

The global leadership capacity wheel

Global leadership capacity wheel

Comparing HRD leadership literature with research from global and indigenous leadership

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper was to examine the definitions of global leadership and indigenous leadership, identify leadership capacities inherent in human resource development (HRD) and determine relationships of the three as a means to develop a model to aid and guide opportunities for future research.

Design/methodology/approach – Following a two-stage integrative literature review of HRD, global and indigenous leadership literature, the grounded theory constant comparative method established 31 positive and 1 negative leadership domains, and respective capacities, and compare domains from literature.

Findings – The Global Leadership Capacity Wheel informs researchers of strengths and areas for additional research, has resulted in a more complete model of global leadership and calls for increased clarity for leadership capacity model development, especially for complex, global environments and local constructs and theories.

Research limitations/implications – Although the literature had adequate representation in the business and organizational acumen and managing people and relationships central global leadership domains, more research and reporting is required for managing self and indigenous leadership capacity development subdomains.

Practical implications – Leadership development is a high priority and core function of HRD. The Global Leadership Capacity Wheel provides a tool for scholars and practitioners to guide global leadership development programs and research.

Social implications – Understanding the relationships of leadership capacities from global and indigenous perspectives is helpful to examine cultural, identity and macro-contextual dimensions and their influence on leadership.

Originality/value – The Global Leadership Capacity Wheel provides a type of road-map, a holistic representation, in the context of developing global leaders in today's complex environment.

Keywords Leadership, Leadership capacities, Global leadership capacities, Indigenous leadership capacities, Leadership domains, Negative leadership capacities

Paper type Research paper

Traditional leadership models have been designed around building a set of behaviors or competencies (Kennedy *et al.*, 2013) that previously identified leaders or powerful and charismatic individuals possessed. These practices have been identified in the literature as

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the skill set approach (Kennedy *et al.*, 2013), or the competency approach (Bolden and Gosling, 2006; Cumberland *et al.*, 2016), to leadership. The competency approach to leadership has been challenged as being limited in scope and restrictive where competencies have “repeatedly over time been used to give a sense of boundedness (or restrictive structure) to the processes of ‘management’ and now ‘leadership’” (Bolden and Gosling, 2006, p. 148).

Expanding upon these individualistic bounded structures, calls from institutions, organizations, social activist networks and researchers have reshaped the leadership conversation to include a more collective and global perspective. Unfortunately, this expansion could not be done without using what has been learned from the skills and competency literature. In their research, Dugan *et al.* (2014) highlighted the need to develop “leader capacities before moving on to more complex capacities associated with group process” (p. 4; see also Day, *et al.*, 2009). It had also become more critical to present indigenous research relating to leadership and leadership development in the more globalized environment (Zhang *et al.*, 2012). For example, the United Nations Millennium Declaration called for the development of future leaders that would have the capacity to implement the Millennium Goals:

The UNDESA/IASIA initiative is premised on the belief that leadership capacity enhancement programs must be conceived and implemented with the aim of making leaders capable of effectively addressing the key issues facing the world today and that its planning and implementation must be interdisciplinary, international and inter-sectoral (involving public and non-profit organizations). (Bertucci, 2004, p. 687).

This placed a need for future research on leadership and leadership capacity enhancement programs to incorporate more indigenous and global perspectives of leadership. As each country has been different in their political, industrial and economic environments, local leadership practices, policies and processes also varied. From this viewpoint, leadership capacity enhancement programs needed to address local concerns: “the composition and nature of the targeted audience should dictate the approaches, techniques, thematic content and training methods to be adopted” (Bertucci, 2004, p. 689).

This point is most evident in previous experiences with leaders in multinational corporations (MNC). Chai *et al.* (2016) highlighted that leaders from MNC who were sent abroad have failed in their assignments approximately 33 per cent of the time. This was partially attributed to lacking cultural awareness of the indigenous host country (Chai *et al.*, 2016) and a lack of any long-term commitment (Wang *et al.*, 2014). This failure rate was also because of the use of *Western*-derived leadership capacities and models that were established external of the indigenous country. These Western leadership models and studies had been “developed based on the Western context” (Zhang *et al.*, 2012, p. 1063). When applied to the host country, these Western leadership models were often found to be ineffective, resulting in “increasing calls for indigenous management and leadership research” (Chai *et al.*, 2016, p. 790). Others have made similar calls to further develop indigenous constructs in Asian settings (Wang *et al.*, 2017, p. 508). Zhang *et al.* (2012) highlighted that current Western leadership theories have limited utility in non-developed, non-Western countries, all the while identifying that indigenous research in leadership had become a necessity to better understand the local leadership phenomena.

What is meant by global, or indigenous, when paired with the construct of leadership? A clear understanding of what global and indigenous means as a leadership construct must first take place before identifying what the capacities of these leaders should be. This lack of definition has resulted in many failed attempts at producing global and indigenous leaders:

Too often, we see companies conclude that they need more global leaders, but then quickly jump to conclusion about what effective global leaders should look like, hurriedly design a development program based on their assumptions, and then wonder what went wrong when the outcomes of the initiative are disappointing in nature. (Mendenhall and Bird, 2013, p. 167)

The current research study reviews the literature to identify the following research questions. What is global leadership? What is indigenous leadership? What leadership capacities are desired for global leaders and for indigenous leaders? What are human resource development's (HRD) leadership capacities? How are the three related? The answers from these research questions will help to form a global and indigenous leadership model in which HRD is positioned as a connector between indigenous leadership and the organizations' global leadership model.

Methodology

The current literature review followed the guidelines for an integrative literature review presented by Torraco (2005, 2016) and Imel (2011). This literature review was a freestanding literature review designed to provide directions for future research (Imel, 2011; Torraco, 2005) in the fields of HRD, leadership, management and the organizational sciences.

Data for the current literature review came in two stages. The first stage included the four Academy of Human Resource Development (AHRD) publications (*Advances in Developing Human Resources, ADHR; Human Resource Development International, HRDI; Human Resource Development Quarterly, HRDQ; Human Resource Development Review, HRDR*) and *Performance Improvement Quarterly, PIQ*. Articles between January 2000 and July 2015 were searched, providing a coverage of nearly 15 years. Exception to this were for the HRDR publication because initial publications were available after January 2002 and the ADHR publication commenced in 2008. Search terms included "leadership AND theory", "team AND leadership", "leadership AND development" and "team AND development". Each of these five search terms were restricted by the aforementioned date criterion and the "in Abstract" criterion.

Each journal was searched using the above criteria, one journal at a time. Of the resulting 271 journal articles, 110 articles were identified as being non-relevant (no leadership capacities identified); therefore, 161 journal articles were reviewed for the current study.

For the second stage, global leadership and indigenous leadership articles were retrieved from the Web of Science database using the search terms "Global Leadership" OR "Indigenous Leadership". This search was restricted to articles only, in English only, and from 2008 to 2018. A total of 51 articles were initially retrieved with 34 articles reviewed. The difference resulted in articles that were non-empirical articles (book reviews, opinion pieces) or articles that focused more on global and not leadership.

Cooper's (2003) taxonomy guided the structure of the current literature review. This taxonomy called for identification of six characteristics to any literature review: focus, goal, perspective, coverage, organization and audience (Cooper, 2003; Imel, 2011). The focus for the current article is a combination of research outcomes and theory. The current literature review looked at the research outcomes and attributes of successful leadership capacities (individual and team). The goal for this literature review was to synthesize the literature and provide a new perspective when viewing leadership.

The coverage for the current literature review included literature from the four AHRD publications and one performance improvement (PI) publication for the first stage and from the Web of Science database for the second stage. This coverage provided a starting point in analyzing leadership by identifying capacities, examples and definitions from refereed publications. The organization for the current literature review was conceptual with the

expected audience of scholars, scholar-practitioners and students involved in researching, conducting or studying leadership. Also, results from the current research provided a benchmark for future global and indigenous research that focuses on identifying and developing leadership capacities as well as developing new indigenous and global leadership theories.

Data for the first stage were collected by the researchers using coding techniques and the constant comparative method. Coding involved collecting the first set of data from the journal articles (i.e. skills, behaviors and traits), storing the data in a self-derived database using File Maker Pro, followed by separating the data into components or categories significant to the phenomenon being studied (Bryman, 2008). Coding involved capturing leadership capacities that were identified by each journal article. Constant comparative methods involve constantly comparing “like with like” (Goulding, 2001, p. 25), identifying emerging patterns and categories to highlight any relationships between these patterns and categories (Turner, 2014). Constant comparative methodology was used to organize the leadership capacities into categories, grouping similar items together first. For example, the leadership capacity category of Global Orientation included the following similar items: global orientation, global perspective, global thinking and more global. Capacities that were similar to one another were grouped together (i.e. coaching and mentoring) as were specific items that typically belong to one another, for example, critical thinking (i.e. knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation). Any disagreements were discussed among two of the researchers, the lead researcher and one co-researcher, until an agreement was made. Once an agreement was made the capacities were placed into their appropriate category. Data for the second stage were coded based on the type of leadership (global and indigenous) with descriptions, definitions and competencies reported.

Leadership theory

Plowman and Duchon (2008) identified four myths concerning traditional leadership perspectives:

- (1) leaders specify desired futures;
- (2) leaders direct change;
- (3) leaders eliminate disorder and the gap between intentions and reality; and
- (4) leaders influence others to enact desired futures (pp. 137-144).

These leadership myths are viewed as being problematic in that they perceive leaders as being top-down, in control, and being able to control other’s behaviors (Plowman and Duchon, 2008). These assumptions do not match today’s globalization and complexity where leadership is more distributive, bottom-up and open.

Houglum (2012) highlighted, regardless of extensive planning and organizing on the part of leaders, many organizational outcomes were never achieved or were achieved through unexpected means (not as originally planned). This could be partially due to the leadership competency model, which looked at the competencies of “problem-solving skills, social judgment skills, and knowledge” (Northouse, 2016, p. 69) having either ill-defined competencies, the wrong competencies or both. Northouse (2016) identified the leadership competency (part of the skills approach theory) as “weak in predictive value” (p. 70) and “weak in general application” (p. 70). In addition, Bolden and Gosling (2006) identified three flawed assumptions with the leadership competency model:

- (1) that those who excel in the same role display the same behaviors;
- (2) that these behaviors can be learned; and
- (3) that improving on your weaknesses leads to success” (p. 150).

These points challenge the traditional competency view of leadership, identifying it as being ill-conceived (Houglum, 2012) for today’s environment where complex problems occur at rapid rates of change with increasing ambiguity (Gagnon *et al.*, 2012).

Leadership results in the complex actions of individuals, interacting, dynamically, in a non-linear fashion. Typical leadership capacities include being dynamic, considerate (McCarthy, 2014), open (Gagnon *et al.*, 2012; McCarthy, 2014), a team player (Brown *et al.*, 2011) or inspirational (Fambrough and Kaye Hart, 2008) along with having the capacities to move the team/group forward (Antes and Schuelke, 2011; Ligon *et al.*, 2011). Other research on leadership has focused on leadership as “being more about the leader’s sense of self than her or his skills or capabilities” (Warhurst, 2012, p. 473), relating to leaders “anchored in a sense of self” (Muir, 2014, p. 350), and based on a collaborative nature with shared leadership roles (McCauley-Smith *et al.*, 2013).

Previous individualistic views of leadership are being challenged with more current views of collective leadership, complexity theory (Clarke, 2013) and complexity leadership theory (Uhl-Bien and Marion, 2009). Individualistic views of leadership are viewed as being of limited value in today’s complex environment (Clarke, 2013) and less acceptable (McCauley-Smith *et al.*, 2013). Complexity better addresses uncertainty and ambiguity (Clarke, 2013), is non-linear and “more accurately reflect[s] the complex nature of leadership as it occurs in practice” (Uhl-Bien and Marion, 2009, p. 631). Edwards and Turnbull (2013b) identified new innovative perspectives on leadership were beginning to surface in the literature, which included complexity theory. Complexity leadership theory (CLT), for example, relates to leadership “*in* and *of* complex adaptive systems” (Uhl-Bien and Marion, 2009, p. 631). Given the vast amount of research on leadership capacities, McCarthy (2014) stated: “there is less clarity as to what specifically that bundle of skills entails” (p. 57).

Within the HRD literature, Callahan, *et al.* (2007) identified three categories of leadership theories based on the chronological developments of leadership theories. These three categories consisted of leader-focused theories, situational theories and social dynamic theories. Callahan *et al.* (2007) identified the following leadership theories for the first categorization of leader-focused theories: trait approaches, skills approach, competency-based understandings of leadership, leadership style and power. For the second category, situational theories, Callahan *et al.* (2007) included contingency theory, situational leadership theory and path-goal theory. Social dynamics involving studying the interactions between the leader and followers expanded leadership theories to include transformational leadership, leader–member exchange and team leadership (Callahan *et al.*, 2007).

Hanson (2013) highlighted that leadership theory has concentrated primarily on the individual, the leader, focusing just on the parts of the whole. Rather, leadership development needs to consider the leadership–follower dyad and how the development efforts of the leader align with the organization (Hanson, 2013), as well as continuing development efforts to better address complex environments (i.e. non-linear processes). In his research, Manderscheid (2008) highlighted the deficit in research relating to the leader–follower dyad and identified a need for leadership development efforts that fostered this dyad through “accelerating learning, adaptation, and relationship building” (p. 688). To better address the complexity in today’s environment, emerging leadership theories involved relational and social dynamics (Gagnon *et al.*, 2012). In addition, Edwards and Turnbull (2013a, 2013b) identified that there has been a shift in leadership theory in which leadership is a more dispersed or shared phenomenon.

More recently, [Turner and Baker \(2018\)](#) mapped out the leadership theories that were discussed within the HRD literature and compared these leadership theories with the trends that leadership theory has experienced. The trends in leadership theory have evolved into four primary phases: traditional, newer, collective and global ([Turner and Baker, 2018](#); see also [Avolio et al., 2009](#)). The field of HRD has been primarily focused on the traditional and newer leadership phases with little to no research in the collective or global phases of leadership ([Turner and Baker, 2018](#)). Their research highlighted the growth opportunities for the field of HRD to expand, and to focus more, in the areas of collective and global leadership. The current study is one effort to expand HRD's reach into the global leadership domain that also includes indigenous leadership.

Global and indigenous leadership domains

Leadership has been defined in a number of different contextual, cultural and environmental settings. One common definition of leadership includes a process that involves intentional influence over others as a method of guiding, mentoring or motivating them to a desired goal ([Mendenhall and Bird, 2013](#)). However, what is the meaning of leadership when global and indigenous are added? How does global, and indigenous, change the meaning of leadership?

Indigenous research is:

The study of a unique local phenomenon or a unique element of any local phenomenon from a local (native as emic) perspective that aims to explore/examine its local implications/relevance, and, if possible, its global implications/relevance ([Chai et al., 2016](#), p. 793).

Global leadership is defined as: "The process of influencing individuals, groups, and organizations [...] representing diverse cultural/political/institutional systems to help achieve the global organization's goals" ([Javidan and Walker, 2012](#), p. 38). Indigenous leadership focuses mostly on local leadership (emic), whereas global leadership primarily looks at leading local communities or cultures toward a global outcome (etic). In a global market, organizations need to account for local leadership, above and beyond the organization's leadership, as well as interpret any influence or impact that an organization's strategic plan may have on the local community or culture. To address this multidimensional global and indigenous need, leadership models or theories need to integrate these local constructs. The following sections provide an overview of global leadership followed by indigenous leadership. [Table I](#) provides definitions of each type of leadership found in the literature.

Global

The construct of global leadership is contextual. [Mendenhall and Bird \(2013\)](#) highlighted global leadership's position within the context of globalization as "the outward manifestation of an underlying phenomenon" (p. 168). Other views identified global leadership as balancing international scope with local needs and being mindful of the whole organization rather than only concentrating on one division at a time ([Wang et al., 2014](#)). Others differentiated global leadership from leadership because of the expansion of national and cultural borders as well as their role in leading others that reside in a different country than the global leader ([Conger, 2014](#)). From these variant positions, the field has neither yet adapted a "specific, rigorous and widely accepted definition of the construct" ([Mendenhall et al., 2012](#), p. 493), nor has the field come to an agreement on how to develop global leaders ([Park et al., 2018](#)). Also, beyond not having an empirical definition agreed upon by the field, the construct is "ambiguous and lacks unifying theory" ([Mendenhall et al., 2012](#), p. 494; see

Source	Definition
<i>Global Leadership</i> Bird and Mendenhall (2016, p. 118)	Leaders who could thrive in a world that reflected this new reality of real-time, multiple spanning of technological, financial, cultural, organizational, stakeholder and political boundaries
Caligiuri and Tarique (2009, p. 336)	High level professionals . . . who are in jobs with some global leadership activities such as global integration responsibilities
Conger (2014, p. 198)	Individuals who lead across geographic and cultural boundaries
Davila <i>et al.</i> (2013, p. 183)	Encompasses the integration of diverse perspectives about world problems seeking to transform them into opportunities for development
Holt and Seki (2012, p. 199)	Anyone who operates in a context of multicultural, paradoxical complexity to achieve results in our world
Mendenhall <i>et al.</i> (2013, p. 500); Yoon and Han (2018); Fitzsimmons, <i>et al.</i> , (2013)	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
Park <i>et al.</i> (2018, p. 96); from Mendenhall <i>et al.</i> (2008), Holt and Seki (2012); Jeong, <i>et al.</i> (2016); Osland, <i>et al.</i> (2013)	The leadership of individuals who influence and bring about significant positive changes in firms, organizations and communities by facilitating the appropriate level of trust, organizational structures and processes and involving multiple stakeholders, resources, cultures under the various conditions of temporal, geographical and cultural complexity
Reiche <i>et al.</i> (2017, p. 556)	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
Sutton <i>et al.</i> (2013, p. 606); from Bird <i>et al.</i> (2010)	The process of influencing the thinking, attitudes and behaviors of a global community to work together synergistically toward a common vision and common goal
Sutton <i>et al.</i> (2013, p. 606)	Individuals with high-level global integration responsibilities
Vogelgesang <i>et al.</i> (2014, p. 166)	The process of influencing people from various cultures to adopt a shared vision through structures and methods that facilitate positive change while fostering individual and collective growth in a context characterized by significant levels of complexity, flow and presence
Yoon and Han (2018, p. 1144)	A process of influencing and facilitating a group of people across cultures to achieve organizational vision and goals in complex and diverse settings
Youssef and Luthans (2012, p. 541)	The systematic and integrated manifestation of leadership traits, processes, intentional behaviors and performance outcomes that are elevating, exceptional and affirmatory of the strengths, capabilities and developmental potential of leaders, their followers and their organizations over time and across cultures. [positive global leadership]
<i>Indigenous leadership</i> Evans and Sinclair (2016, p. 486)	Indigenous arts leadership. . .is constructed physically and conceptually across territories that are connected to the past and the future in rich, complex and inspiring ways
Wolfgramm <i>et al.</i> (2016, p. 263)	Indigenous leadership is a multi-faceted and complex phenomenon that offers a rich arena for challenging existing leadership paradigms and advancing extant leadership theories
Zhang <i>et al.</i> (2012, p. 1064)	Local leadership is viewed as an ongoing interpretation of meaning produced by individuals engaged in the local leadership process

Table I.
Global and indigenous leadership definitions

also [Barker, 2001](#)). Global leadership also misses identifying the contextual and boundary spanning requirements ([Reiche et al., 2017](#)) and fails to “acknowledge the complex, contextual nature of leadership either explicitly or implicitly” ([Holt and Seki, 2012](#), p. 197).

In a review of the literature, [Mendenhall and Bird \(2013\)](#) highlighted global as consisting of two primary dimensions: complexity and boundary-spanning. Complexity is represented by four drivers: multiplicity, interdependence, ambiguity and flux ([Mendenhall and Bird, 2013](#)). Here, to operate on a global scale, leaders must be capable of understanding the complexities that coincide with globalization. This complexity involves not only dealing with more competitors, customers or stakeholders, but it also involves navigating relationships that are more “culturally, economically, politically, and managerially more diverse” ([Mendenhall and Bird, 2013](#), p. 168). These leaders are expected to be creative, and when dealing with complexity, they need to be “masters of reinvention” ([Conger, 2014](#), p. 198). Boundary spanning involves “the creation and navigation of linkages that integrate and coordinate across economic, functional, geographic, cultural, linguistic, religious, educational, political, and legal systems” ([Mendenhall and Bird, 2013](#), p. 170) and consist of two components; flow (relationship aspect) and presence (geographical aspect).

Indigenous

When viewing leadership as a social construct that is socially and contextually derived, one cannot remove the local phenomena from leadership ([Zhang et al., 2012](#); [Suddaby, 2006](#)). Also, in the previous descriptions and representations of global leadership, local phenomena is embedded within global leadership. When developing or researching indigenous leadership theories one must account for historical, societal and cultural influences on the leader and followers ([Zhang et al., 2012](#)). Indigenous leadership theories must be presented in a way that represents the local culture and not western-colonial models. These theories must also be presented in a way that preserves the history of the indigenous culture, protects the current indigenous culture to thrive within their own values, standards and customs ([Gladstone and Pepion, 2017](#), p. 586). Also, these theories need to provide a pathway for future indigenous generations to continue practicing their culture while operating in the larger developed global environment.

Indigenous leadership is one area in the field of leadership that has been under researched ([Evans and Sinclair, 2016](#)), but is beginning to make some advances. When viewing indigenous leadership, the concept of leadership may not exist in the local culture, some cultures operate in a more collective and distributive model as opposed to having one leader ([Evans and Sinclair, 2016](#)). Leader positions are selected using communal and cultural processes within the context of “affection, affiliation and education” ([Wolfgramm et al., 2016](#), p. 264). In addition, many cultures do not have the concept of leadership as described by developed cultures, this is evident Evan and Sinclair’s research as they identified indigenous artists as opposed to labeling them indigenous leaders. Using the label leadership could hold negative meanings: “imprisoning Indigenous leaders to in some way reproduce or be limited by these capabilities” (p. 477). For the current study, we use the term indigenous leadership to keep with current literature, also because we are referring to the concept of indigenous leadership and not to any one specific culture. Indigenous research cannot be generalized to a larger population ([Evans and Sinclair, 2016](#)) or to other indigenous cultures, each indigenous culture is only representative of its own culture.

The linkage between indigenous and global leadership

The field of HRD practices within an organization and is considered responsible only for the behaviors of the host system, the organization ([Wang et al., 2017](#)). As organizations enter

into the domains of global and indigenous leadership, HRD must be capable of providing the host system with the knowledge and theories to do so. Wang *et al.* (2017) provided a theoretical definition of HRD that incorporated the concepts of shaping and skilling. Shaping relates to implementing and learning as defined by the host system and skilling refers to preparing individuals with the “necessary behavior, competency, and capacity to perform required tasks” (Wang *et al.*, 2017, p. 1174). As the host system extends into global markets, global and indigenous leadership theories are called for, providing the shaping mechanism from the organization’s behavior. The skilling mechanisms to meet the needs required for an organization to develop global and indigenous leadership theories or models comes, in part, from HRD’s knowledge base in the leadership domain.

These shaping and skilling mechanisms result from the interactions between the leadership levels of local, organizational and environmental, as presented in Figure 1. In the same manner that the field of general leadership theory has benefitted from complexity theory (Bird and Mendenhall, 2016), so too can the leadership constructs of indigenous and global leadership. However, as with any theoretical model, one must identify the relationships between the constructs along with their boundaries and constraints (Suddaby, 2014). Complexity theory identifies open systems, which places indigenous leadership within the same environmental surrounding as global leadership. The one constraint that could be placed on this open system is the constraint of the organization and the boundaries could be related only to the areas of influence that the organization practices. This identifies a semi-open system which is consistent with many systems viewed from complexity theory as highlighted by Kast and Rosenzweig (1972).

The problem with positioning indigenous and global leadership in the same system is that there is no direct relationship in which indigenous leadership can interact with global leadership, resulting in neither influencing the other. This is consistent in the field of leadership in which “the field of leadership tends to overlook the effect of the potential dichotomy between individual needs and institutional needs” (Barker, 2001, p. 474). In this case, the individual needs constitute the local needs, indigenous, as well as the needs of those within the organization that operate between the local and global entities, that is, HRD. The institutional needs relate to those who are related to the global objectives of the organization, that is, global.

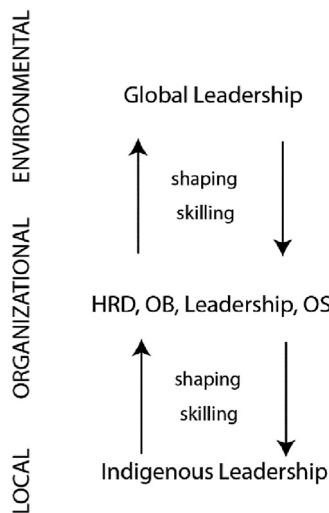


Figure 1. Interconnections between indigenous and global leadership

Complexity theory views systems as having organic interactions within and between systems. These interactions are not centrally controlled but occur naturally, resulting in the emergence of a new system with adaptive characteristics allowing the system to function better in the current environment. The direct interactions make the connections between indigenous and HRD, HRD and global, global and HRD, HRD and indigenous and the indirect interactions make the connections between indigenous and global via HRD and between global and indigenous via HRD. Creating and fostering these interactions help move a system toward a new emerging system that is adaptable and coevolves with its environment (Strathern and McGlade, 2014). These interactions are depicted by the arrows in Figure 1 and are recursive in that they go both ways. For example, HRD leadership can provide shaping to local leadership in the same manner that indigenous leadership could also shape HRD leadership theory. Also, while we identify HRD as the connector between indigenous and global leadership, we recognize that there are many other disciplines that could act as this connector. This is depicted in Figure 1 by identifying organizational behavior (OB), general leadership theory (Leadership) and organizational/management science (OS). Although not every discipline could be identified here, the point remains that already established bodies of leadership knowledge act as the connector between the local and environmental levels.

This amalgamation of indigenous, HRD and others (organization behavior and development, leadership, management), with global leadership provides a map of the transition required to connect indigenous with new global leadership. This map represents the “repertoire of knowledge and skills” (Bird and Mendenhall, 2016, p. 117) required to develop global leaders. This development requirement does not “necessitate global leadership putting aside the skills they have gained” (Bird and Mendenhall, 2016, p. 117), but it requires new global leaders to build upon existing skills and knowledge. Hence, HRD is a placement for the connector between indigenous to global leadership and between global to indigenous leadership, and is representative of the skills and knowledge that developing leaders may already have. Incorporating HRD as the connector aligns with current organizational structures being more matrixed as opposed to operating as separate business units Hazucha *et al.* (2012). In response to meeting the demands of global complexity, organizations are representative of all geographic regions in which they operate in as opposed to only representing one at a time. This new matrixed organization requires more supporting roles within the organization “(e.g. supply chain, R&D, legal, HR)” (Hazucha *et al.*, 2012, p. 220), which also includes HRD support.

To capture HRD’s knowledge base within the leadership domain, the following leadership capacities were captured to represent HRD’s contribution to its host system. How these leadership capacities fit into the larger global and indigenous leadership landscape is provided in the following sections.

Leadership capacities from HRD literature

The leadership-related data generated through the constant comparative process of the articles included in the integrated literature review in the first stage of the research for this current article resulted in the identification of 31 domains. These leadership domains are listed in Table II with their respective capacities identified in the literature.

Negative leadership capacities–The 32nd domain

In viewing toxic and bad leadership, Edwards *et al.* (2015) proposed using three critical perspectives (psychosocial approach, relational approach and critical commentary on leadership development) to discuss capacities of leaders. These perspectives were used to contrast positive leadership capacities that are dominant in the literature and have been

Leadership domains	Leadership capacities
Critical thinking skills	Analytic skills, conceptual skills, convergent thinking skills, critical thinking skills, divergent thinking skills, high level of technical skill and knowledge, knowledge ^a , knowledge-objective, meaning structures, mental models, practice clear thinking, pragmatic, prioritizing, problem or opportunity definition skills, questions assumptions, reasoning skills, scanning and analysis skills, screening, sorting, synthesize complex data and thinking systemically
Change	Change, lead change ^a , make change happen, change management, more change oriented, identify opportunities for change, leading change and understands importance of change processes
Coaching/Mentoring	Accept guidance, coach ^a , coaching ^a , effective teacher, invite coaching, invite guidance, mentor, mentor roles, mentoring, mentoring abilities and more effective mentors
Community focused Competencies	Community development and develop community-inspired goals Ability to learn, business acumen ^a , cognitive ability, competent, corporate culture awareness, delivery skills, domain expertise, expert, expertise-objective, expertise-subjective, extraordinary capabilities, field knowledge, financial acumen, fundamental competencies, identify competency strengths, identify competency weaknesses, individual and organizational capacity, intellect, learn, organizational knowledge, planning skills, talented, technical proficiency ^a and technical skills
Conflict	Avoidance of conflicting relationships, conflict management ^a , conflict negotiation, conflict resolution, provide assistance with problems and conflict and resolve conflict ^a
Culture/Diversity/ Identity	Aware of cultural differences, awareness of workplace violence, cultural sensitivity, create a culture of support, cross-cultural knowledge, diversity, establishes meaningful identity, identity negotiation, leveraging diversity, member diversity and sense of social justice
Customer service oriented	Customer-centric strategy, customer focus, customer focused, customer service and customer service skills
Decision-making skills	Decision making capacities ^a , decision making capabilities, encourages flexibility decisions and change, follow decision protocol, involve employees in decision-making and make informed decisions
Developmental skills	Creates visibility and momentum to move careers forward, develop a creative workforce, develop creative environment, develop mindset for continuous learning, developing, developing talent, encourage employees' growth and development, growing skills, have development skills, identify opportunities, organizational and personal transformation, potency development, self-development and support career development
Emotional intelligence	Be sensitive to needs of others, compassion, considerate of individuals, emotion, emotional ^a , emotional awareness ^a , emotional intelligence ^a , express emotions, know him/herself, self-awareness ^a , self-development, self-knowledge and self-verification
Entrepreneurial Feedback	Entrepreneurial learning and entrepreneurial spirit ^a Develop spirit of accountability, ensure accountability, evaluate individual contributions, feedback ^a , feedback seeking, multisource feedback, organizational feedback, provides evaluation and feedback, provides feedback, receptive to organizational feedback and seeks feedback from subordinates
Global orientation	Environmental influence, global orientation, global perspective, global thinking, more global and shaping the environment
Innovative/Creative	Creative ^a , creativity ^a , innovation ^a , innovative ^a , innovativeness, innovator, more innovative and understand opportunities/implications of technical innovation

(continued)

Table II.
Leadership capacity
domains

Leadership domains	Leadership capacities
Leadership qualities	Accept guidance, allocate adequate power, articulate direction, avoid blaming for shortcomings or failures ^a , belief system, challenge seekers, challenging, clarity of vision, complexity, create safe work environment, create vision, desire to lead, envisions future states, fair, follow, guides followers, idealized attributes, idealized behavior, idealized influence, identify breakthrough opportunities, identity as a leader, implementing a vision, innovative role modeling, instills knowledge and appreciation of work, know when to lead and follow, know when to be direct and collaborative, lead by example ^a , leader skills and knowledge, leader supportive, leadership perceptions, leading people ^a , learner autonomy, manage impressions, no public criticism, power, risk-taking ^a , role model, shape understanding of others, shared leadership, shared vision, supportive climate, uncertainty and vision ^a
Listening and communication	Better communicators, common language, communicate ^a , communicate clear message, communicates expectations, communicating goals, communicating through open and honest dialogue, communication ^a , communication is encouraged, communication skills, creating open communication, depth of communication, fluency, listen, listen and communicate effectively, listens effectively, open, open communication ^a , openness to multiple perspectives ^a and whole listening
Management functions/ Skills	Achieving results, act as buffer, affective commitment, align direction, align expectations ^a , broker, build organizational capacity, business performance, clarify vision, commitment to goals, continuance commitment, coordinator, creative process skills, delegates tasks, deliver results, detect opportunities, direct day-to-day activities, director, drive organization into future, driving execution, engage senior leaders, ensure role clarity, establish direction, excellence, expectation alignment ^a , facilitator, focus on quality, focus on results, foster adaptive behavior, foster co-evolution, functional, generates cooperation, goal directed, goal setting, identify emerging trends, identify needs, identify organizational champions, improve economic performance, impulse control, job instruction training, long-term focus, make task connections, makes resources available, manage, manage in uncertain situations ^a , manage first impressions, manage internal and external relations ^a , manage requests and constraints, manage resources, manage work, management by objective, managerial skills, managing talent, map workforce, monitor, negotiation ^a , normative commitment, optimizing fit ^a , organizational demand, organizational support, planning, project management skills, predict, prevent crises, producer, program management, promoting persistence, provide clear reporting structure, provide levels of autonomy, provides clear expectations, provides resources, purposeful action, results driven, secure organizational resources, seeking commitment, sell ideas, sense of urgency, set high standards, stakeholder success, stress management, sustained support, total quality management ^a , treat employees fairly, uncover needs of others, work-life balance and works cross-functionally
Moral/Ethical Motivational	Ethical ^a , moral ^a , moral courage and values Congratulatory, empower peers to develop abilities, empower subordinates, encourages adaptation, encourages followers to try new approaches, encourages innovation, encourages self-regulation, energizing, engage desire for personal development, engagement, engaging and involving others, engaging and inspiring, excitement and motivational, generates confidence, generates enthusiasm, generates enthusiasm, generates excitement, influential ^a , influence customers, influence decision makers, influence gatekeepers, inspirational ^a , inspiring commitment, instrumental behavior, intellectual stimulating ^a , motivational ^a , organizational rewards, recognition ^a , reinforce successes, reward ^a , stimulating, supportive ^a ,

(continued)

Table II.

Leadership domains	Leadership capacities
	supportive behavior, supportive work environment, uses intrinsic and extrinsic motivators
Networking	Dyadic interaction, encourage networking, framing of interaction patterns, network conditions, networking and modes of interaction
Organization learning/ Learning organization	Continuous learning ^a and organizational learning ^a
Performs effectively	Performs effectively ^a
Individual personality traits or characteristics	Adapt, adaptability ^a , adaptive ^a , admired, authenticity, aware, being in the moment, belief, commitment, compassion, confident ^a , considerate, consistent, courage ^a , courageous, curiosity, decisiveness, demonstrate personal energy, determination, determined, displays integrity, doer, driven ^a , dynamic, elaboration, enthusiastic ^a , extraversion ^a , fairness, flexibility ^a , flexible, general mood, honesty ^a , humility ^a , initiative, integrity ^a , intellectually gifted, intelligent, intuition, know strengths, know weaknesses, love of learning, obligation, optimistic, original, originality, overcome uncertainty, perseverance, persistent ^a , personal humility, personal quality, personality, persuasiveness, physically impressive, positive disposition, proactiveness, professional will, resilience, resourcefulness, respectful ^a , sees tasks and events as opportunities, self-disclosure, self-managed ^a , self-confident ^a , self-direction, sound judgment, unconventional behavior ^a and unwavering
Political acumen	Political acumen, political astuteness and political savvy
Problem solving skills	Able to address ill-defined problems, creating the capacity to act, creative problem-solving skills, define executable problems, distributed view, idea evaluation skills, idea generation skills ^a , identify/plan/define problems, information processing skills, knowledge about complex problems, monitors deviations from standard, open to criticism, open to new ideas, outside-the-box thinking, problem solving skills ^a , reframes problems, sensemaking and solicits solutions from followers
Reflective	Reflection ^a , more reflective and proactive and one-to-one reflection
Social/Relationship building	Acceptance of individual efforts, awareness of personal values, belief in people, comradeship, develop skills in social relations, early relationship building, empathy ^a , focusing on the other, forging partnerships, foster collaboration, human resources management, human skills, importance of socializations, individualized consideration ^a , informal relationship building, interacts, interpersonal congruence, interpersonal skills ^a , make relationship connections, member involvement, more collaborative, more effective developers of people, one-on-one hierarchical relationship, participative behavior, partnering, partnership building, people management skills, people skills, practicing with others, relational awareness, relationship building ^a , relationship management ^a , sincere interest in others, sociable, social problem solving, social skills ^a and willing to let others take control
Strategic thinking	Create strategic footing in organization, creating a strategic vision, develop strategy, high level of strategic-thinking capacities, more strategic thinking, provides a strategic vision, shaping strategy, strategic thinking and strategic vision
Teamwork/Team building	Allow team members to make decisions, build teams ^a , build teamwork and consensus ^a , building coalitions ^a , building shared vision, collaborative ^a , collective process, common mission, enhances team effectiveness, facilitate team interactions, foster collaboration, foster collaboration and teamwork, lead creative teams, learn about diversity of team members, maintains level of group harmony, managing team, orient teams toward goals, shared control, shared expertise, shared vision ^a , supports team, task interdependence, team learning processes, team playing, team spirit, transactive memory skills ^a and understands importance of teams
Trust/Trustworthiness	Commitment to the truth, create trust ^a , generates trust, honesty, trust ^a , trustworthiness ^a and trusted

Note: ^aRepresents capacities listed more than once

Table II.

identified as having a “positive heroic leadership focus” (Edwards *et al.*, 2015, p. 366). The negative capacities identified by toxic leaders included: corruption, hypocrisy, sabotage, manipulation and other unethical behaviors (Edwards *et al.*, 2015). Bad leaders showed negative capacities such as: “*incompetent, rigid, intemperate, callous, corrupt, insular, and evil*” (Edwards *et al.*, 2015, p. 366). Identifying negative leadership are important as they are prevalent at all levels (local, organizational and environmental). The GLOBE study revealed that there were both desirable and undesirable attributes across cultures (House *et al.*, 2004; see also Schmidt *et al.*, 2013) and that certain leadership attributes exist that are universally desirable and undesirable (Northouse, 2016). The literature from the current integrative literature review produced the following negative leadership capacities as shown in *negative leadership capacities* below.

Negative Leadership Domain. Negative leadership capacities include attributional egotism, callous, control, corrupt, disregard for regulatory requirements, dominant culture, evil, excessive risk taking, gender power relations, gender-based obstacles, hypocrisy, incompetent, infects leadership, insular, intemperate, interrupts organizational learning, lack of feedback, lack of prior experience, manipulative, non-supportive work environment, opportunistic, poor working relationships, pursuing short-term objectives, rigid^a, sabotage, self-deception, self-interest, sense of omnipotence, short-term focus, strong self-investment, thwarts performance, triumphant contempt and using processes where outcomes are unknown.

Note: ^arepresents negative capacities listed more than once.

Leadership capacities from global and indigenous leadership

Leadership has been categorized into specific domains in other literature. For example, McCarthy (2014) presented Ulrich, Smallwood and Sweetman’s five leadership domains consisting of “strategy, talent management, human capital development, execution, and personal proficiency” (p. 57). Patel and Hamlin (2012) identified 14 effective (e.g. supportive, appreciative and openness) and 13 ineffective (e.g. unfair, information hoarding and demeaning toward others) perceived managerial or leadership categories. In viewing global leadership, Herd *et al.* (2016) highlighted Bird’s three domains: “business and organizational acumen, managing people and relationships, and managing self” (p. 29). Herd *et al.* (2016) also presented domains from Project GLOBE which included influencing individuals, teams and organizations. Similarly, Hazucha *et al.* (2012) highlighted four common competencies shared by both leaders and global leaders: “thought leadership, results leadership, people leadership, and self/personal leadership” (p. 221).

Global leadership capacities

In other research, Bird (2013) compiled a similar synthesis to the current study on leadership capacities for global leadership. Global leader competencies have been defined in the literature as: “Those universal qualities that enable individuals to perform their job across national and cultural boundaries” (Yoon and Han, 2018, p. 1144). Bird (2013) compiled a total of 160 separate competencies and categorized them into the three aforementioned domains. The subcategories for each domain are provided in Table III. The domain of business and organizational acumen relates to a leader’s “understanding of business and organizational realities and how to get things done efficiently and effectively” (Bird, 2013, p. 87). The second domain of vision and strategic thinking involved comprehending complexity, developing a global vision and implementation of the vision, whereas the third domain of managing self, involved a leader’s ability to look inward and to learn (Bird, 2013).

Current study ^L	Bird (2013) ^G	Javidan and Walker (2012) ^G	Chai <i>et al.</i> (2016) ^I
Critical thinking skills	Business savvy ^a	Global business savvy ^d	Knowledgeable
Decision-making skills	Business savvy ^a	Cognitive complexity ^d	Knowledgeable
Entrepreneurial	Business savvy ^a	Global business savvy ^d	Long-term oriented
Management functions	Business savvy ^a	Global business savvy ^d	Knowledgeable
Problem-solving skills	Business savvy ^a	Cognitive complexity ^d	Knowledgeable
Change	Leading change ^a	Quest for adventure ^e	Flexible and confident managing paradox and complexity
Conflict	Leading change ^a	Quest for adventure ^e	Flexible and confident managing paradox and complexity
Leadership qualities	Leading change ^a	Interpersonal impact ^f	Supportive and participative
Global orientation	Managing communities ^a	Cosmopolitan outlook ^d	Responsible
Community focused	Managing communities ^a	Cosmopolitan outlook ^d	
Culture/Diversity/Identity	Managing communities ^a	Cosmopolitan outlook ^d	
Customer service oriented	Managing communities ^a	Intercultural empathy ^f	
Organizational learning (OL/LO)	Organizational savvy ^a	Global business savvy ^d	Long-term oriented
Innovative/Creative	Vision and strategic thinking ^a	Cognitive complexity ^d	Flexible and confident managing paradox and complexity
Strategic thinking	Vision and strategic thinking ^a	Global business savvy ^d	Flexible and confident managing paradox and complexity
Social/Relationship building	Cross-cultural communication ^b	Passion for diversity ^e	Harmonizing in and across teams
Emotional intelligence	Interpersonal skills ^b	Intercultural empathy ^f	Supportive and participative
Feedback	Interpersonal skills ^b	Cognitive complexity ^d	Supportive and participative
Listening and communication	Interpersonal skills ^b	Cognitive complexity ^d	Supportive and participative
		Diplomacy ^f	Knowledgeable
Political acumen	Interpersonal skills ^b	Diplomacy ^f	
Moral/Ethical	Valuing people ^b	Interpersonal impact ^f	Fair and just
Trust/Trustworthiness	Valuing people ^b	Interpersonal impact ^f	Supportive and participative
			Fair and just
Coaching/Mentoring	Empowering others ^b	Interpersonal impact ^f	Fair and just
Motivational	Empowering others ^b	Quest for adventure ^e	Supportive and participative
Networking	Teaming skills ^b	Passion for diversity ^e	Harmonizing in and across teams
		Interpersonal impact ^f	Supportive and participative
Teamwork/Team building	Teaming skills ^b	Diplomacy ^f	Harmonizing in and across teams
			Supportive and participative
Developmental skills	Resilience ^c	Quest for adventure ^e	Long-term oriented

(continued)

Table III.
Comparison of leadership capacity domains

Current study ^L	Bird (2013) ^G	Javidan and Walker (2012) ^G	Chai <i>et al.</i> (2016) ^I
Performs effectively	Resilience ^c	Cognitive complexity ^d	Fair and just
Individual personality traits	Character ^c	Self-assurance ^e	Harmonizing in and across teams
Competencies (Ability to Learn)	Inquisitiveness ^c	Cognitive complexity ^d	Knowledgeable
Reflective	Flexibility ^c	Passion for diversity ^e	Long-term oriented
	Global mindset ^c	Cognitive complexity ^d	Fair and just
Negative capacities			Anti-fair and just Individualism

Notes: ^L= Leadership literature; ^G= Global literature; ^I= Indigenous literature; ^a= Business and organizational acumen; ^b= Managing people and relationships; ^c= Managing self; ^d= Intellectual capital; ^e= Psychological capital; ^f= Social capital

Table III.

Some perspectives of global leadership capacities are viewed as being universal with certain capacities being common regardless of country or culture. For example, senior global leadership and Chinese managers were sampled to identify which characteristics best predicted global leadership (Wang *et al.*, 2014). The capacities of charismatic, communication skills, professional knowledge and experience and visionary were identified as being specific to global leaders (Wang *et al.*, 2014). Other research set out to determine what “exemplary leaders actually do” as in the Global Leadership Life Inventory (Kets de Vries *et al.*, 2004). In the development of their inventory, Kets de Vries *et al.* (2004) identified 12 exemplar global leadership dimensions: “Envisioning, Empowering, Energizing, Designing and controlling, Rewarding and giving feedback, Team-building, Outside orientation, Global mindset, Tenacity, Emotional intelligence, Life balance and Resilience to stress” (p. 489). Other studies identified that the challenges faced by global leaders are different, of a higher degree, compared to local leaders requiring different leadership capacities for global leaders. Global leaders are required to deal with “heightened levels of diversity, complexity, and uncertainty” compared to general leaders (Fitzsimmons *et al.*, 2013, p. 592).

A project titled the Global Mindset Project had compiled data on how managers view global mindset, defined by Javidan and Walker (2012) as the “capability to influence others unlike yourself” (p. 38), or as “a geocentric orientation, or a focus on the entire world” (Vogelgesang *et al.*, 2014, p. 167). Javidan and Walker (2012) categorized a global leadership/mindset into three main domains; intellectual capital, psychological capital and social capital. Javidan and Walker (2012) described intellectual capital as a leader’s cognitive abilities, psychological capital as a leader’s affective abilities and social capital as a leader’s behavior. Other research identified three main competency categories require of global leaders: a sense of adventure, cultural literacy and being cognitively capability of operating with cultural complexity (Conger, 2014).

Indigenous leadership capacities

Looking at what Korean managers and employees considered effective leadership behaviors in the workplace, Chai *et al.* (2016) conducted an indigenous research study on leader/manager effectiveness. From their findings, Chai *et al.* (2016) identified seven overarching

themes; supportive and participative, fair and just, responsible, knowledgeable, long-term oriented, harmonizing in and across teams and flexible and confident with managing paradox and complexity. Supportive and participative relates to the local concept of *u-ri*, “the notion of *we* within the context of in-groups” (Chai *et al.*, 2016, p. 799). The concept of *u-ri* relates to a sense of intimacy, willingness to share information and solidarity (Chai *et al.*, 2016), and is similar to the construct of team psychological safety highlighting the importance of teamwork in Korean culture. The fair and just theme concentrates on ethical behavior and character, responsible related to being responsible for one’s actions as well as the task at hand, with being knowledgeable, associated to contextually competent, as well as sharing this knowledge with others (Chai *et al.*, 2016). Long-term oriented refers to life-long learning and individual growth in which a leader provides a learning culture, harmonizing highlights the importance of having group harmony, and being flexible and confident addresses being adaptable to change with a balance (Chai *et al.*, 2016).

Evans and Sinclair (2016) developed four territories that are dynamic and socially constructed to represent indigenous leadership: authorization in a bi-cultural world; identity and belonging; artistic practice; history, colonization and trauma.

Composite global and indigenous capacities

Unfortunately, even though this area of research has experienced some gains, continued research needs to be conducted to answer the question posed by Herd *et al.* (2016): “What skills are needed by global leaders to perform successfully?” (p. 27). The first column in Table III lists the 32 leadership domains identified from the current research. The second column lists Bird’s (2013) subcategories of global leaders, the third column includes global leadership domains from Javidan and Walker (2012), with the fourth column providing the capacities identified from Chai *et al.*’s (2016) research. The definitions of the domains have been compared and listed in rows to indicate where the definitions overlap. Also indicated is the source of literature and the type of acumen.

The global leadership capacity wheel

To identify how leadership capacities from within the HRD literature compared with established global leadership models, we overlaid the leadership domains from the current study onto Bird’s (2013) model of global leader competencies. Figure 2 identifies these two literatures together in one figure. The inner-most circle represents Global Leadership Capacities categorized by Bird’s (2013) three domains, business and organizational acumen, managing people and relationships and managing self, along with the addition of negative capacities. Negative capacities were included given that they were mentioned within Herd *et al.*’s (2016) study and in the current research study. These four domains are positioned inside the second inner-most circle with the subdomains for each inside the third circle. The leadership domains identified in the current study (Tables II and III) were matched to the appropriate subdomain presented in Bird’s (2013) global leadership capacities model. These leadership domains are provided in the outer-most circle in Figure 2. Along the bottom right of Figure 2 the outer circle is identified with an arrow as, *HRD Literature Leadership Capacities Domains from Current Study*, and the inner bolded circle is identified with an arrow as, *Bird’s (2013) Leadership Capacities for Global Leadership*.

The global leadership capacity wheel presented in Figure 2 provides a composite of leadership capacities, primarily from the HRD literature, in one location overlaid into a global leadership capacity model. This capacity wheel highlights some of the strengths within the HRD literature as well as identifies areas where additional research efforts are needed for HRD to better address, provide theories for and to conduct research on global and indigenous

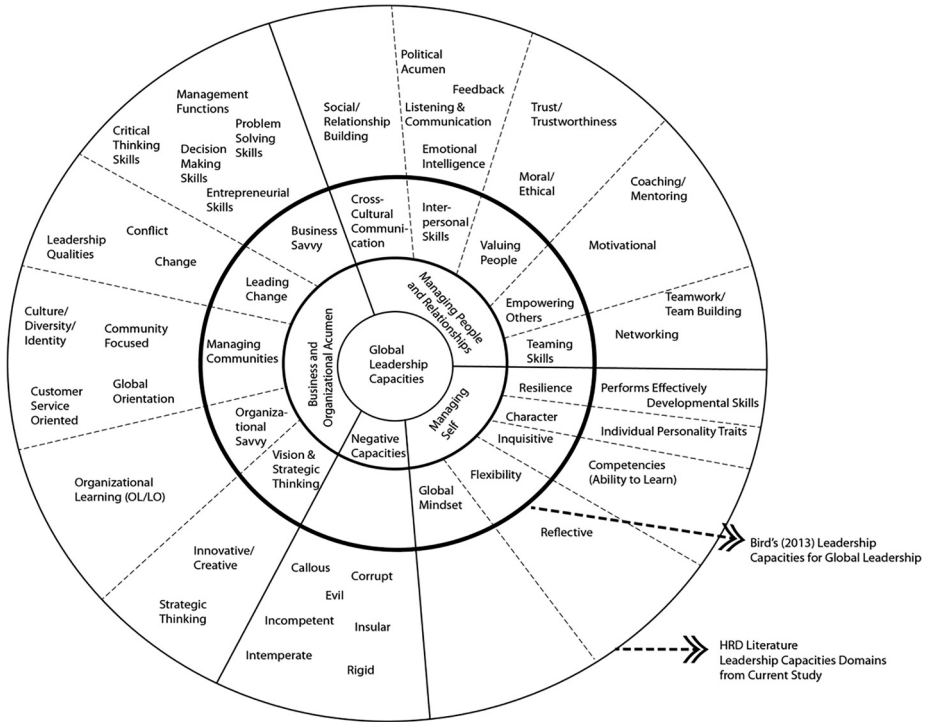


Figure 2.
The global leadership capacity wheel

leadership. For example, the HRD literature provided an adequate coverage of the two domains of business and organizational acumen and managing people and relationships. Within the domain of managing self, the HRD literature did a fair job of covering the subdomains of resilience, character and inquisitive. Unfortunately, the HRD literature was slightly lacking in research relating to the two subdomains of flexibility and global mindset, both within the domain of managing self. One point to make regarding the global mindset is that HRD literature has addressed globalization and other relevant areas of research surrounding indigenous leadership, such as [Watkins et al.'s \(2011\)](#) research calling for leaders who are more global; however, this research does not touch on a leader's mindset as defined by [Javidan and Walker \(2012\)](#). Further research is recommended to be conducted regarding a leader's global mindset and flexibility to better complete this global leadership capacity wheel. One additional contribution that the HRD literature on leadership capacities added to the global leadership capacity wheel is the extensive list of negative capacities ([Table III](#)). The items provided in [Figure 2](#) are only a few of the negative capacities identified in the current study but are representative of harmful leadership capacities.

Conclusion

Leadership development is a high priority and one of HRDs core functions ([Weinberger, 2009](#)). Also, developing and supporting research in global and indigenous leadership is just as critical to the field of HRD. The synthesized data and the global leadership capacity wheel that has been presented in the current study provides a tool for scholars and scholar-practitioners to use when designing global leadership development programs. The global

leadership capacity wheel, as a tool, meets the criteria set by [Hazucha et al. \(2012\)](#) when discussing the requirements for competency models:

Consider a subset of the competency models that apply to different types of roles when developing the overall framework, and allow users to choose the subsets that are most relevant to specific roles (pp. 222-223).

The global leadership capacity wheel provides a model in which one could select the competencies (Global Leadership Competencies) along with selecting and aligning those global leadership competencies with a subset of competencies (HRD Leadership Capacity Domains) based on the specific roles for each leader. As an example, [Jones and Millar \(2010\)](#) had called for a moral compass when it applies to global leadership. In their research, they identified ethical challenges as “*giga challenges to ethical leadership*” when referring to “climate change, energy depletion, the ascent of the BRIC nations [. . .] and the rise of ‘global sums’” ([Jones and Millar, 2010](#), p. 2). In looking at the global leadership capacity wheel in [Figure 2](#), under the Global Leadership Capacities one would find Managing People and Relationships from [Bird’s \(2013\)](#) leadership capacities for global leadership. Here, one would find the capacity of Valuing People. Next, in selecting the capacities listed in the HRD Leadership Capacities Domains that are associated with Valuing People, the capacities of Trust/trustworthiness and Moral/Ethical are listed. In this example, even though the capacities of moral and ethical leadership were not directly listed in the global leadership capacity domains, it was included as one of the HRD leadership capacities.

Leadership development is contextual in which “change in context results in changes in leadership” ([McCauley-Smith et al., 2013](#), p. 85). Developing global leadership skills “as they proceed through a firm’s talent pipeline” ([Bird and Mendenhall, 2016](#), p. 123) will become a new critical function for HRD and other disciplines moving forward. The global leadership capacity wheel presented here provides a type of road-map, the context, for developing global leaders in today’s complex environment.

The current article examined leadership capacities primarily from the HRD literature. This research incorporated great depth over a 15-year period including 161 journal articles that identified over 650 leadership capacities. Future research efforts are recommended to expand on the global leadership capacity wheel by conducting additional global and indigenous leadership studies. Also, it is recommended to test the global leadership capacity wheel by developing leadership development programs and evaluating the results from such programs. This testing phase will allow further modifications and improvements to the global leadership capacity wheel as well as show the utility of this model.

The current article provides new knowledge to the field of HRD by compiling current research into a global leadership model. The current research highlighted strengths from HRD’s body of research and identified a few areas that could use additional research for HRD to provide a more complete model of global leadership. Although not necessarily in the guise of global or indigenous leadership research, the authors concluded that the field of HRD has done good work and research supporting global leadership efforts. This paper contributed to the leadership development literature by adding more clarity, as called for by [McCarthy \(2014\)](#), to what is involved with the different leadership capacity models. This research contributes to global and indigenous leadership research by providing a model of leadership capacities in the context of global leadership, further providing support for [Dugan et al.’s \(2014\)](#) call for developing leader capacity models before advancing to more complex group models. Also, the current research contributed to [Bird’s \(2013\)](#) global leadership model by incorporating additional domains, from the HRD literature, as well as incorporating a

fourth domain for negative leadership capacities. As more *localness* is called for when developing tomorrow's leaders, the current research provides a model that will aid scholars and scholar-practitioners in developing future leaders, contributing to the development of local constructs and local theories.

Taking a humanistic perspective, Davila *et al.* (2013) highlighted how human dimensions needed to be accounted in globalized efforts stating: "We are in it together when it comes to learning how to develop businesses while contributing to human development" (p. 188).

*These articles are not cited in the full-body of the text; however, they were informative to the development of the leadership capacity domains presented in Table II.

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