach explained that after a 1 to 2 year engagement, he often needs to recuse himself from the client because he often feels he has become too vested in the outcome and in his own interventions.

The second type of challenge that arises is the client's willingness or ability to be coached. Given that most of the coaching is about supporting the client in transforming underlying beliefs and assumptions, the client must be a willing participants. Though

respondents noted that habits are tough to break, they explained how at times the global executive wants quick solutions and they sometimes impose their will on the coach to “fix it.” Therefore, respondents noted that the coach’s self awareness is key in determining whether to say no to the coaching engagement or to support the client in continuing to engage in the coaching process. One respondent who supervises executive coaches internationally said that, in his view, a client’s resistance is a sign that the coach need to have a different approach. He noted that he never blames the client when they show resistance. Instead, he brainstorms with his executive coaching team to determine in what ways they are not meeting the needs of the client and thus experiencing his or her resistance.

In fact, respondents noted that the toughest part of coaching a global executive is their own capacity to speak truth to power and bring a strong empathetic yet courageous coaching presence. Respondents explained that executive clients are busy to an inhuman degree. They are often overwhelmed and stretched beyond human capacity. Two respondents explained that these busy executives often engage in a form of transference where they want to overwhelm their coach so that their coach can experience the same emotion. As such, the respondents noted the importance of the coach practicing presence and being strong and aware enough to feel the overwhelm but not resort to judgment or blame or withdrawal – that by sharing the emotion and experience with their client, they are modeling to the client what it is like to deal with overwhelm with a sense of grounded presence.

In addition, respondents noted various interferences by either the hiring department (often HR) or peers in either wanting to direct the course of the coaching engagement, to gain access to confidential content, or impose specific coaching methodologies or outcomes. All

respondents noted the importance of 100% confidentiality in their coaching engagements and their full intent in protecting their client. However, some respondents noted that if they are pressed to share specific information, they bring transparency to clients and inform them of the information they are being asked to share. In cases where they cannot bring transparency to their client, the respondents noted they would recuse themselves of the coaching engagement.

When asked about their experience of ethical dilemmas, many respondents noted that facing and dealing with ethical dilemmas are a part of their job as an executive coach to a global executive. They noted that given the position of the global executive, they often speak about grey areas in terms of sales or production or certain ways of dealing with other executives or employees. The respondents noted that it is their job to bring their client to a state of empowerment and clarity so that they can deal effectively with the enormity of issues and challenges they are dealing with on a daily basis. However, they noted that it is very important for them to be working with individuals with strong positive visions, individuals who are good but may be caught in bad situations.

Measures of success. Measuring the success of executive coaching engagements often runs the gamut of informal and formal perceptions of behavior change, and often the expectation of measurable business results. Scholars explain the usual goal of executive coaching, across all methodologies, is “some behavior change on the part of the senior executive ... [and] that executive coaching work is often focused on the interpersonal sphere” (Botman, Liberti & Wasylshyn, 1998, p. 41). Armstrong (2007) posits the inherent complexity of measuring the success of executive coaching engagements in that although it does impact performance, behavior change and business results, executive coaching is, more than anything,

a “cultural phenomenon ... capturing the collective psyche in a significant way ... filling a deeply felt need in the unconscious lives of people in organizations [for] hearth, centering and a sanctuary for self focus” (p. 32). Stokes and Jolly (2014) contend that “it is highly unlikely” to effectively measure the impact of executive coaching on business outcomes given the “number of variables determining profitability that would need to be controlled for any degree of scientific precision” (p. 253).

Responses to the final research question regarding the measurements of success reflect this “unmeasurable” impact of successful coaching engagements, with most coaches noting that their personal measure of success is when the client calls them two years later and tells them how important their coaching was for them. Given that transformational change takes time, developmental coaching scholars point to the longer term 4-step process (rejection, understanding, using, and integration) that is usually associated with transformational learning, and the typical oversight of organizations to ensure that the fourth step – integration – is allotted the appropriate time frame (Heorhiadi, La Venture, & Conbere,, 2014).

Aside from personal anecdotes, the success criteria that most respondents are held accountable to is mostly perceived behavior change based on goals and objectives that they jointly create together with their client and sometimes the client’s peers or boss. Often, respondents noted that their client’s satisfaction or their increased presence and wellness is all they are held accountable for, and if they can reach that through subjective informal feedback then they know they have succeed. Most respondents also use some form of pre and post assessment, often a 360 feedback or another assessment or tool which the organization uses.

When asked about their organization's measurement of the coaching success, respondents either identified assessments or they said they did not know how the organization measures the coaching success. Most noted that informal assessments of perceived behavior change or client satisfaction are mostly used by organizations to informally measure coaching success. In terms of their own measure of success, most respondents noted their client's satisfaction and sense of overall wellness is their own measure of personal success. Respondents also noted that getting referrals from the client or renewing their contract is their own personal measure of success. Scholars contend that regardless of empirical measures of success, clients report the positive impact of executive coaching engagements (Bono et al., 2009); a strong perceived value in investing in executive coaching (ICF, 1998); and the strong satisfaction of stakeholders (such as HR directors) with the results (McGovern et al., 2001).

Recommendation. Most respondents noted that their clients would typically thank them for their success because the coach helped them shift their perspective by being a compassionate and strong presence, thereby helping them live a better life. This aligns with research which notes that executives usually select a coach based on their psychological and business acumen. Yet most people have a perception that senior global executives, being in positions of power and prestige, already live a good life. For them to express that their coaches helped them build a better life by helping them shift their perspective is an area that can be explored further. Similarly, respondents overwhelmingly noted that they are most proud of the increased awareness and expansion they facilitated in their clients, in addition to the presence and courage they brought to the coaching engagement. Thus, in their recommendation to other executive coaches, the respondents mostly encouraged other coaches to continue and deepen

their own self awareness and self transformation. In addition, given the challenges that global leaders face, they suggested that aspiring coaches of global leaders need to gain expertise in relational and leadership capabilities such as collaborative decision making and facilitating conversations. They suggest that coaches continue to get coached and continue to participate in peer coaching and coach supervision programs. In terms of the future, respondents overwhelmingly noted that coaches are poised to raise global consciousness by supporting global leaders shift from fear to love, and in so doing raise the consciousness of the planet.

Implications

The ways in which global leaders address the turbulent tides of change can powerfully impact an organization's global influence (Lewis, 2000; Quinn, 1988; Smith & Lewis, 2011). Coaches are increasingly seen as trusted advisers to global executives and leaders. And in light of the global political crisis, leaders of public and private enterprises are seen to play a critical role in responding to global challenges with creativity and purpose. As Drath (1998) reflected and hypothesized in the late 1990s, and as the findings in this study revealed, the trajectory of the leadership zeitgeist is moving from domination and control toward meaning-making and collaboration. The implication of this shift on training and development programs for coaches and leaders is the subject of this section.

This dissertation research aimed to reveal answers to best strategies and practices for coaching global leaders during times of uncertainty and complexity. The key findings reflect the *context* of global leadership today – that the growing complexities of the world, whether about climate change, politics or globalization, are increasingly becoming the norm (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2014; Heifetz et al., 2009; Johansen, 2012). The findings did not reveal specific step-

by-step strategies or practices. Instead, what the findings revealed were ways of being with ourselves and with each other, human to human, that allow for clarity of thinking and greater purpose, meaning and conviction to come through -- ways of being such as deep listening, holding the other person in the highest positive regard, seeing them as whole and vibrant, being fully aware and present.

Developing the capabilities of presence and meaning-making have implications for the ways in which learning programs are developed for coaches, leaders, and students of leadership. According to Argyris (2008), while most leaders focus on learning about problem-solving external issues, they often overlook the internal dimension of learning which requires critical self reflection, identification of how personal behavior contributes to systemic problems, and appropriate behavior modification. As Argyris (2008) explains, leaders “must learn how the very way they go about defining and solving problems can be a source of problems in its own right” (pp. 2-3). This section presents an overview of the challenges involved in developing such learning programs.

Vertical Development. As scholars explain, VUCA conditions generate challenges that are adaptive in nature, instead of technical (Helsing, Howell, Heifetz, 1994, 2002; Heifetz & Linsky, 2004; Kegan & Lahey, 2016; Petrie, 2014). While technical challenges demand a solo leader’s vision and expertise to find the solution, adaptive challenges do not have a known solution yet and require the participation of everyone involved in order to identify the best path forward (Helsing et al., 2008; Heifetz, 1994, 2002; Heifetz & Linsky, 2004; Kegan & Lahey, 2016). This often requires the ability to be present with oneself and others in order to reflect on underlying beliefs, assumptions and values to chart breakthrough solutions (Helsing et al.,

2008; Heifetz & Linsky, 2004). Scholars (McGuire & Rhodes, 2009; Petrie, 2014) use the terms horizontal and vertical to point to the differing approaches for developing technical skills to deal with technical challenges (horizontal development), and adaptive skills to deal with adaptive challenges (vertical development).

The behavioral competencies that leaders must develop are often referred to as horizontal development (technical learning), which include a focus on skills, abilities and behaviors that are most useful in the face of clearly defined problems that have clear solutions (Petrie, 2014). The thinking competencies that leaders must develop in times of complexity, referred to as vertical development, are much more nuanced and complex in terms of learning, and reflect an individual's core assumptions and mental models of how they view the world and their relationships, their presence with themselves and others around them. The process of developing thinking competencies which reflect mental models is a developmental process that often requires specific stages of development over extended periods of time (Helsing, Howell, Kegan & Lahey, 2009; Petrie, 2014; Petrie, 2014).

Transformational Learning. Mental models are deeply rooted cognitive constructs which determine how we see and interpret the world based on years of acculturation and socialization; and changing them often takes time and requires the provision of new alternative cognitive structures (Munoz et al., 2011; Dhanaraj & Khanna, 2011). Changing mental models thus depends upon utilizing transformational learning (Mezirow 2000; Mezirow & Taylor, 2009; Taylor, 1998, 2009) and understanding its difference with informative learning which “allows people to learn more about the things that fit their mental models ... transformative learning is the process of changing mental models” (Heorhiadi et al., 2014, p. 5).

Scholars (Argyris, 2008; Mezirow, 2000; Mezirow & Taylor, 2009) refer to this dimension of learning as double-loop (or transformational) learning as a way to discern it from single-loop learning. While in single-loop learning, individuals look at a problem and choose a plan of action; in double-loop learning, individuals look internally and reflect on their underlying assumptions that caused them to choose that specific action and how they might change their underlying assumptions. This type of reflection is quite challenging and often brings out strong defense mechanisms, especially in leaders who view themselves as highly educated, skillful and competitive (Argyris, 2008). In fact, scholars note that this internal turn, this self-reflection, is an anxiety-provoking proposition for many individuals because it challenges our sense of cognitive stability (Schein, 2010).

While organizations usually attempt to resolve issues of defensiveness by focusing on improving employee motivation or engagement through new compensation programs or corporate culture initiatives, these programs do not work because a defensive attitude typically blocks learning despite high individual commitment (Argyris, 2008). In fact, Perry (2006) notes that when individuals feel threatened or fearful, they become less capable of learning and retrieving cognitive signals. "In essence, fear destroys the capacity to learn" (p. 23). These fear-based reactions occur because transformational learning is a process that includes four phases: rejection, understanding, using, and integration (Heorhiadi et al., 2014). Organizations usually stop at the understanding or using level, without the necessary infrastructures to ensure that employees also experience the fourth step of transformational learning: integration. At the integration level, mental models include the best of both the old way of doing things and the new. Learning new mental models therefore includes four steps which include: (a) critical self-

reflection, (b) identification of underlying assumptions and values, (c) changing underlying assumptions or values, and (d) changing behavior (Heorhiadi et al., 2014).

Scholars note that individuals are capable of adapting to new challenges because of the brain's ability to be malleable (Buonomano & Merzenich, 1998; Cozolino & Sprokay, 2006; Trojan & Pokorny, 1999). The required ingredient is the inclusion of environments that promote transformational learning by ensuring safe and trusting relationships, maintenance of moderate arousal levels, activating thinking and feeling, self-reflective languaging, and co-creating positive self-narratives (Cozolino & Sprokay, 2006).

Beyond Transformational Learning. Scharmer (2001, 2009, 2010) posits a viewpoint that moves learning beyond the informative and transformational dichotomy, which rely on explicit and tacit knowledge, and into a realm that is based on self-transcending or not-yet embodied knowledge. Scharmer (2001, 2009, 2010) contends that we are living in a time when past trends and experiences are no longer useful when predicting future innovation, thus necessitating that “we must deal with situations as they evolve” (Scharmer, 2009, p. 61). This requires asking the deeper question “What is the source of your action? [by which] we mean the place where our attention and intention originates” (Scharmer, 2010, p. 23). The late Hanover Insurance CEO, Bill O’Brien’s famous contentions was that “The success of an intervention depends on the interior condition of the intervener,” noting that even if two people start the same process, the outcomes will be different (as cited in Scharmer, 2010, p. 23). Scharmer (2009, 2010) thus posits the importance of supporting leaders to let go of past experiences so that they can engage with and learn from their emerging future. Scharmer (2009) coined “Theory U” as the process with which leaders can move through the various

dimensions of responding to change in order to get to the emerging complexity of their future: from reacting, to re-designing, to reframing, and finally to presencing (p. 50).

Scharmer (2009) notes that modern learning efforts focus on the first three levels of confronting change: reacting, re-designing (learning) and reframing assumptions (double loop learning) which are all based on learning from past experiences. Yet in today's world, leaders are dealing with challenges that cannot be easily addressed by reflecting on past experiences and knowledge and must therefore be able to face situations as they evolve. Organizations are facing what Scharmer (2001, 2009, 2010) coins as dynamic complexity. This type of complexity is recognized by three characteristics (Scharmer, 2010, p. 21): unclarity around what the solution(s) might be, unclarity around delineating the problem itself, and unclarity in identifying all the stakeholders involved. In facing such a dynamic complexity, Scharmer (2001, 2009, 2010) introduces the concept of presencing as the mechanism that allows individuals to come into full awareness of the present moment and thus access the future that is emerging. This capacity for presencing, according to Senge and Jaworski (2005), requires individuals to cultivate their "capacity to suspend" which refers to the suspension of habitual streams of thought (p. 400). He thus upholds the values of mindfulness based practices in allowing the individual the ability to cultivate stillness so that past conditioning can fall away and make room for the emergence of new patterns and possibilities. Mindfulness practices strengthen the ability of the practitioner to observe feelings and thoughts without judgment. This ability depends upon the strength of the practitioner's emotional intelligence (EI), which is shown to have a significant impact on anxiety and stress reduction (Johnson & Blanchard, 2016).

Presence and Executive Coaching. As Mallett (2007) contends, we need to move beyond examining coaching models and gain a deeper understanding of the “swampy nature of the coaching process” (p. 419). Even with the diversity of expertise in the sample of executive coaches, there was a uniformity of answers about the notion of presence – a shared conviction that the quality of presence that the coach cultivates in their own life and within the coaching engagement is perhaps the differentiating quality of a successful coaching engagement. While there is an insistent drive in bringing standardization and empirical efficacy to executive coaching in order to claim its professional status, there is not much effort placed on examining this notion of presence and how to cultivate it within coach training programs, executive leadership programs or graduate business school education.

Coaching legend Tim Gallwey (1974), in his forward to John Passmore’s book, *Leadership Coaching* (2010), explains that in essence, coaching is “facilitating learning and unlearning... in a territory that belongs to another person... a sacred territory precisely because it is inner... the unique human gifts of compassion, kindness, and clarity are required in greater degrees” (p. xxi-xxii). This study’s findings corroborate Gallwey’s convictions in that most respondents identified the coach’s presence of empathy, non-judgment and compassion as key to driving an effective coaching engagement. In fact, respondents regard this quality of the coach’s presence as even more important than the coach’s business acumen or global/cultural awareness. Yet more importantly, the study’s findings brought to fore the aspect of “coach as instrument” – the necessity of the coach to continually strive for self awareness and transformation in their own lives, stating that you can only take the client as far as you’ve gone yourself.

The esteemed coaching scholar, Karol Wasylshyn (2015), predicts that in the decades to come, business historians will describe the 20th and 21st century development of leaders as one where “the *behavior* of executives – *how* they lead people – assumed prominence on a par with other essential leadership competencies” (p. 279). Those drawn to the fields of behavioral sciences and executive coaching will “have urgent and myriad opportunities to influence how 21st century business executives are selected, developed and supported as they grapple with the magnitude of the leadership issues before them” (Wasylshy, Shorey & Chafin, 2012, p. 84).

Researcher’s Reflections

I embarked on this particular dissertation journey quite intrigued by the concept of complexity science and the ways in which complex systems impact conventional approaches to learning and development. I thought I would identify key practices and strategies to support global leaders and executive coaches. I was excited to learn more about globalization and the ways in which I, as a coach and consultant, could better support my global clients in achieving success. What I learned through interviews and research was a side of globalization that I was not aware of before. The fact that the globalization of production networks has reached the most remote parts of the world has always felt quite exciting to me. However, what I was not aware of were the gaps of inequity that are becoming globalization’s secret shadow byproduct. As countries and individuals who own systems of production are becoming wealthier, the producers of end products are not receiving a fair share of profits.

Global leaders, therefore, are in continual modes of compromise, facing operational and ethical dilemmas that on the one hand provide unprecedented innovation and progress, and on the other hand cause harm to the environments and people who are the engine of these

production networks. As Hickel (2017) explains, the gaps between poor and rich countries continue to widen as globalization becomes more and more widespread. One of the reasons he points to is that although capitalism is becoming globalized, rules and regulations for protecting workers has not become globalized. Therefore, workers in developing countries are not beneficiaries of any global minimum wage policies or benefits protections. While global companies may reap the benefits of low cost productions in developing countries, the developing countries are not benefiting from the increased profits.

As I sat in interview after interview with the 39 phenomenal executive coaches, what I heard repeatedly was the importance of the coach's ability to bring presence and awareness into the relationship – to slow down the global leader's thinking so that they experience a more expansive and calm state of awareness. The executive coaches noted that from this place of calm and presence, the global leaders they coach have more access to their own decision making capabilities that would allow them to make ethically sound and wise decisions.

As an executive coach, this dissertation process brought me more in touch with the importance of “no thinking” and equanimity as I support my clients to make wise decisions. While it is important that they have the horizontal skills and behaviors that would help them run team meetings more efficiently or collaborate more effectively across geographic boundaries, the vertical skills of presence, wisdom and meaning-making are equally, if not more critical to develop, during this time of global upheaval, complexity and urgency.

I am forever impacted by the findings of my study, and by the process of coming upon these findings. The findings prove that the timeless qualities of kindness and respect for ourselves, our neighbors, our communities and our planet are the keys to making sense out of

the myriad challenges we face and the ways in which we must come together, transcend our patterned thinking and reactive mechanisms, and forge effective solutions. As Gill (2012) implored, we must reflect on three basic questions when supporting leadership success: “Leadership of what, for whom, and with what purpose?” (p. 8).

Answers to these questions require bringing together technical and wisdom dimensions of our thinking and analysis as reflected in a timeless quote from Rev. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., which Adam Kahane (2012) includes in the dedication page of his book, *Power and Love*:

Power properly understood is nothing but the ability to achieve purpose. It is the strength required to bring about social, political, and economic change... And one of the great problems of history is that the concepts of love and power have usually been contrasted as opposites - polar opposites - so that love is identified with the resignation of power, and power with the denial of love. Now we've got to get this thing right. What [we need to realize is] that power without love is reckless and abusive, and love without power is sentimental and anemic... It is precisely this collision of immoral power and powerless morality which constitutes the major crisis of our time. (p. xi)

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APPENDIX A

IRB Approval



Pepperdine University
24255 Pacific Coast Highway
Malibu, CA 90263
TEL: 310-506-4000

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

Date: December 23, 2016

Protocol Investigator Name: Noushin Bayat

Protocol #: 16-09-384

Project Title: SUPPORTING LEADERSHIP SUCCESS IN A COMPLEX GLOBAL ECONOMY: BEST STRATEGIES AND PRACTICES IN EXECUTIVE COACHING

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Noushin Bayat:

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at community.pepperdine.edu/irb.

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chair

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

SUPPORTING LEADERSHIP SUCCESS IN A COMPLEX GLOBAL ECONOMY:

BEST STRATEGIES AND PRACTICES IN EXECUTIVE COACHING

Dear _____:

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Noushin Bayat, MA, MPH under the guidance of doctoral dissertation chair, Farzin Madjidi, EdD at Pepperdine University, because you are an executive coach of global leaders with five or more years of experience in the field. Your participation is voluntary. You should read the information below, and ask questions about anything that you do not understand, before deciding whether to participate. Please take as much time as you need to read the consent form. You may also decide to discuss participation with your family or friends. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to sign this form. You will also be given a copy of this form for your records.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to determine: (a) the strategies and best practices employed by executive coaches working with senior level executives in global organizations, and (b) the challenges faced by executive coaches in implementing those strategies and practices with senior level executives in global organizations.

STUDY PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to:

- Give the researcher at most an hour of your time for an interview.
- Meet at a location that is convenient for you, or conduct the interview over Skype.
- Answer questions related to your experiences in executive coaching global leaders.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

The potential and foreseeable risks associated with participation in this study include...

- Answers from interview will be stored in a password protected Gmail account. Anything stored electronically could potentially be hacked.
- Talking about your coaching experience might cause you to recall emotionally uncomfortable memories. If so, you will be provided with a list of therapists and coaches with experience in this area who would be willing to support you at no cost.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

While there are no direct benefits to the study participants, there are several anticipated benefits to society which include:

The potential benefits to the participant is the knowing that their expertise and methodology contributed to a significant research study which illuminates the best practices of executive coaches. The potential benefits to society include the following: The ways in which global leaders address the increasingly turbulent tides of change can powerfully impact an organization's global influence. A significant percentage of U.S. global corporations (93%) and corporations outside of the U.S. (65%) utilize the professional services of executive coaches, and report positive results. Specifically, coaching is shown to be effective in improving proactive ownership of learning, accomplishing goals, attaining professional growth, improving relationships with colleagues, improving managerial capabilities, increasing resilience and wellness, and improving workplace productivity. Yet scholars contend that much of the process of coaching is still "shrouded in mystery." This study's findings will provide key insights into the specific strategies and practices of executive coaches who are supporting global leaders of teams and organizations. Findings, therefore, contribute to the growing scholarly field of executive coaching in a number of areas, including: (a) executive coaching scholarship, (b) executive coaching training programs, (c) graduate business school curriculum, and (d) leadership development programs.

PAYMENT/COMPENSATION FOR PARTICIPATION

While no payment or compensation will be provided, participants may request a free copy of the final study results.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The records collected for this study will be confidential as far as permitted by law. However, if required to do so by law, it may be necessary to disclose information collected about you. Examples of the types of issues that would require me to break confidentiality are if disclosed any instances of child abuse and elder abuse. Pepperdine's University's Human Subjects Protection Program (HSPP) may also access the data collected. The HSPP occasionally reviews and monitors research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research subjects.

The data will be stored on a password protected computer in the principal investigator's place of residence. The data will be stored for a minimum of three years.

In order to utilize the information you share with me as part of this study, I am required to ask for your permission in one of the following arrangements:

_____ (please initial) I agree to permit the researcher to use my identifying data (name, professional affiliation, and the name of the organization I represent) as a participant in this study. I understand that only aggregate results will be presented, thus no individual responses will be associated with my name or institution.

OR

____ (please initial) I agree to permit the researcher to use a pseudonym in referring to my name and organization (example: Ms. Flowers, Organization B). I understand that my identity and name of organization what I represent will be kept confidential at all times.

There will be no identifiable information, such as address or driver's license, obtained in connection with this study. The interview will be audio-recorded using an iPhone. The data will be stored in a password protected flash drive in the principal investigator's place of residence. The data will be stored for a minimum of three years. The data collected will be coded, transcribed and placed into themes for data analysis. The principal investigator will interview you and transcribe the data. All audio recordings will be used for educational purposes and will be deleted immediately after the study is completed.

SUSPECTED NEGLECT OR ABUSE OF CHILDREN

Under California law, the researcher(s) who may also be a mandated reporter will not maintain as confidential, information about known or reasonably suspected incidents of abuse or neglect of a child, dependent adult or elder, including, but not limited to, physical, sexual, emotional, and financial abuse or neglect. If any researcher has or is given such information, he or she is required to report this abuse to the proper authorities.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation is voluntary. Your refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may withdraw your consent at any time

and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study.

ALTERNATIVES TO FULL PARTICIPATION

The alternative to participation in the study is not participating or only completing the items for which you feel comfortable.

EMERGENCY CARE AND COMPENSATION FOR INJURY

If you are injured as a direct result of research procedures you will receive medical treatment; however, you or your insurance will be responsible for the cost. Pepperdine University does not provide any monetary compensation for injury

INVESTIGATOR'S CONTACT INFORMATION

You understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries you may have concerning the research herein described. You understand that you may contact Principal Investigator, Noushin Bayat, or faculty supervisor, Dr. Farzin Madjidi, if you have any other questions or concerns about this research.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT – IRB CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant or research in general please contact Dr. Judy Ho, Chairperson of the Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board at Pepperdine University 6100 Center Drive Suite 500

Los Angeles, CA 90045, 310-568-5753 or gpsirb@pepperdine.edu.

If you fully understand the content of this informed consent form, please initial the appropriate categories above, and sign below.

Signature

Date

APPENDIX C

Invitation to Participate Email

Dear _____,

I am respectfully inviting you to participate in a research study I am conducting in service to completing my doctoral dissertation at Pepperdine University Graduate School of Education and Psychology. The title of my dissertation is: SUPPORTING LEADERSHIP SUCCESS IN A COMPLEX GLOBAL ECONOMY: BEST STRATEGIES AND PRACTICES IN EXECUTIVE COACHING.

As you might be aware, executive coaching is proving to be successful in supporting executives in a range of outcomes including improving proactive ownership of learning, accomplishing goals, attaining professional growth, improving relationships with colleagues, improving managerial capabilities, increasing resilience and wellness, and improving workplace productivity. Yet scholars contend that much of the process of coaching is still “shrouded in mystery.” As leaders continue to face increasingly complex and volatile global conditions, both scholars and practitioners are needing to identify the best coaching methodologies that best support executives in such a climate.

The purpose of this study is to explore and understand the lived experience of executive coaches in order to determine: (a) the strategies and best practices employed by executive coaches working with senior level executives in global organizations, and (b) the challenges faced by executive coaches in implementing those strategies and practices with senior level

executives in global organizations. The study's findings will therefore contribute to the growing scholarly field of executive coaching in a number of areas, including: (a) executive coaching scholarship, (b) executive coaching training programs, (c) graduate business school curriculum, and (d) leadership development programs.

The research design and methodology are based on a qualitative phenomenological approach with a focus on interviewing 15 highly successful executive coaches who have a minimum of five years of full time experience coaching global leaders. The interviews are anticipated to last about one hour and conducted preferably face to face at a convenient location of your choosing. The timeframe for the study is January to February 2017.

Your participation in this study is voluntary, and you may choose to withdraw your participation at any time without any negative impact to our relationship or any other entity. You will have the choice of keeping your identity confidential and anonymous; in which case, all identifiers will be removed from your data, and only a pseudonym will be assigned. I look forward to hearing from you.

With warm regards,

Noushin Bayat, MA, MPH

Doctoral Candidate, Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education & Psychology

APPENDIX D

Thank you Email to Participants

Dear _____,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my doctoral dissertation study for Pepperdine University. I look forward to gleaning your wisdom and insights into the best practices of executive coaching in supporting global leaders.

I have attached an Informed Consent form which provides more details into the nature of study. Please know that your participation is completely voluntary and you may opt out of the study at any time. Once you read and agree to the Informed Consent, please provide your electronic signature as your agreement to the terms.

I will be contacting you this week to schedule a date and time for our hour long face to face interview. If it is inconvenient for you to meet in person, I am happy to set up a Skype conference call.

Thank you again for your support of this study.

With warm regards,

Noushin Bayat, MA, MPH

Doctoral Candidate, Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

APPENDIX E

Interview Protocol

Time of Interview:	
Date of Interview:	
Place of Interview:	
Interviewer:	
Interviewee, Name:	
Interviewee, Title:	
Demographics	
Age:	
Ethnicity:	
Gender:	

Highest level of education:	
Geographic residence:	
Industry:	
Years of practice as a coach:	
Specific coaching education:	

Ice breaker: tell me a bit about your career and what led you to coach global leaders?

1. What's the typical profile of your clientele, in terms of age, gender, experience ?
2. What makes a busy global leader want to make time to coach with you?
3. If your clients were to thank you for their success, what would they say about your contributions to making their success possible?
4. If you were speaking to a room full of eager executive coaches who want to learn about the best strategies and practices to support senior level global executives, what would those be?
5. What might you tell those eager executive coaches in terms of challenges they might encounter in implementing these strategies and practices ?

6. What are you most proud of in terms of how you meet these challenges?
7. What success criteria are you usually accountable for when you are coaching global leaders?
8. How do you measure the success of your coaching sessions?
9. What role will executive coaches play in developing global leaders to be more effective in responding to events in the global economy?
10. What advice would you have for other coaches working with senior level executives in global organizations?
11. What's the best way for aspiring coaches to get to where you are at ?

APPENDIX F

Peer Review Validity Panel

The following panel of doctoral student scholars in the Organizational Leadership program at Pepperdine University Graduate School of Education and Psychology served as the peer review validity panel:

1. Nii-Quartelai Quartey, Senior Advisor & National LGBT Liaison for Community, State and National Affairs at AARP
2. Jose Garcia, Los Angeles County, Department of Public Health, Director of Grants
3. Riza Reynaldo, Regional Director of Operations, Adventist Health