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Advancing Coaching for Leadership Development

Coaching as an Enabler of Learning and Well-Being in Local and Global Organizations

NATALIA FEY



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Coaching as an enabler of learning and well-being in local and global organizations

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Advancing coaching for leadership development: Coaching as an enabler of learning and well-being in local and global organizations

Key words: Coaching, leadership development, learning, well-being, intercultural leadership coaching, peer coaching

Supervised by
Denise Salin
Professor
Hanken School of Economics, Finland

Mats Ehrnrooth
Professor
Hanken School of Economics, Finland

Opponent
Konstantin Korotov
Professor of Organizational Behavior, Faculty Lead of the Executive MBA Program
European School of Management and Technology, Germany

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Natalia Fey
Hanken School of Economics
Department of Management and Organization
Subject: Management and Organization

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To my parents

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"Be the change you wish to see in the world"
Mahatma Gandhi

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ABBREVIATIONS

CQ	Cultural Intelligence
ELT	Experiential Learning Theory
IE	International Experience
IGO	Intergovernmental Organization
INGO	International non-governmental organization
fsQCA	fuzzy-set Qualitative Comparative Analysis
HCN	The Humanitarian Coaching Network
KEGLL	Key Elements of Global Leader Learning
MNC	Multinational corporation
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SLT	Social Learning Theory
TLT	Transformational Learning Theory
UN	United Nations

LIST OF PAPERS

This dissertation is based on the following papers:

Paper 1

Fey. N. (2020). How global leaders learn from international experience: Reviewing and advancing global leadership development. In Osland, J.S., Szkudlarek, B., Mendenhall, M.E., and Reiche, B.S. (Eds.), *Advances in global leadership, Vol. 13*, Emerald Publishing Limited, pp. 129-172. https://doi.org/10.1108/S1535-120320200000013005

Paper 2

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Paper 3

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Our business environment has become unprecedently global and interconnected, resulting in greater volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (Buckley 2019). Despite recent polarization, this rapidly transforming environment creates demand for business and societal leaders able to solve complex tasks in a responsible way, leading and collaborating across national and cultural borders in both for-profit and nonprofit organizations. Studies suggest these leaders' work relates positively to organizations' economic, social, and environmental performance outcomes (Carter & Greer 2013; Voegtlin et al. 2012). However, the shortage of effective business and societal leaders has been recognized as a major obstacle facing locally and globally operating organizations in for-profit and nonprofit sectors (Bird & Mendenhall 2016; PwC 2017). Moreover, the current scholarly understanding of how leaders develop their leadership capabilities sufficiently to address these financial, social, and environmental challenges is limited (Day et al. 2021), further impeding organizational ability to develop leaders to meet demand. The extant empirical leadership development literature is nascent, and has mainly been exploring developmental methods such as formal training, mentoring, multi-source feedback, action learning, and job assignments (Avolio & Chan 2008). Research on coaching, despite the expeditious growth of coaching for leadership development in organizations, is just beginning to establish itself as an academic field, and the scholarly literature on coaching for leadership development is limited (Korotov 2016; Otter 2017). Moreover, it largely focuses on a traditional form of leadership development coaching namely executive coaching.

Executive coaching has been acknowledged as one of the major tools to develop leaders (De Haan et al. 2020; Mendenhall 2008; Otter 2017), and has become a mainstream human resource development practice in contemporary organizations (Bozer & Delegach 2019; Boyatzis et al. 2022). As a one-to-one personalized developmental intervention, offered to senior leaders by external coaches for professional and personal growth, executive coaching was the original type of coaching conducted to address leadership development needs in organizations. Its advantage lies in focusing on the concrete and real business and personal challenges leaders face, instead of the standardized content of training programs and workshops. Executive coaching can have different objectives and focus on developing skills, performance, or a leader's personal growth, depending on a leader's developmental needs (Hawkins & Smith 2014). Skills coaching aims to develop a specific skill, and performance coaching focuses on the development of the person in a specific domain, whereas developmental and transformational coaching have a broader remit to develop the person as a whole (King et al. 2020). The purpose of executive coaching has evolved from being a remedy for leader derailment into a strategic tool offered to high-potential employees globally for career advancement (Carey et al. 2011; Korotov 2016).

The effectiveness of executive coaching has been well-demonstrated in recent years through several meta-analyses (Jones et al. 2016; Sonesh et al. 2015; Theeboom et al. 2014) and empirical studies (e.g., Bozer & Jones 2018; De Haan & Nilsson 2023; Kotte

& Bozer 2022). They have acknowledged positive coaching effects at the individual learning and behavioral levels. However, few rigorous studies exist on coaching outcomes at the team or organizational levels (Athanasopoulou & Dopson 2018). Further, our current understanding of how coaching for leadership development works is limited, and the big question that remains is what are the critical success factors of coaching? (De Haan et al. 2020) Identifying the active ingredients of coaching (independent variables that significantly relate to coaching outcomes (De Haan et al. 2020) and exploring their joint effect is crucial to ensuring coaching efficiency.

The current research reveals multiple factors affecting coaching outcomes, including coach and coachee characteristics, coaching relationship, coaching process, and organizational context (Ely et al. 2010; Athanasopoulou & Dopson 2018). However, these coaching success factors are mostly coachee-related. We need to understand more about coach-related factors, and factors affecting the coaching relationship between coach and coachee (De Haan et al. 2020), as well as the relative contribution of those factors to coaching outcomes and their interaction effects (Ely et al. 2010).

Over time, the variety of coaching approaches to leadership development across organizations has evolved to include coachees at different leadership levels, in different organizational contexts, sectors, and geographical regions on a global scale, to involve groups of coachees, and to apply artificial intelligence (AI) in coaching. Beyond executive coaching, the most popular forms of coaching for leadership development in contemporary organizations include leadership coaching (see the definition on p.17) (Ely et al. 2010), managerial coaching (McCarthy & Milner 2013), workplace coaching (Bozer & Jones 2018), peer coaching (Hagen et al. 2017), cross-cultural coaching (Rosinski 2003), intercultural coaching (Barosa-Pereira 2014), team coaching (Jones et al. 2019), and artificial intelligence (AI) coaching (Graßmann & Schermuly 2021). However, these emerging forms are much understudied and require close scholarly attention.

The effectiveness of executive coaching in traditional hierarchical business organizations has been acknowledged (Jones et al. 2016). However, we know little on whether executive and other forms of coaching are effective in other organizational contexts, such as international development and nonprofit organizations (Watson 2020), self-managing organizations (Fey et al. 2022), SMEs (Gray et al. 2011), and startups (Kotte et al. 2021), all of which increased in importance in Finland and globally. What are the critical success coaching factors in these organizational contexts? Further, mainstream coaching research, largely focused on leaders in formal leadership roles, needs to take a broader look at coaching processes across different leadership levels in organizations, in a variety of organizational contexts, and explore various forms of coaching for leadership development. There is a dearth of studies on coaching leaders without formal leadership roles, and more conceptual and empirical work on the development of shared and collective leadership through coaching is needed (Lehtonen & Seeck 2022; Otter 2017).

1.2 Purpose and research questions

The overall aim of my doctoral research is to advance a scholarly understanding of coaching for leadership development by examining innovative coaching forms in emerging and little-studied organizational contexts. I pursue this through in-depth studies of two particular and contrasting forms of coaching for leadership development, namely intercultural leadership coaching and peer coaching. Both have a high potential for deployment across different organizational contexts. I study these two distinct coaching forms in emerging and/or little-studied organizational contexts that have increased in importance in Finland and globally, such as self-managing organizations, international development organizations, and international non-governmental organizations (INGOs). The term INGOs is used to refer to a broader international nonprofit sector (Brass et al. 2018) in this dissertation. My dissertation is therefore set to expand the landscape of coaching for leadership development beyond conventional coaching forms and organizational contexts.

The overall research question of my work is: *How does coaching enable leadership development in contemporary organizations in local and global contexts?*

The three papers that underpin my dissertation address this question as follows. First, to understand the role of coaching in developing leadership capabilities in contemporary organizations, I conceptualize leadership development from a learning perspective as a learning process. I systematically review the extant literature from 1998-2019 on global leader learning from international experience (IE) to identify the key enablers of learning, one of which is coaching, and the learning mechanisms of global leader learning from IE. The organizational context of the review is primarily a multinational corporation (MNC), reflecting the fact that global leader learning from IE has been studied mainly in that context. The review identifies the role of coaching in leader learning (and therefore leadership development) in general, going beyond the context of MNCs. The research question addressed by Paper 1 is:

1. *What are the key individual enablers, organizational enablers, and learning mechanisms of global leader learning from international experience?*

Paper 2 aims to answer the overall research question of my dissertation by studying a particular form of coaching for leadership development, intercultural leadership coaching, in the very much under-researched organizational context of international development organizations (e.g., the United Nations (UN) agencies) and INGOs, which are becoming more important in Finland and globally. This organizational context is characterized by the global nature of international development organizations and INGOs, the isolation and hardship of international assignments, and the cultural diversity of its leaders. It is important to understand which characteristics of coach and coachee affect coaching effectiveness in this little-studied organizational context. Therefore, the research question of Paper 2 is:

2. *What are the key success factors of intercultural leadership coaching in international development and nonprofit organizations?*

Paper 3 addresses the overall research question by studying another particular form of coaching, namely peer coaching, in the emerging and much under-researched organizational context that is the self-managing organization. The context is characterized by an absence of middle and line managers, by empowered employees with a high degree of autonomy, and by collective leadership. The proactivity and well-being of employees in self-managing organizations is a largely unexplored field. We need to understand the role of peer coaching in fostering employee proactivity and well-being, and how coaching processes unfold in this emerging organizational context. Therefore, the Paper 3 research question is:

3. *How does peer coaching enable employee proactivity and well-being in a self-managing organization?*

Overall, the three studies in this dissertation aim to explore how coaching enables leadership development through two innovative coaching forms, intercultural leadership coaching and peer coaching. I explore them in the under-studied contexts of international development organizations and INGOs, and the emerging context of a self-managing organization. Thus, my dissertation aims to advance scholarly understanding of how coaching enables leadership development beyond the mainstream forms of coaching and traditional organizational contexts. By studying coaching that engages everyone in the organization, coaching across different leadership levels in organizations, and across the globe, my dissertation contributes to more inclusive leadership development (Day et al. 2021) and inclusive coaching (Boyatzis et al. 2022).

This dissertation comprises five chapters: Introduction, Theoretical background, Research methodology, Summary of research papers, and Discussion & conclusions. The introduction briefly presents the research background, problematizes the researched phenomena, and introduces the research question. The chapter on theoretical background introduces the overall theoretical landscape of the dissertation, provides the reader with a theoretical review of each of the three papers, and specifies the research gaps and expected contributions. The research methodology section introduces the research design, research method, data collection, and data analysis approaches of each study. The chapter on results provides the reader with concise summaries of each paper, including the key findings and contributions of each to the specific literatures, and to the dissertation as a whole. Last, the discussion and conclusions sum up the key theoretical contributions of the dissertation, specify limitations, offer suggestions for future studies, and describe the main practical implications.

1.3 Structure of the dissertation

Table 1 Structure and overall contribution of the dissertation

Title	Advancing coaching for leadership development: Coaching as an enabler of learning and well-being in local and global organizations.		
Overall research question	How does coaching enable leadership development in contemporary organizations in local and global contexts?		
Papers	**Paper 1**	**Paper 2**	**Paper 3**
Purpose	Conceptualizing the process of global leader learning from international experience (IE)	Examining the role of coach's and coachee's individual CQ components in the effectiveness of intercultural leadership coaching in international development organizations and INGOs	Conceptualizing the process of peer coaching for enabling employee proactivity and well-being within a self-managing organization
Key words	Global leadership development, IE, learning process, learning mechanism	Intercultural leadership coaching, cultural intelligence (CQ), coachee learning, fsQCA	Peer coaching, employee proactivity, well-being, self-managing organization
Research question	What are the enablers of global leader learning from international experience?	What are the key success factors in intercultural leadership coaching in international development organizations and INGOs?	How does peer coaching enable employee proactivity and well-being in a self-managing organization?
Method	A systematic literature review, content analysis of 42 selected studies	A two-wave survey of 107 coaching dyads, using fsQCA and in-depth interviews with 8 coaches and coachees	Qualitative case study based on 26 semi-structured in-depth interviews, grounded theory approach
Main findings	Global leader learning process from IE is conceptualized as the interaction of individual and organizational enablers, and learning mechanisms	Metacognitive CQ and motivational CQ on the coach and coachee sides facilitate coachee learning; a relational view on CQ is suggested; compensatory mechanisms exist both intrapersonally and interpersonally	Coachee needs define the preferred focus and function of peer coaching engagement; multiple paths to employee well-being exist; peer coaching can substitute for middle managers;
Main contribution to this dissertation	Conceptualizing global leader development as a learning process from IE; identifying coaching as one of the key organizational enablers; topics for future studies	Explaining key success factors of intercultural leadership coaching in international development organizations and INGOs; establishing a relational view on CQ and intercultural competence	Explaining how peer coaching enables employee proactivity and well-being in a self-managing organization; peer coaching can substitute several functions of middle managers
Common contribution of the dissertation	Coaching is an organizational enabler of leader learning. Coaching enables leadership development through various coaching forms and in various organizational contexts beyond conventional coaching forms and organizational contexts. Intercultural leadership coaching and peer coaching contribute to more inclusive coaching for leadership development.		

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Leadership development in organizations

2.1.1 The emergence of leadership development

Leadership research plays an important role in social science, as leadership is essential for organizations and societies to function effectively (Antonakis & Day 2018). Leadership complements organizational systems (Katz & Kahn 1978); enhances the motivation, satisfaction, and effectiveness of employees (Bass 1990); directs organizations towards their strategic objectives; and enables organizations' alignment with the external environment (Zaccaro 2001). Spanning around one hundred years of academic research, leadership has become one of the most examined phenomena in social science (Bass 1990; Avolio et al. 2009; Antonakis & Day 2018). There is a multitude of definitions of leadership, reflecting its complex nature (Bass 1985). In this dissertation, leadership is defined as "*a formal or informal contextually rooted and goal-influencing process that occurs between a leader and a follower, groups of followers, or institutions*" (Antonakis & Day 2018, p.5).

Due to the strategic importance of leadership in modern organizations, leadership development is considered one of the top priorities for organizational investment (Day et al. 2008). It seeks to develop both individual leaders and the collective capacity for leadership in organizations (Day et al. 2021), and is "arguably one of the most important activities undertaken by human resource development professionals" (Callahan et al. 2007, p.146), and "the largest expense item in the overall training and development budget of the majority of business organizations in the US and many other countries around the world" (Ardichvili et al. 2016, p.275). While there are multiple definitions of leadership development, it is defined here as "*the process of preparing individuals and collectives effectively engage in leading-following interactions*" (DeRue & Myers 2014, p.835), and aims to address the major challenges organizations face (Megheirkouni & Mejheirkouni 2020). These challenges include both broader organizational issues such as "globalization, rapid technological innovation, political disruptions, and societal shifts" (McCauley & Palus 2021), and particular leadership challenges such as a lack of skills, individualized leadership, and unethical behaviors (Megheirkouni & Mejheirkouni 2020). However, the effectiveness of leadership development investment in organizations in corporate, nonprofit, and public sectors across the globe causes a significant concern (Beer et al. 2016; Pfeffer 2015) and many organizations struggle with their leadership development efforts (Day & Dragoni 2015).

Scholars point out several reasons for the suboptimal performance of some leadership development efforts, such as: lack of attention to organizational context and strategic aims of the organization (Gurdjian et al. 2014; McCauley & Palus 2021); lack of evaluation and measurement of leadership development distal outcomes; lack of attention to the central role of power relationships; over-use of competency models; and, excessive focus on individual leader development at the expense of team leadership development (Ruderman et al. 2014; McCauley & Palus 2021).

Further, leadership development is a nascent scholarly field that emerged at the end of the 20th century (Day et al. 2014), and current scholarly understanding is therefore limited. The work of Gardner (1990a, 1990b), Clark & Clark (1994), Brungardt (1996), McCauley et al. (1998), and Day (2000) represents the pioneering systematic study of leadership development, exploring whether leadership can in fact be developed and what type of interventions would be required. Although the leadership development literature is currently growing (Gardner et al. 2020), there are many unanswered and indeed undiscovered questions in the field (Day et al. 2014). "Part of the difficulty in leadership development research is that it requires melding one fuzzy construct (leadership) with something that is equally complex and nebulous (development)" (Day & Sin 2011, p. 546).

2.1.2 The evolution of leadership development approaches

The impact of leadership theory on leadership development approaches

Organizational approaches to leadership development are influenced by how leadership in organizations is understood (Boyatzis et al. 2006; Day 2000; Komives et al. 2009). The answers to the core leadership development questions are largely dependent on how leadership is conceptualized. These questions include: "Are leaders born or made? Do leaders develop? What develops in leadership development? How best to implement leadership development?" (Antonakis & Day 2018).

It is worth noting that scholarly understanding of leadership is not static over time. The nature of leadership, as is the case in any field in social science, evolves over time, with some leadership theories gaining momentum and others fading. This reflects a more comprehensive and transforming scholarly understanding of the leadership phenomena. The evolution of leadership thought is manifested in the existence of a wide range of leadership schools, where each embodies a distinct leadership paradigm and serves as an umbrella for a group of relevant theories (Antonakis & Day 2018). In turn, the advancement of leadership thought influences decisions on who participates in leadership development, when leadership development interventions occur, how leadership development processes are understood, which leadership development methods are applied, and which leadership development outcomes are pursued (Boyatzis et al. 2006; Pearce 2007; Megheirkouni & Mejheirkouni 2020). As leadership development is in the focus of this dissertation, I now present a brief overview of the core leadership schools and how they have influenced approaches to leadership development over time (Table 2).

Scholarly leadership research originated with *the trait leadership school* at the beginning of the 20th century, suggesting that certain traits differentiate leaders from non-leaders, with the assertion that leaders are born, not made, and hence leadership traits are innate and not malleable (House & Aditya 1997). The trait school, therefore, undermined the potential of leadership development impact, focusing instead on recruitment and selecting the "right leaders" with particular traits. This school of thought was followed by *the behavioral school*, which emerged in the middle of the 20th century and emphasized the range of behaviors or leadership styles pertinent for effective leaders in their interactions with the followers (Stogdill & Coons 1957). The supporters of this school

assumed that there are universal behaviors, actions, and styles that distinguish leaders from non-leaders. Leadership development based on the behavioral perspective suggests focusing on helping leaders develop the most relevant leadership styles through which they can enhance their leadership effectiveness, and hence performance (House & Aditya 1997).

Next, *the contingency and situational schools*, coming to prominence in the 1970s, questioned the universal effectiveness of particular leadership styles proposed by the behavioral school, and acknowledged the importance of situational variables in leadership. They emphasized that leadership effectiveness is contingent on the situation, and the effectiveness of a leadership style depends on certain demands presented by the situation, such as leader-member relations and task structure (Fiedler, 1967). Leadership development aligned with these schools' perspective suggests focusing on developing the diagnostic skills of the leaders, and the ability to adapt their leadership styles to the demands of the situations.

The new leadership school, highlighting the importance of transformational (Bass 1985) and charismatic (Conger & Kanungo 1988) leadership, gained momentum in the late 1970s. It brought focus on visionary, transformational, and charismatic leaders able to lead ordinary people to extraordinary performance. The leadership development approach within this leadership paradigm builds on enhancing leaders' interpersonal and communication skills. Emerging in the last quarter of the 20th century, the information processing perspective on leadership, studying how leader cognition affects leadership behaviors, gave rise to *the information processing leadership school* (Lord et al. 1984). This school's key assumption is that leadership starts in the eye of the beholder (Bresnen 1995), and a follower's tacit beliefs about leadership can influence how the leader's behavior is perceived (Smith & Foti 1998). The school describes a new angle on leadership development efforts, focusing on enhancing the leader's implicit theories of leadership, and thus placing more emphasis on developing a leader's self-awareness. Therefore, the above leadership schools, and influenced by them leadership development perspectives, largely focus on the individual leader's personality, skills and abilities, behavioral styles, and patterns of thinking. Newer perspectives on leadership development are shifting the focus away from a behavioral change to understanding the leader's and follower's cognition (Avolio & Chan 2008).

The relational leadership school emerged at the end of the 20th century, conceptualizing leadership as a relational process among individuals, and suggesting that leadership effectiveness is determined by the quality of leader-member exchanges (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995; Uhl-Bien 2006) Leadership development work influenced by the school is directed towards enhancing social capital in the organization (Otter 2017). The emergence of a relational leadership school contributed to differentiating between the concepts of *leader development* and *leadership development*, and facilitated the development of two distinct approaches to leadership development itself: the established leader-centered approach and emerging collective-centered approach (Day 2000; Day & Zacarro 2004) (see Table 2).

Table 2 Leadership approaches and assumptions for leadership development

Leadership approaches	*Description*	*Assumptions for leadership development*
Leader Development (Intrapersonal)		
Trait-based approach	Who are leaders? Are there traits that can distinguish leaders from non-leaders?	Enduring traits are identifiable but are not amenable for development.
Behavior-based approach	What do leaders do? What are the distinguishable styles and behaviors of leaders?	Development should focus on behaviors and styles. These behaviors can be learned, and are assumed to be useful across situations.
Contingency/ situational/ substitutes for leadership	What are the situations in which leaders matter?	Development should take situational factors into consideration. Development can mean modifying one's own style or allocating the right leader to the optimal leadership situation.
New leadership school/ transformational/ charismatic	What do leaders do to motivate and inspire followers?	Development should focus on developing interpersonal and communication skills.
Cognitive/ information processing	What are the ideas and implicit theories people have of what leaders are and how they ought to behave?	The better developed these ideas and implicit theories, the more impact they have on one's perceptions and behavior regarding leadership.
Leadership development (Interpersonal)		
Self-based/relational/ authentic leadership	What are the internal processes within the "black box" that underpins the leader, the leadership situation, and the process?	Development should focus on these social-psychological processes, not only within the leader but also within followers, as well as between leaders and followers.

Source: Adapted from Avolio & Chan, 2008, p.204

The established leader-centered approach to leadership development, *leader development*, views leadership as an individual-level skill that could be honed by developing primarily the individual leader's human capital, for example, knowledge, skills, and abilities (Day 2000). Leader development focuses on developing the human capital of an individual leader in a formal leadership role (Kjellström et al. 2020), and on the improvement of individual and organizational performance (Mabey 2013). The goal of leader development is to ensure that leaders are largely effective in their formal leadership roles (Day 2000).

The new, collective-centered paradigm for leadership development views leadership as a social process that involves everyone in the organization (Day 2000). It perceives leadership as an effect, not a cause as in a conventional leader-centered paradigm. This collective-centered paradigm suggests that a group of individuals jointly produces leadership at the organizational level (Kjellström et al. 2020), and, thus, emphasizes a greater focus on collective leadership development through "building networked relationships among individuals that enhance cooperation and resource exchange" (Day 2000 p.585). Leadership development from this perspective is defined as "expanding the collective's capacity of organizational members to engage effectively in leadership roles and processes in order to produce direction, alignment, and commitment" (Van Velsor et al. 2010 in Kjellström et al. 2020, p. 438). It is not a tool for achieving an organization's pre-determined strategic goals; instead, strategy conception is an outcome of a relational collective-centered process that enables strategy development in the first place (Buus 2005).

It is worth adding that while single studies likely focus on either leader development or leadership development, these two approaches are complimentary, and the preferred practice is "to link leader development with leadership development such that the development of leadership transcends, but does not replace the development of individual leaders" (Day 2000, p.605). My dissertation addresses leader development in Papers 1 and 2, and both leader and leadership development in Paper 3. However, the distinction between the terms leader development and leadership development is made only in the leadership literature, not in the coaching literature (Korotov 2016), which is in the core focus of this dissertation. Therefore, in this dissertation, I use the term *leadership development* to refer to both individual leader development and organizational leadership development, and to emphasize the focus of the dissertation on both leader and leadership development.

The impact of leadership development approaches on developmental methods

Based on the above overview, it is fair to conclude that a leadership theory, to a certain degree, by influencing assumptions for leadership development (Table 2) affects the choice of developmental methods for leadership development. For example, leadership development methods are not relevant to a trait-based approach emphasizing that leaders are born rather than made, and thus no developmental method is useful from that perspective. The behavioral school perspective implies limitations to the usefulness of developmental interventions, as the core attention is on the formal short-term training (Day et al. 2014). Further, with the change of organizational environment and transforming demands to their leaders, approaches to leadership, and consequently to leadership development evolve, and the developmental methods employed to develop leaders advance. With the enhanced complexity of leadership development needs, for example, an increased focus on developing leaders' cognitive abilities, interpersonal and communication skills, and leader self-awareness, developmental methods expand to include action learning, multi-source feedback, mentoring, coaching, and job assignments (Avolio & Chan 2008).

The impact of developmental psychology on leadership development approaches

As discussed earlier, the manner in which we approach leadership development depends to a certain degree on our concept of leadership (Boyatzis et al. 2006). Leadership development concepts, informed by leadership theories, could be more useful to guide short-term leadership development initiatives, and facilitate short-term leadership outcomes such as enhancing knowledge, skills, abilities, self-knowledge, and self-efficacy (Day et al. 2021). However, with the expansion of the focus of leadership development initiatives to embrace the long-term developmental outcomes associated with lasting growth and change, a deeper understanding of human development is needed. In this broader developmental context, leadership development cannot be comprehensively explained by a particular leadership theory (Day et al. 2014) or a leadership paradigm alone, because human development consists of a complex set of processes, and individual leader development takes place in the context of continuing adult development (Day et al. 2008). Therefore, theoretical influences from developmental psychology in general, and adult development in particular, have been important in advancing the leadership development field. These human development approaches go beyond a focus on observable behaviors, skills, and competences as core purposes of leadership development, and emphasize the importance of giving attention to mental models and knowledge structures, and the deeper regulatory processes important for successful adult development (Day & Sin 2011). Hence, based on an adult development perspective, the nature of leadership development is multilevel and longitudinal (Day 2011). Therefore, to be able to guide a leader's complex learning, a conceptualization of leadership development should take into consideration the multilevel and longitudinal nature of leadership development processes, and reflect ongoing broader human developmental processes (Day et al. 2014). The above approaches, adopting a lifespan view on leadership development, clearly emphasize customized, individualized, and long-term methods of leadership development. Coaching is one of the developmental methods well aligned with the objectives of adult development, and has thus become one of pervasive methods to develop leaders (Day et al. 2014).

2.1.3 Leadership development as a learning process

"Most of what leaders have that enables them to lead is learned"
Gardner, J (1990 b, p.xix)

Scholars have viewed leadership development through several theoretical lenses, including cognitive, learning, personality traits, social/relational, cultural, and political (Vijayakumar et al. 2018), or through an identity lens Guillen et al. (2015). The learning perspective on leadership development aligns well with the coaching approach to leadership development, since learning is a natural outcome of coaching interventions (Hurlow 2022). Therefore, in line with the learning perspective, in this dissertation we associate the leadership development process with leader learning.

The initial choice of a learning lens is explained by the focus of the first study – a literature review of how global leaders develop. Global leadership development is an increasingly important type of leadership development (Osland et al. 2017), and the field has acknowledged international experience (IE) as one of the most effective

developmental methods for developing global leaders (Mendenhall 2008). However, scholars admit that IE does not automatically result in enhanced global leader competencies, unless there is learning from experience (Li et al. 2013). Several learning theories, therefore, have been applied in the field of global leader development, including Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) (Kolb 1984); Social Learning Theory (SLT) (Bandura 1977); and TLT (Mezirow 1978). While the majority of the field applies ELT theory, emphasizing the process of learning from experience, TLT explains both the process of learning and a qualitatively new outcome – transformational learning. Therefore, in line with the learning perspective and processual view of TLT, I define leadership development as a leader learning process from IE, and conceptualize it in the study in the Key Elements of Global Leader Learning model (KEGLL) as a combination of individual enablers, organizational enablers, and key learning mechanisms of global leaders (Fey 2020).

Leadership development is still in its nascent form and multiple research opportunities exist in the streams of both leader and leadership development. The leader development literature would benefit from a more comprehensive conceptualization of the leader development process, for example through incorporating theories of adult development (Day et al. 2021). The first paper of my dissertation (hereinafter Paper 1) addresses this research need by applying transformational learning theory (Mezirow 1978). Further, there is a pressing need to explicate how leadership capabilities develop through different developmental methods, including structured interventions such as coaching (Conger 1993), and through experience (McCall 2010). In relation to experience as the primary source of leadership development, there is a need to examine under which conditions could experience be turned into the acquisition of new capabilities? How important is coaching in the process? (Day et al. 2021). Paper 1 answers the first question by synthesizing the conditions for turning global leaders' experiences into global leader learning, and sheds light on the second question by indicating the role of coaching in turning experiences into the acquisition of new capabilities. In relation to coaching as an independent intervention, there is a need to examine how coaching works in contemporary and unexplored organizational contexts (Bozer & Delegach 2019). Papers 2 and 3 answer this question. Further, the leadership development literature mainly lacks theories on collective leadership development (Day et al. 2021). Paper 3 partially answers this question.

2.2 Coaching for leadership development in organizations

2.2.1 The emergence of coaching for leadership development

Over the past two decades, a growing number of organizations have established coaching as an effective developmental opportunity for their employees (Boyatzis et al. 2022). Coaching facilitates individual and organizational learning through one-to-one conversations, and increases employee engagement by addressing the whole person's needs (De Haan et al. 2020). Although there are multiple definitions of coaching, most emphasize the importance of confidential partnering between a skilled coach and a willing coachee through the medium of dialogue and continuous feedback, aiming to maximize personal and professional potential (Grant 2006). Core features of coaching include the formation and maintenance of a coaching relationship, a formally defined

coaching agreement, the fulfilment of that agreement, and striving for the coachee's growth (Bono et al. 2009; Smither 2011). Increasingly, the importance of triangular coach-coachee-organization coaching relationships is gaining emphasis in coaching research (Lai & Smith 2021; Kotte & Bozer 2022).

Coaching shares some similarities with but is also different from other helping professions, such as mentoring, training, consulting, and therapy (Hastings & Kane 2018). Mentoring involves a less structured one-to-one long-term developmental relationship between a less experienced mentee and more experienced mentor, with the goal of personal and professional development (Eby 1997). Training is a structured and systematic process that enhances the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and attitudes by a trainee through instruction, practice, and feedback (Salas et al. 2012). Consulting concerns giving more prescriptive expert advice to a client, suggesting a ready solution, and dealing with business data and procedures (Bluckert 2005). Therapy aims to reveal the roots of emotional distress, and assist clients in developing more effective ways to address that distress (Williams 2003).

Core theoretical perspectives informing coaching techniques include a humanistic/person-centered approach, behavioral coaching, cognitive-behavioral approach, psychodynamic, motivational interviewing, the gestalt/systemic approach, narrative, and positive psychology (Feldman & Lankau 2005; Stokes & Jolly 2014). Theories of coaching aim to explain coaching processes and outcomes, how behavioral change happens in an individual, and how it can be sustained. Commonly, coaches combine several approaches in their coaching practice. There is a distinct difference between the engagement levels required from a coach and a coachee engaged in skills coaching (which could be more of a didactic process) vs. transformational coaching (which requires the coach to examine underlying beliefs, thinking patterns, and attitudes of the coachee) (Hawkins & Smith 2014; O'Broin & Palmer 2009).

Over the past decades coaching in organizations has become a global phenomenon (Abbott et al. 2013). Around 70,000 organizational coaches provide coaching services in more than 120 countries on five continents (ICF 2020). The estimated global revenue from coaching in 2019 was $2.9 billion USD. Key emerging growth regions include Latin America and the Caribbean, Eastern Europe, the Middle East, and Africa (ICF 2020).

As the key focus of this dissertation is coaching for leadership development in organizations, I now focus my attention more narrowly on discussing coaching from a leadership development perspective in organizations. Originated from executive coaching offered exclusively to senior leaders in organizations, coaching for leadership development in contemporary organizations is becoming more inclusive and takes multiple forms, including leadership coaching (Ely et al. 2010), workplace coaching (Bozer & Jones 2018), peer coaching (Hagen et al. 2017), managerial coaching (McCarthy & Milner 2013), team coaching (Jones et al. 2019), cross-cultural coaching (Rosinski 2003), intercultural coaching (Barosa-Pereira 2014), and AI coaching (Graßmann & Schermuly 2021). Among them, executive coaching, leadership coaching, and workplace coaching are the most common coaching forms in contemporary organizations. Although the terms executive, leadership, and workplace coaching are often used interchangeably (Bozer & Jones 2018; Nicolau et al. 2023) in this dissertation, with a particular focus on

leadership development through coaching, I differentiate between the above coaching forms in order to study them in greater depth. In particular, I refer to *executive coaching* as coaching of senior leaders in organizations, provided by external coaches (Feldman & Lankau 2005) (for a detailed definition, see p.17); *leadership coaching* as coaching of leaders at all organizational levels, provided by external or internal coaches (Ely et al., 2010) (for a detailed definition, see p.17); and *workplace coaching* as coaching for all levels of employee, provided by coaching practitioners who do not have formal supervisory authority over the coachee, thus excluding managerial and peer coaching (Bozer & Jones 2018). *Coaching in organizations* is an umbrella term I use to include also peer and managerial coaching, and emphasize the impact of organizational context on coaching. In the following, I provide a more-in-depth review of the forms of coaching for leadership development that inform my dissertation: executive coaching, leadership coaching, cross-cultural executive coaching, intercultural leadership coaching, and peer coaching.

2.2.2 Executive and leadership coaching

As coaching entered organizations via the top management levels, "*executive coaching*" has been and currently is a more frequently used term to address coaching activities with executives from middle management upwards, whose work is characterized by significant responsibility for organizational performance (Athanasopoulou & Dopson 2018; Baron & Morin 2009; Bozer, Joo, & Santora 2015; De Haan & Duckworth 2013; Maltbia et al. 2014). Executive coaching is defined in this dissertation as *"a one-on-one tailored learning and developmental intervention" for senior organizational leaders, provided by external coaches, "that uses a collaborative, reflective, goal-focused relationship to develop and maintain positive change in personal development and leadership behavior leading to the achievement of professional outcomes"* (adapted from Halliwell et al. 2022, p.40). However, over time, as coaching increasingly targets leaders at all organizational levels, the term "*leadership coaching*" is becoming more common among scholars, but currently has several different connotations in the coaching literature. It is most commonly used interchangeably with "*executive coaching*" (Ely et al. 2010; Korotov 2016; Maltbia et al. 2014); to indicate coaching of leaders at all organizational levels (e.g., Ely et al. 2010; Grover & Furnham 2016; Halliwell et al. 2022; Korotov 2016, Stokes & Jolly 2014; Taylor et al. 2019); to differentiate between coaching of senior leaders on personal issues vs. leadership issues (Ladegard & Gjerde 2014); and to indicate coaching for developing collective leadership in organizations (Otter, 2017).

In this dissertation, I follow Taylor and colleagues (2019) and distinguish between executive and leadership coaching. Similarly to the definition of executive coaching, I draw on Halliwell et al. (2022, p.40), but define leadership coaching as *"a one-on-one tailored learning and developmental intervention" for leaders at all organizational levels, provided by either external or internal coaches, "that uses a collaborative, reflective, goal-focused relationship to develop and maintain positive change in personal development and leadership behavior leading to the achievement of professional outcomes"*. Although most of the concepts are similar between these two definitions, the core difference regarding leadership coaching in this dissertation is the emphasis on coaching leaders at all organizational levels, using either external or internal

coaches, while executive coaching more narrowly implies the coaching of senior leaders by external coaches.

I suggest that it is important to pay attention to both distinctions. First, leadership roles at different levels differ (Otter 2017), and executive coaching concerns senior leaders who usually lead other leaders (Grant et al. 2009), while leadership coaching concerns leaders who lead both leaders and employees (Ladegard & Gjerde 2014). Second, the coaching processes provided by external and internal leadership coaches could differ due to length, intensity, impact of organizational factors, and other factors. This could lead to different coaching outcomes. In particular, the coach – coachee - organization triangular coaching relationship is gaining increased attention among scholars (Lai & Smith 2021; Kotte & Bozer 2022), and may differ in executive and leadership coaching. For example, a triad of an executive external coach - executive coachee - an organization would likely differ from a triad of a leadership internal coach - line manager - an organization due to different identities, goals, and power dynamics involved (Lai & Smith 2021).

However, currently, we know little about how similar/different coaching processes for senior leaders vs. leaders at other levels are, as there is a dearth of comparative studies. One perspective is to assume that coaching processes in executive coaching, leadership coaching, and business coaching are generalizable, and could be studied under the umbrella of workplace coaching (Bozer & Delegach 2019). However, the use of the distinct term leadership coaching allows us to emphasize an expansion of coaching in organizations to all leadership levels. Further, similarly to the distinct literature streams on top-management teams vs. teams, executive coaching and leadership coaching could evolve as neighboring streams of literature that share many similar concepts but have their own nuanced agenda. Future research, therefore, needs to examine the core similarities and differences between executive and leadership coaching in greater detail. Then, based on conceptual frameworks and empirical evidence, coaching scholars could more convincingly conclude whether to continue using the terms executive and leadership interchangeably, merge them under the umbrella of leadership/workplace coaching, or approach them as different forms of coaching.

Most coaching scholars have to date treated executive and leadership coaching interchangeably, so existing empirical evidence on coaching outcomes and coaching success factors does not allow us to differentiate between the findings for executive vs. leadership coaching.

Outcomes in executive and leadership coaching

Executive coaching effectiveness research originated three decades ago and comprises large-scale cross-sectional and randomized control trials (De Haan et al. 2020). This research identifies three main categories of positive outcomes from executive coaching: outcomes for coachee, coach, and organization. The extant literature on coachee's outcomes is the most developed and provides evidence for coachees' proximal (e.g., affective and cognitive outcomes) and distal outcomes (e.g., results) (Joo 2005; Jones et al. 2016). For example, the meta-analysis by Theebom et al. (2014) on executive and workplace coaching showed that coaching intervention produced a significant positive impact on coachee proximal outcomes, such as well-being, coping, attitudes, and self-

regulation (effect size from 0.43 for coping and 0.73 for self-regulation), as well as on distal outcomes such as coachee performance. Further, among the key individual outcomes, executive coaching has a significant positive effect on the coachee's self-efficacy (Baron & Morin 2009); job satisfaction (Kim et al. 2013); self-awareness and work satisfaction (Luthans & Peterson 2003); goal attainment (Spence 2007); individual performance (Smither et al., 2003); and leadership skills (Smith & Brummel 2013).

The most common coaching outcomes explored at the organizational level include the coachee's transformational leadership, managerial behavior, and performance rated by others, however with mixed results. Further, the studies found a positive impact of coaching on subordinates' satisfaction and organizational commitment (Luthans & Peterson 2003), and turnover intentions (Luthans & Peterson 2003; Ladegard & Gjerde 2014). Additionally, the review by Athanasopoulou & Dopson (2018), based on 84 studies, found indirect positive organizational effects from coaching, through increased employee satisfaction, productivity, and leadership effectiveness. More studies are needed to examine distal outcomes of coaching at the organizational level, such as subordinates' satisfaction, retention, performance, and the impact of coaching on team and organizational cultures.

Critical success factors in executive and leadership coaching

While the effectiveness of executive coaching has been well-demonstrated in recent years, with the help of several meta-analyses (Jones et al. 2016; Sonesh et al. 2015; Theeboom et al. 2014), De Haan et al. (2020) highlighted the remaining big question, that is, what are the critical success factors of coaching? Identifying the active ingredients of coaching (independent variables that significantly relate to coaching outcomes) and exploring their joint effect is crucial to ensure executive and leadership coaching efficiency (Ely et al. 2010). Unfortunately, our current understanding of how executive coaching works is limited, since the focus of executive coaching research has only recently shifted from examining whether the coaching is effective to identifying the key active ingredients of executive coaching.

The current research reveals multiple factors affecting executive coaching outcomes, including coach and a coachee characteristics, the coaching relationship, coaching process, and the organization (Ely et al. 2010; Athanasopoulou & Dopson 2018). Coaching relationship was found to be the most consistent predictor of coaching outcomes among identified outcomes (Baron & Morin 2009; Bozer, Joo, & Santora 2015; Sonesh et al. 2015). The terms coaching relationship and working alliance are used interchangeably in the coaching literature. A recent meta-analysis on the effect of the coaching relationship on the coaching outcome, conducted by Graßmann and colleagues (2020), showed all desirable coaching outcomes have an effect size of 0.32 to 0.64 for these relationships. In particular, coaching relationship have the strongest effect on affective and cognitive coaching outcomes.

Additional critical success factors of coaching include the coachee's resilience (De Haan et al. 2020), self-efficacy (De Haan & Duckworth 2013), psychological well-being (Bryson et al. 2017), hopes and expectations (De Haan et al. 2020), and openness (Stewart et al. 2008). These coaching success factors are predominantly coachee-related, and we need

to understand more about factors related to coaches and that affect the coaching relationship between coach and coachee (De Haan et al. 2020). We also need to examine the effects and understand the relative contribution of these predictors to coaching outcomes (Ely et al. 2010). Further, it would be useful to disentangle whether and how coaching processes differ for leaders at different organizational levels, in different industries and sectors, and across countries.

2.2.3 Cross-cultural executive coaching

Cross-cultural coaching is coaching with people who work in an international context or who have a different cultural background to the coach (Rosinski 2003). This type of coaching requires a coach to possess "greater cross-cultural awareness, multicultural knowledge, and increased understanding of own cultural biases" (Handin & Steinwedel 2006, p.20), and brings considerable potential to coaching work. "By integrating the cultural dimension, coaching will unleash more human potential to achieve meaningful objectives", and thus "enriched with coaching, intercultural professionals will be better equipped to fulfill their commitment to extend people's world views, bridge cultural gaps, and enable successful work across cultures" (Rosinski 2003, p. xviii). Culture in cross-cultural coaching is understood broadly as a set of beliefs, conventions, customs, social norms, and behaviors that distinguish its members from another group (Rosinski 2003). Rosinski's work (2003) pioneered and significantly contributed to integrating a cross-cultural perspective into coaching.

Several other cross-cultural coaching frameworks inform the extant cross-cultural coaching literature, for example, Lindsey et al. (2007), Peterson (2007), Passmore & Law (2009), Coultas et al. (2011), and Plaister-Ten (2013). These frameworks pursue two purposes: 1) mapping cultural differences and values across cultures, and 2) evaluating and helping coaches advance their level of cultural sensitivity in coaching. These frameworks are grounded in intercultural management theories developed by Hall (1976), Hofstede (1980), Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars (1997), and House et al. (2004), and/or based on the models of cultural sensitivity, such as Bennett & Bennett (1993), and Earley & Ang (2003). The above conceptual frameworks have created useful foundations for the cross-cultural coaching literature. Additional exogenous theories applied to cross-cultural coaching include Kegan's constructive developmental theory (Wilson 2013), Wilber's integral theory and career capital (Salomaa 2017), Demi & Ryan's self-determination theory (De Araujo 2021), and Blau's social exchange theory (the second paper of this dissertation).

Coaching entered organizations in the form of executive coaching and was initially directed toward senior executives. Therefore, the empirical cross-cultural coaching literature, particularly earlier work in the field, is to a large extent based on studying executives, although that is often not explicitly stated by the authors. Therefore, the terms *cross-cultural coaching* and *cross-cultural executive coaching* are often used interchangeably in the literature. I will discuss this later in this section.

The extant cross-cultural coaching research conducted in the last the two decades (2003-2023) could generally be classified into five streams (Table 3).

Table 3 Evolution of cross-cultural coaching research

	Evolution of cross-cultural coaching	
1	**Coaching on cross-cultural issues/cross-cultural coaching** (2003-)	Conceptual: Rosinski (2003), Jenkins (2006), Peterson (2007), Plaister-Ten (2018), Abbott (2010), Abbott et al. (2013), Booysen (2015), Abbott & Salomaa (2016) Empirical: Plaister-Ten (2009)
	Application 1a: Coaching in MNCs and expatriate coaching	Conceptual: Miser & Miser (2009) Empirical: Abbott (2006), Herzboilheimer (2009), McGill (2010), Salomaa (2015; 2017)
	Application 1b: Coaching of global leaders and careerists *	Conceptual: Fey (2020) – dissertation Paper 1 Empirical: Salomaa & Mäkela (2017); Salomaa (2018)
2	**Coaching with coachee from different cultural background/intercultural coaching** (2003-) *	Conceptual: Rosinski (2003), Barosa-Pereira (2014), Van Nieuwerburgh (2016) Empirical: Milner et al. (2013), King & Van Nieuwerburgh (2020)
	Application 2a: Intercultural executive coaching	Conceptual: Handin & Steinwedel (2006), Coultas et al. (2011) Empirical: Plaister-Ten (2013)
	Application 2b: Intercultural leadership coaching	Conceptual: Jenkin (2006) Empirical: Roth (2017), De Araujo (2021), Fey et al. (2023) – dissertation Paper 2
	Application 2c: Intercultural managerial coaching	Conceptual: Filsinger (2014)
	Application 2d: Intercultural team coaching	Conceptual: Curry (2015) Empirical: Couch &Rose (2020)
	Application 2e: Interracial coaching	Conceptual: Passmore & Law (2009), Roche & Passmore (2021)
3	**Cultural sensitivity in coaching** (2006-)	*Coach's cultural skills as a predictor:* Conceptual: Coultas et al. (2011), Barosa-Pereira (2014), Van Nieuwerburgh (2016) Empirical: Plaister-Ten (2009); Carr & Seto (2013), Roth (2017) *Coachee's cultural skills as an outcome:* Conceptual: Handin & Steinweden (2006)
	Application 3a**:** The role of cultural intelligence (CQ) in cross-cultural and intercultural coaching*	*Coach's CQ as a predictor:* Empirical: Abbott (2006), Couch & Rose (2020), Fey et al. (2023) – dissertation Paper 2 *coachee's CQ as an outcome:* Conceptual: Abbott et al (2013); Booysen (2015), Van der Horst & Albertyn (2018) Empirical: Abbott (2006) *Coachee's CQ as a predictor:* Empirical: Fey et al. (2023) –Paper 2
4	**Global coaching for org. development** (2007-)	Empirical: Abbott & Rosinski (2007), Rosinski (2011)
5	**Coaching in different geographical regions** (2010-)	Empirical: Asia: De Vries et al. (2010), Woo (2011); Gan & Chong (2015), Chatwani (2015); Middle East: Noer (2005), Mattar et al. (2018); Africa: Geber & Keane (2013); comparative: Ye et al. (2016)

Note: *Application 1b relates to Paper 1, 2b & 3a relate to Paper 2*

Below, I briefly review their development over time to represent the key studies in the cross-cultural coaching literature but not systematically map the field. The first and central stream in the cross-cultural coaching research addresses coaching on cross-cultural issues, and was initially explored by Philip Rosinski in 2003. It concerns integrating the cultural dimension into coaching, challenges in cross-cultural coaching, the impact of culture on coaching, and the importance of cultural sensitivity of coaches. It has two contextual applications: 1a) coaching in MNCs and expatriate coaching, and 1b) coaching of global leaders. The latter is relevant to Paper 1 of this dissertation. Studies on these applications concern the impact of coaching on expatriates' acculturation, performance, and career capital; coaching success factors from the perspectives of a coach, a coachee, and HR; and, the role of coaching for global leaders.

The second stream of literature originated simultaneously with the first in 2003, also through the work of Rosinski (2003). It focuses on coaching where the coach and coachee come from different cultural backgrounds, and is defined in this dissertation as intercultural coaching (Barosa-Pereira 2014). The third stream addresses the role of cultural skills in cross-cultural/intercultural coaching, and is predominantly concerned with how a coach's own cultural lens and cultural skills impact cross-cultural coaching. These two streams are especially relevant to the second paper of this dissertation (hereinafter Paper 2) and, thus, will be reviewed in more detail in the following section on intercultural leadership coaching. Next, the fourth stream is one of the least developed, concerned with the impact of cross-cultural coaching on organizational-level outcomes. As coaching research, in general, has mainly focused on the effects of coaching on individual-level outcomes, the limited attention given by scholars to this stream is not desirable but understandable. Thus, more research focusing on organizational-level outcomes will benefit this stream. The fifth and final stream of cross-cultural coaching research originated around 2010 and has since been actively emerging. It focuses on coaching in particular regions, including Asia, the Middle East, and Africa, and takes in comparative studies on coaching approaches across cultures. It is mainly informed by empirical studies and could benefit from more conceptual work.

Overall, most cross-cultural coaching research takes an "essentialist" view on culture, assuming its deterministic influence in coaching (Roth 2017), and focuses on a static and dimensional cultural profiling approach and the content of culture. Although cultural orientations help coaches understand the phenomena of culture, coaches should be careful not to stereotype individuals (Abbott & Rosinski 2007). Individuals are only partly defined by their culture, and each coachee is unique (Barosa-Pereira 2014). To date, little research has taken an "interactionist" view on culture, defining culture as a subjectively interpreted concept in coaching, and suggesting that the impact of culture in coaching depends on coaches' individual cultural frames (Verhulst & Sprengel 2008; Maeker 2017; Roth 2017). More research in this paradigm would benefit the cross-cultural coaching field. Further research is also needed to understand how to transform cultural experience and knowledge into culturally appropriate behavior in coaching (Van der Horst & Albertyn 2018).

The field of cross-cultural coaching research is currently subject to conceptual ambiguity. The terms *cross-cultural, intercultural, multicultural, international*, and *global*

coaching are often used interchangeably in cross-cultural coaching (Salomaa 2017) to indicate coaching on cross-cultural issues or coaching with coach and coachee from different cultural backgrounds. The terms *cross-cultural* and *intercultural* are the most frequently used. The extant cross-cultural literature currently does not clearly emphasize conceptual differences between the two applications of cross-cultural coaching (Abbott et al. 2013): (1) coaching on cultural issues with a coach and coachee from similar cultural backgrounds and (2) coaching on various issues with coach and coachee from different cultural backgrounds. A dearth of comparative studies exists. As a result, empirical findings from one application are currently assumed to be relevant for another. However, this might not be the case as the coaching processes in these two applications could differ in nature and, thus, could require different antecedents and lead to different coaching outcomes.

For example, the role of coach and coachee's cultural intelligence (CQ) in intercultural coaching may be more decisive on the coaching outcomes than in coaching on cross-cultural issues where the coach and coachee have a similar cultural background. Similarly, other streams of management literature distinguish between monocultural and intercultural processes, including literature streams on teams vs. multicultural teams (Rockstuhl & Ng 2015), mentoring vs. intercultural mentoring (Osula & Irvin, 2009), and leadership vs. global leadership (Bird et al. 2010). As the cross-cultural coaching and intercultural coaching literatures are growing, it might be the right time to start to clearly differentiate conceptually between these two forms of coaching to advance theory and practice. Therefore, this dissertation calls for more research on identifying conceptual similarities and differences between the processes of coaching on cross-cultural issues vs. coaching with a coach and coachee from different cultural backgrounds. Based on the above, in this dissertation, I use the term *cross-cultural coaching* for coaching on cross-cultural issues with a coach and coachee with similar cultural backgrounds, while *intercultural coaching* denotes coaching on various issues (including cross-cultural issues) with a coach and coachee representing different cultural backgrounds. The next section discusses the literature on intercultural leadership coaching, informing Paper 2.

2.2.4 Intercultural leadership coaching

Intercultural leadership coaching is an emerging and increasingly important type of cross-cultural coaching that involves a coach and a coachee in a leadership position, from different cultures (Figure 1). Increasing ethnic diversity in local and global organizations and the growth of leadership coaching practice provide opportunities for intercultural coaching (Roth 2017; Bozer & Delegach 2019). Increasingly, coaches may work with individuals whose cultural background is different to their own, and whose identity has been developed in different environments (Thomas 2008). Intercultural leadership coaching harbors great potential to develop the leaders in organizations through their exposure to different viewpoints and cultural perspectives (Carr & Seto 2013). However, greater complexity arises from working with cultural differences (Fang et al. 2018). Different cultures emphasize different aspects of coaching (Couch & Rose 2020). To succeed in intercultural coaching, a coach should be endowed with cultural sensitivity and higher levels of multicultural skills than in monocultural settings (Abbott &

MacFarlane 2008; Rosinski 2003, 2010; Plaister-Ten 2009), in order to understand and relate well to the challenges of coachees representing diverse cultural backgrounds. In particular, the coach needs the skills to correctly interpret culturally unfamiliar behaviors and understand a coachee's cultural background (Couch & Rose 2020). Therefore, a coach's intercultural skills are essential to adding maximum value to their coaching in culturally diverse settings (Rosinski 2003; 2010; Plaister-Ten 2009, Abbott & Salomaa 2016).

Overall, the extant literature on intercultural coaching (Table 3, second stream) is concerned with critical incidents occurring in intercultural coaching (Milner et al. 2013), the role of culture (Rosinski 2003; Van Nieuwerburgh 2016), and the role of a coach's cultural skills (Barosa-Pereira 2014). With a growing coaching practice involving coaching dyads with a coach and coachee from different cultural backgrounds, this stream is on the ascent. Its contextual applications (Table 3) include: 2a) intercultural executive coaching; 2b) intercultural leadership coaching; 2c) intercultural managerial coaching; 2d) intercultural team coaching; and 2e) interracial coaching.

Application (2b) 'intercultural leadership coaching' is the most relevant for Paper 2. Studies on the five contextual applications are more focused on a particular context. For example, the intercultural executive coaching sub-stream elaborates on the coaching model to develop the cross-cultural skills of global leaders (e.g., Handin & Steinwedel 2006), and explore how culture affects leaders' motivational needs in coaching (Coultas et al. 2011). The intercultural leadership coaching sub-stream explores whether coaching a leader with a different cultural background impacts the coaching process (Roth 2017), and the critical success factors of intercultural leadership coaching (Paper 2). The intercultural managerial coaching (Filsinger 2014) and intercultural team coaching (Couch & Rose 2020) streams have started to explore coaches' skills. Finally, interracial coaching concerns how executive coaching could help develop more inclusive organizational cultures (Roche & Passmore 2021).

All five applications have been subject to limited research, and the few extant studies are mainly conceptual. With only six empirical qualitative studies and one quantitative study in this stream, it will benefit from more conceptual and empirical research, both quantitative and qualitative. In Paper 2 and in this dissertation, based on Barosa-Pereira (2014) and Ladegard & Gjerde (2014), I distinguish between intercultural and cross-cultural coaching and between leadership and executive coaching (Figure 1). Since Paper 2 builds on the assumptions of the importance of the coach's and coachee's cultural sensitivity in coaching, I pay particular attention to this aspect in the following review of the cross-cultural coaching literature.

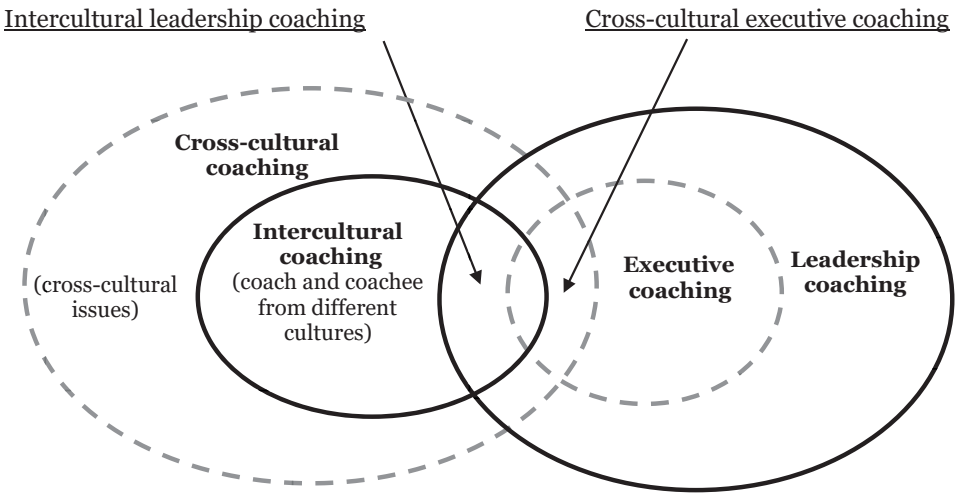


Figure 1 Positioning intercultural leadership coaching

The role of cultural intelligence in intercultural leadership coaching

Several concepts of cultural sensitivity have been applied in the intercultural coaching literature, such as cultural awareness (Carr & Seto 2013; Plaister-Ten 2013), and cultural agility (Booysen 2015). However, the concept of cultural intelligence (CQ) (Earley & Ang 2003), defined as an individual's capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings (Ang & Van Dyne 2008), is the most rigorously conceptualized, operationalized, and globally tested concept of intercultural sensitivity (Leung et al. 2014; Fang et al. 2018). CQ is frequently applied in the IB and management literatures (Leung et al. 2014; Andresen & Bergdolt 2017; Lorenz et al. 2018), multicultural teams (Rockstuhl & Ng 2015; Chen & Lin 2013), global virtual teams (Li et al. 2017), expatriates' adjustment and performance (Chao et al. 2017), and international negotiation (Imai & Gelfand 2010). Since I applied CQ in Paper 2, I will discuss this concept and its applications in the cross-cultural and intercultural coaching literatures in more detail.

CQ is a multidimensional concept that includes metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral dimensions (Ang & Dyne 2008). According to Ang and Van Dyne (2008), metacognitive CQ refers to an individual's cultural consciousness and awareness during interactions with people from different cultural backgrounds. Cognitive CQ refers to an individual's cultural knowledge of norms, conventions, and practices in different cultural settings. Motivational CQ indicates an individual's capability to direct attention and energy toward cultural differences. Finally, behavioral CQ refers to an individual's capability to exhibit appropriate verbal and nonverbal behaviors when interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008, p.3).

Abbott (2006), in his doctoral dissertation, was the first to emphasize the particular importance of CQ to coaches in a multicultural business environment, while Abbott (2006), Booysen (2015), and Horst and Albertyn (2018) were the first to study coachees'

CQ as an outcome in cross-cultural coaching. Interestingly, there is limited empirical literature focused either on the coach's CQ as a predictor of coaching outcomes (Abbott 2006, Couch & Rose 2020, Paper 2 of this dissertation), or the coachee's CQ as an outcome (Abbott 2006). To the best of the authors' knowledge, Paper 2 is the first study to examine the role of coachee CQ as a predictor of coaching outcomes, and also doing so quantitatively. Further, interestingly, the existing studies (except Couch & Rose (2020), and Paper 2) do not distinguish between the role of CQ in cross-cultural vs. intercultural coaching. However, in my view, coach CQ and coachee CQ could play different roles in monocultural coaching on cross-cultural issues vs. in intercultural coaching. For example, research on CQ in multicultural teams shows that CQ is important to multicultural teams' outcomes but not to those of monocultural teams (Eberz et al. 2020). Thus, instead of just assuming the similarity of the roles, future research needs to explore this gap in the literature.

Finally, the CQ literature has emphasized the need to study the effects of single CQ components on outcomes in greater depth (Leung et al. 2014, Ng et al. 2012; Schlaegel et al. 2021), to study the interplay between CQ components (Richter et al. 2020; Gelfand et al. 2015), and to examine how CQ interacts with other factors (Gelfand et al. 2008). The extant empirical literature has to date focused on the overall CQ component. Paper 2 is the first to examine the role of the coach's and coachee's individual CQ components, and their joint contribution to the coachee's learning. However, only one conceptual study (Van der Horst & Albertyn 2018) has explored the coachee's individual CQ components as an outcome of cross-cultural coaching.

Despite growing scholarly interest in the role of a coach's cultural sensitivity in intercultural coaching effectiveness, the existing literature lacks a firm theoretical foundation for the phenomenon, and empirical evidence is limited and predominantly qualitative, based on action research and small samples (Salomaa 2017). Further, both intercultural and cross-cultural coaching continues to be under-researched. Therefore, more rigorous research published in peer-reviewed coaching, psychological, and management journals is necessary to develop and advance the field. In the next section, I review the literature on peer coaching, which informs Paper 3.

2.2.5 Peer coaching

While executive and leadership coaching have gained traction in business organizations during the last two decades, peer coaching has only recently and gradually started to spread (Fey et al. 2022). Contemporary organizations are experiencing an acute need for informational and emotional support for their employees, as fewer managers are available to act in a coaching role (Parker et al. 2014). Peer coaching provides three kinds of support in organizations: "procedural (e.g., suggesting strategies and alternatives), affective (e.g., offering reassurance about effectiveness, confirmation of strengths, and encouragement of risk-taking) and reflective (e.g., questioning strategies and future changes)" (Swafford 1998). Thus, it is increasingly becoming a versatile supplement to leadership and managerial coaching in many hierarchical organizations (Ladyshewsky 2017).

The concept of peer coaching, which builds on the power of peer influence, originated in the education field for staff development (Parker et al. 2008) in the 1980s, and later found its way into business organizations. Peer coaching is a "*development process involving a coach and a coachee, with relatively equal status, focusing on expanding, refining and/or building new skills, leadership tools and knowledge in workplace situations*" (Ladyshewsky 2010, p.284). It is a high-impact organizational intervention that can be long-term oriented, offered just-in-time, and quickly learned (Hagen et al. 2017). Peer coaching differs from peer mentoring, which is a less structured, longer-term, one-to-one relationship between an employee and a more experienced mentor, and looks to precipitate employee personal and professional development (Eby 1997). There are different forms of organizational peer coaching, including reciprocal, group, and unidirectional (Hagen et al. 2017). There is some evidence, albeit limited, that peer coaches (as opposed to executive or leadership coaches) draw higher commitment from peer coachees, as peer coaching involves existing work relationships, and coachees are motivated not to let their peers down (Goldman et al. 2013).

Further, although peer coaching has been widely researched in educational and medical settings, the research has not kept pace in organizational settings, and empirical evidence is based on peer coaching in hierarchical organizations with the focus on personal and professional development (Parker et al. 2015). Studies have found that peer coaching increases individual productivity (Peters 1996), accelerates cultural change (Eaton & Brown 2002), enhances leadership development (Ladyshewsky 2007), increases satisfaction, enhances learning, and contributes to professional development (Parker et al. 2008). Although scholars have acknowledged that peer coaching provides employees with psychological and emotional support, which in turn enhances individual learning and career success (Parker et al. 2008), the particular mechanisms for nurturing employee well-being through peer coaching in organizational settings have not been addressed. A few empirical studies conducted in educational and real-life settings, with a particular focus on well-being, have found mixed evidence; for instance, the positive effect of peer coaching on students' well-being during stressful periods (Short et al. 2010), and the minimal impact of peer life coaching on individuals' subjective and psychological well-being (Spence & Grant 2007).

Despite the growing popularity of peer coaching in organizations, non-hierarchical peer coaching efforts can meet obstacles when they clash with a hierarchical performativity culture (Lofthouse & Leat 2013). This is due to the equal and reciprocal nature of peer coaching being discordant with the presence of hierarchy and power in organizations, especially in organizations with high power distance. To the contrary, in non-hierarchical, self-managing organizations, peer coaching fits rather naturally, as it constitutes a form of coaching that is not heavily invested with power and benefits from the non-threatening nature of relationships between peers (Fey et al. 2022). One positive side of self-managing organizations is the flexibility of work assignments and schedules, and increased alignment of people's attitudes and job tasks. Earlier research has demonstrated that employee self-leadership is associated with individual well-being through greater internal control, reduced stress and anxiety (Saks & Ashforth 1996), increased self-efficacy (Latham & Frayne 1989), and greater job satisfaction (Neck & Manz 1996). At the same time, the environment of self-managing organizations could

impose high uncertainty due to the absence of formal leadership structures, high market competition, and fast pace of work. The absence of formal leaders creates a leadership void in self-managing organizations, and may leave employees lost in an unstructured and ambiguous environment, and thus affect their well-being. However, there is no empirical research either on well-being or peer coaching in self-managing organizations. Yet, developing an understanding of peer coaching as a potential supplement to a leadership void is essential. Therefore, in Paper 3, we study peer coaching as one such alternative, and focus in particular on employee well-being as an outcome of peer coaching in a self-managing organization.

2.2.6 Diversity of coaching forms for leadership development

Now, after reviewing the literatures informing the three papers of my dissertation on cross-cultural executive coaching, intercultural leadership coaching, and peer coaching, I will explain how the papers are connected to one another conceptually (Table 4). I bring together three forms of coaching (executive coaching, leadership coaching, and peer coaching) and three coaching contexts (cross-cultural, intercultural, and monocultural). As a result, the matrix indicates nine potential forms of coaching: ***1) cross-cultural executive coaching****; 2) cross-cultural leadership coaching; 3) cross-cultural peer coaching; 4) intercultural executive coaching;* ***5) intercultural leadership coaching****; 6) intercultural peer coaching; 7) executive coaching; 8) leadership coaching; and* ***9) peer coaching*** (Table 4). Form 1, cross-cultural executive coaching, is relevant to Paper 1. Form 5, intercultural leadership coaching, is examined in Paper 2, while form 9, peer coaching, is studied in Paper 3. Table 4 indicates a number of key studies pertinent to each form of coaching.

While several terms such as 'variant' and 'practice' exist to differentiate coaching forms (Joo et al. 2012), I suggest the term 'form' to distinguish between them. While it highlights the differences between the forms, it also acknowledges the fundamental similarities.

Coaching is acknowledged as "a context-sensitive intervention and a social process that is influenced by the environment" (Bozer & Delegach 2019, p.377). However, other organizational contexts beyond conventional organizational forms have to date largely been neglected in the coaching research. The evidence for the effectiveness of executive and leadership coaching for leadership development, accumulated by the extant coaching research in recent years, is to a high degree based on traditional hierarchical business organizations, e.g., MNCs (Jones et al. 2016). Scholarly understanding of the applicability of coaching for leadership development in other organizational contexts, for example, the emerging organizational context of self-managing organizations, is scarce (Fey et al. 2022), and very limited in international development organizations (Patel & Van Nieuwerburgh 2022), and INGOs (Watson 2020). However, their importance to the economy of Finland (Ekholm 2015) and globally is actively growing (Lee & Edmondson 2017). Therefore, studying coaching for leadership development in these forms of organization is highly relevant to the coaching field.

Table 4 Distinguishing between leadership levels and intercultural/cross-cultural/ monocultural coaching. Focus of Papers 1-3.

	Executive coaching (expatriates/global leaders)	**Leadership coaching** (leaders at all levels)	**Peer coaching** (employees coached by peers)
Cross-cultural coaching (cross-cultural issues)	***1. CROSS-CULTURAL EXECUTIVE COACHNG*** coaching international senior managers/ expatriates in senior roles on cultural issues in the international context **PAPER 1** *Handin & Steinweden (2006)*	*2. CROSS-CULTURAL LEADERSHIP COACHING* coaching leaders at all levels on cultural issues in the international context *Jenkins (2006)* *Booysen (2015)* *De Araujo (2021)*	*3. CROSS-CULTURAL PEER COACHING* coaching peers on cultural issues in the international context *no identified studies*
Inter-cultural coaching (coach and coachee from different cultures)	*4. INTERCULTURAL EXECUTIVE COACHING* coach and coachee in an executive position have a different cultural background *Handin & Steinwedel (2006);* *Coultas et al. (2011)*	***5. INTERCULTURAL LEADERSHIP COACHING*** coach and coachee in a leadership position have a different cultural background **PAPER 2** *Jenkins (2006)* *Roth (2017)* *De Araujo (2021)*	*6. INTERCULTURAL PEER COACHING* peer coach and peer coachee have a different cultural background *no identified studies*
Mono-cultural coaching	*7. EXECUTIVE COACHING* coach and coachee in an executive position have a similar cultural background *De Haan (2013)* *Feldman & Lankau (2005)* *Athanasopoulou & Dopson (2018)*	*8. LEADERSHIP COACHING* coach and coachee in a leadership position have a similar cultural background *Ely et al. (2010)* *Ladegard & Gjerde (2014)* *Taylor et a. (2019)*	***9. PEER COACHING*** peer coach and peer coachee have a similar cultural background **PAPER 3** *Parker et al. (2013)* *Goldman et al. (2013)*

As evidence of coaching effectiveness and gaps in the literature relating to traditional hierarchical forms was discussed in the theoretical section reviewing executive and leadership coaching, I direct the reader to 2.2.2 for more details. Meanwhile, I will briefly present what we know about the organizational contexts of self-managing organizations, international development organizations, and INGOs, and discuss the importance of studying coaching for leadership development in these contexts.

2.2.7 Coaching in emerging and little-studied organizational contexts

Coaching for leadership development in self-managing organizations

As the shortcomings of the traditional hierarchical way of organizing are becoming more apparent in an increasingly complex and dynamic business environment, the popularity of self-managing organizations is actively growing (Lee & Edmondson 2017). These organizations are "*those that radically decentralize authority in a formal and systematic way throughout the organization*" (Lee & Edmondson 2017, p.5). The creation of such flexible, adaptable, and decentralized organizations is considered dependent on extensive self-management (Stewart et al. 2011) and the related ideas of collective, distributive, shared, or emergent leadership (Sweeney et al. 2019), whose roots are deep (Follett-Parker 1924; Manz & Sims 1980). Today, we see increasing evidence of employees with a high degree of autonomy and empowerment practicing self-management and collective leadership (Foss & Klein 2014) in this emerging organizational form (Lee & Edmondson 2017). Prominent examples of self-managing organizations include Morningstar, Whole Foods, W. L. Gore, Zappos, Semco (Hamel & Breen 2007), and Valve (Birkinshaw & Ridderstråhle 2017).

However, evidence on the impact of self-managing organization-wide characteristics on individual or organizational level outcomes is currently scarce (Lee & Edmondson 2017). Past research, conducted in traditional forms of organization, found that employee self-leadership leads to increased self-efficacy (Latham & Frayne 1989), greater job satisfaction (Neck & Manz 1996), and individual well-being through greater internal control, and reduced stress and anxiety (Saks & Ashforth 1996). On the other hand, the unstructured and ambiguous environment of self-managing organizations risks imposing high uncertainty on employees due to the absence of formal leadership structures. The absence of formal leaders could generate a leadership void and subsequently lead to decreased employee well-being. However, research on substitutes for formal leadership is limited, and mainly conducted in traditional forms of organization (Manz 2015). Therefore, there is a pressing need to understand what interventions could help employees adjust and operate effectively in self-managing organizations, and how leadership and influence are exercised in these organizations (Lee & Edmondson 2017).

Unfortunately, empirical research investigating these issues in radically self-managed organizations is scarce (Lee & Edmondson 2017), with Fey and colleagues (2022) being the first to address this gap. Their findings indicate that peer coaching could be one of the potential leadership substitutes. In the absence of leaders, peer coaching enables employee well-being through either employee proactivity in the personal and work domains, or employee psychological safety (Fey et al. 2022). As proactivity is closely

related to self-leadership in the organizational behavior literature (Cranmer et al. 2019), peer coaching has the premises to be an efficient means for self-leadership development in self-managing organizations. In turn, self-leadership is an essential part of collective leadership, supported by organizational structures, systems, and collective action to function effectively. Therefore, peer coaching in self-managing organizations could be an enabler of self-leadership and collective leadership (Fey et al. 2022), and respond to Lehtonen & Seeck's (2022) call to conduct research on the development of shared and collective leadership through coaching. Hence, studying coaching for leadership development in emerging organizational forms will enhance scholarly understanding of the outcomes which could be achieved through coaching and about the specific nature of coaching processes leading to these outcomes in self-managing organizations. In turn, this could lead to adapting approaches for coaching for leadership development in self-managing organizations to self-managing teams and groups within mainstream hierarchical organizations. Therefore, Paper 3 of this dissertation explores coaching for leadership development in the context of a self-managing organization.

Coaching for leadership development in international development and nonprofit organizations

"We measure our success in lives changed"
United Way (International NGO's vision)

International development organizations promote economic and social progress in developing countries or regions. They focus on addressing the needs and challenges of less developed countries, with the key goals of reducing poverty, eliminating hunger and diseases, improving living conditions, and fostering sustainable development. They are essential actors in addressing sustainable development goals (SDGs). International development organizations include intergovernmental organizations (IGOs, e.g., UN agencies), governmental agencies, and INGOs with focus on long-term development goals. UN agencies are important flagbearers among international development organizations, pursuing specific missions within the fields of international security, peacekeeping, and peacebuilding, advocacy for human rights and international law, and economic and human development (Hanhimäki 2015).

Another little-studied organizational context is that of nonprofit organizations (Bozer, Kuna, Santora 2015). The nonprofit sector is expanding in nearly every country and its importance for a healthy society is increasing (Waldron 2017). Nonprofits are the fastest growing sector in the US with more than 1.5 million agencies registered there (Libby & Deitrick 2017). The role of nonprofits in Finland is also growing, with currently more than 100 000 registered associations in the fields of culture, health, environment, and other areas (Ekholm 2015). Further, scholars acknowledge the favorable effects of NGOs on target communities and concerning intended outcomes (Brass et al. 2018). Organizations in the nonprofit sector differ from those in the private and public sectors in several essential ways. Similarly to the public sector organizations, nonprofits have social rather than profit goals. They are independent from government and have their own regulatory and governance frameworks (Hudson 1995).

The nonprofit sector is facing multiple challenges and an immense deficit of qualified leaders able to address those challenges (Carpenter & Wozniak-Qualls 2015). One of the current critical leadership challenges in INGOs is the demand for increased efficiency and professionalization (Dickmann et al 2010). Another essential leadership challenge is a shortage of competent leaders with experience in the nonprofit sector, where organizations would benefit from more robust talent management and leadership development strategies. Unfortunately, the INGOs have traditionally been inadequate in their capacity to develop leaders (Deaton et al. 2013), and the literature on leadership development in INGOs is limited (Gilmer & Hughes 2013; Bozer, Kuna, Santora 2015). Recently, leadership development in INGOs has been attracting greater attention, including where coaching is concerned (Hailey 2006; Arumugam 2014). However, empirical studies are largely qualitative in nature, USA- and UK-centered, with a dearth of studies on cross-sectional research globally (Deaton 2013). The scarce evidence nevertheless suggests positive individual and organizational level effects from coaching (CompassPoint 2003).

In sum, the contexts of international development organizations and INGOs differ significantly from the context of MNCs, and thus there is a need to explore whether coaching success factors identified for business organizations and MNCs hold in these new contexts. For example, specific coaching inquiries of INGO leaders include raising funds, building relationships with the board, and managing volunteers. This requires coaches familiar with the contexts and challenges of international development organizations and INGOs. Further, there is a lack of cultural and ethnic diversity among trained coaches, and the need for culturally competent coaches in the nonprofit sector is clear (Howard et al. 2010). However, personalization, flexibility, and increased accessibility to coaching through virtual formats creates huge potential for coaching to be much more broadly applied in these organizational forms. As the effective operation of international development organizations and INGOs is vital to the world, enhanced efficiency and their leaders' well-being through coaching will positively affect the many stakeholders and partnerships involved. This makes the above organizational contexts indispensable to the study of coaching for leadership development, also with the potential to transfer new findings to mainstream contexts.

Overall theoretical discussion of the dissertation

The foregoing discussion of the theoretical background of my dissertation is presented in Table 5 below. The phenomenon of coaching for leadership development has been studied through two innovative coaching forms, that is, intercultural leadership coaching and peer coaching. Several different theoretical perspectives have been applied, such as the learning perspective, relational view, and proactivity and well-being perspectives.

This dissertation explores the phenomenon in the emerging and little-studied organizational contexts of self-managing organizations, international development organizations, and INGOs. Thus, overall, the dissertation aims to expand the theoretical lenses applied in the field of coaching for leadership development. Following my introduction of the key literatures informing the three papers of this dissertation, and positioning those papers in relation to the ongoing theoretical discussions herein, chapter 3 discusses the key methodological choices.

Table 5 Overall theoretical discussion of the dissertation

The nonprofit sector is facing multiple challenges and an immense deficit of qualified sum, the contexts of international development organizations and INGOs differ

Overarching research question: How does coaching enable leadership development in innovative coaching forms?			
Overall theoretical discussion of the dissertation			
Studied phenomenon of the dissertation	Coaching for leadership development: Ely et al. (2010); Korotov (2016), Otter (2017); Ladyshevsky (2007); Lehtonen & Seeck (2022); Salomaa (2017)		
	Paper 1	Paper 2	Paper 3
Phenomenon of the study	Global leader learning process and cross-cultural executive coaching	Intercultural leadership coaching	Peer coaching
Theoretical perspective	Leadership development as a **learning process**	**Relational view** on cultural intelligence and individual CQ components	Proactivity and **well-being**
Theory applied	Transformational learning (Mezirow 1978)	Social exchange theory (Blau 1964), Cultural Intelligence (CQ) (Early &Ang 2003)	Grounded conceptual framework inductively generated
Organizational context	MNCs	International development organizations and INGOs	Self-managing organizations

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research design

This dissertation consists of a systematic literature review and two empirical studies. The empirical studies are based on two separate data sets and apply qualitative and quantitative research designs (Table 6). In the following sections, I first describe the research settings, then the data sources, and finally the research methods applied in each paper.

Table 6 Research methodologies in the dissertation papers

Study	Research design	Sample	Method
Paper 1	Conceptual paper A systematic literature review based on 42 papers	n = 42	Content analysis
Paper 2	Quantitative Based on a survey of 107 intercultural leadership coaching dyads in 8 UN agencies and 8 INGOs	n = 107	Fuzzy Set Qualitative Comparative Analysis using fsQCA 3.0
Paper 3	Qualitative Based on in-depth interviews with 26 employees from a single company, along with secondary materials	n = 26	Gioia method

3.2 Research settings and case organizations in empirical studies

Paper 2. This empirical, quantitative study examines critical success factors of intercultural leadership coaching. The study's main research question concerns the impact of coaches' and coachees' CQ characteristics on coachee learning. Given the research design of the study, as a large-scale two-wave quantitative study of intercultural leadership dyads, in order to test the hypotheses the case organization needed to satisfy the following criteria: 1) provide employees with executive or leadership coaching and have at least 500 leaders receiving coaching during 2021-2022 (to be able to secure responses from at least 100 dyads based on the pre-post dyadic design studies response rate of 20% (Bozer, Joo, & Santora 2015); 2) have a high diversity of employees such that

most coaching dyads would be intercultural; and, 3) since data collection was to be carried out during the Covid-19 pandemic, it was important that the whole research process could be conducted online, including the interviews, survey pretesting, and the survey itself.

Therefore, collaborating with the Humanitarian Coaching Network (HCN), which was a good fit with all the criteria, enabled us to carry out the empirical part of the research project. HCN's coaching service helps UN agencies and other international development and humanitarian organizations ensure the well-being and development of their employees, and facilitates organizational change. HCN operates as a platform and currently brings together more than 800 leadership coaches worldwide (500 coaches at the time of conducting the survey in June 2021-July 2022). With their help, HCN provides 500 to 750 pro-bono coaching engagements per year to each partnering organization. Since its foundation, HCN has provided coaching services to more than 3000 leaders in 300 development and humanitarian organizations globally. In this study, we surveyed leaders working for international development and humanitarian organizations, who took part in a four-month-long coaching program provided for them by HCN. The final sample, after two rounds of data collection, consisted of 107 dyads: 107 leaders from eight UN agencies and eight INGOs and their coaches, jointly representing 74 nationalities. The leaders were working in some of the oldest and largest UN agencies and INGOs in humanitarian aid, human rights, climate action, and sustainable development.

The extant empirical body of literature on coaching for leadership development is largely comprised of studies on traditional hierarchical organizations such as MNCs. We know relatively little about how coaching enables leadership in other organizational contexts (Bozer & Delegach 2019). By examining coaching for leadership development in the context of INGOs and international development organizations, our study aims to advance scholarly understanding of how coaching enables the development of leadership capabilities in these contexts, which are of increasing importance in Finland and globally (Ekholm 2015; Libby & Deitrick 2017; Waldron 2017). INGOs and international development organizations exhibit some distinct differences from private companies concerning key purpose, governance structure, and sources of financing (Hodges & Howieson 2016). Furthermore, leaders working for international development organizations often serve in isolated and complex locations, affected by military conflicts or severe natural disasters, with limited access to high-quality relational support. Therefore, studying the phenomena of intercultural leadership coaching in the essential and greatly under-researched contexts of international development organizations (Patel & Van Nieuwerburgh 2022), and INGOs (Watson 2020), could help us understand the outcomes and critical success factors of coaching in these contexts; to test the borders of applicability of coaching to different organizational contexts, and bring new meaningful ideas to coaching research.

Paper 3. The case organization in Paper 3 is a young and promising Finnish digital engineering company, Nitor, founded in 2007 in Helsinki. It practices "organizing without managers" and successfully challenges the mainstream belief concerning how profitable organizations should be organized. At the time of study in 2018-2019, Nitor

employed over 200 digital engineers in Finland and Sweden, and recorded revenues of 29 million euros in 2019. Nitor received multiple acknowledgements for its efforts in self-organization, including ranking among the top workplaces in Europe. We chose Nitor as a rare research opportunity to study a voluntary, bottom up, and company-wide innovative peer coaching system. Known as Kamu-Kaveri, it started in 2016 and at the time of our study the initiative involved more than 30 internal peer coaches and more than 70 peer coachees.

Paper 3 examined the emerging context of a self-managing organization (Lee & Edmondson 2017). Self-managing organizations are steadily on the rise (Foss & Klein 2014; Pearce 2007). Well-known examples of longstanding self-managing organizations such as Morningstar, W.L. Gore, Whole Foods Market, and Zappos (Hamel & Breen 2007), as well as younger self-managing organizations such as Valve and Supercell (Birkinshaw & Ridderstråhle 2017) are systematically implementing self-managing models to various degrees. These and other lesser-known self-managing organizations pursue radical forms of self-organization to promote proactivity, engagement and creativity among their employees, and to respond to the changing demands of the external environment for organizational flexibility and agility. However, the self-managing context might not equally benefit all employees, as some may find a structureless environment stressful and ambiguous. Thus, employee well-being is an important and currently overlooked factor in self-managing organizations, and studying the impact of peer coaching on employee well-being and other outcomes in a self-managing environment is of high relevance and importance.

3.3 Research methods

3.3.1 Paper 1

How global leaders learn from international experience: Reviewing and advancing global leadership development (Fey 2020)

Data collection. Paper 1 is a systematic literature review of the extant literature on global leader learning from international experience (IE) published in peer-reviewed journals between 1998-2019. This study applies a systematic literature review approach (Tranfield et al. 2003) that identifies, evaluates, and synthesizes the extant scholarly literature in the field. Supplementary to the methods section of Paper 1, I provide some additional details on data collection and analysis in Chapter 3 of this dissertation. The data search was performed in the core scholarly databases, including EBSCO, SCOPUS, Google Scholar, and ProQuest, using the key words “global leader” or “global manager” or “global executive” or “global leadership competencies” combined with at least one of the following phrases: “international experience” or “learning process” or “developmental method” or “learning mechanism”. The selected studies needed to satisfy the following four criteria: 1) be a conceptual or empirical peer-reviewed study in the field of HRM, management, leadership, international business, or psychology; 2) describe the method of IE in detail. Studies describing IE as a core developmental method or among other methods for developing global leaders were included, but those mentioning IE only briefly were excluded. Studies on global teams were excluded, as due to the nature of this developmental method their leaders warrant separate examination;

3) focus on global leaders; and 4) the empirical studies' samples should be based on managerial samples. The initial search identified 85 papers. The application of the inclusion criteria resulted in 42 studies, 21 conceptual and 21 empirical (11 qualitative, seven quantitative, three mixed methods), which formed the basis for in-depth analysis.

Data analysis. The primarily qualitative sample led to the choice of the qualitative content analysis (Mayring 2004) approach to analyze the data. Information was extracted and coded from each paper regarding the author(s), year of publication, journal, type of study, type of international experience explored, type of global leadership competencies explored, conceptual framework, constructs related to learning used in quantitative studies, characteristics of managerial samples (e.g., number of participants, managerial level, organization, industry, country), and findings in all empirical studies (for detailed content analysis, see Paper 1, Appendix, Tables 1-6). IE was coded as one of three types of IE, while the particular length of the IE was not coded as each of the three types of IE was indicative of the length. Then, each paper's content related to global leader learning from IE was extracted, with a particular focus on factors enabling the learning, and the mechanism facilitating the learning process, and coded. In a few cases where data were not available at the data analysis stage (e.g., conceptual framework, characteristics of the managerial sample, learning mechanisms), I did not contact the authors but worked with existing data. Due to the qualitative methodology of the study, I was interested in the overall pattern of the data.

Through performing qualitative content analysis and categorizing all data into the themes and sub-themes, three distinct themes relevant to global leader learning emerged: 1) *individual enablers of learning*, 2) *organizational enablers of learning, and 3) learning mechanisms.* Individual enablers were further categorized into five sub-themes: 1) *personal traits*, 2) *individual capabilities*, 3) *learning ability*, *4) learning behaviors,* and *5) attitude to learning*. Organizational enablers were categorized into two sub-themes: 1) *developmental qualities of the method*, and 2) *organizational support*. Learning mechanisms were categorized into three sub-themes:1) *experiential learning cycle*, 2) *transformational learning cycle*, and 3) *social learning process* (see Paper 1, Figure 1). Similarly, three types of IE of global leaders in organizational settings emerged from the data as a result of content analysis (long-term international assignments, short-term business travel, and international corporate training programs). Though the themes and sub-themes emerged from the data, the choice of key words "international experience", "learning process", "developmental method", and "learning mechanism" was informed by the literature on global leader learning, and thus influenced the scope of the selected studies. The content analysis led to the identification of key individual and organizational enablers of learning and learning mechanisms, and the development of a conceptual framework (KEGLL).

There are limitations to the study (highlighted in the review process, and thus not included in limitations in Paper 1, published). To further strengthen the flow of information during the review process, a PRISMA flow diagram could be included (Moher et al. 2009). To enhance the quality of the review, only peer-reviewed journals were included in the sample; books and dissertations were excluded. Due to the limited sample, not only top-ranked journals but all peer-reviewed journals were included. To

further ensure the rigor of the results, statistically significant findings from quantitative studies were marked in **bold**; findings from qualitative studies were marked *in italics;* findings from conceptual studies were in normal font (Paper 1, Appendix, Table 4-6). The author, therefore, did not perform an additional systematic critical analysis of each study (Moher et al. 2009), which due to the variety of the levels of peer-reviewed journals constitutes a limitation.

3.3.2 Paper 2

The emergence of a relational view on cultural intelligence: Evidence from intercultural leadership coaching (Fey et al. 2023)

Data collection. Paper 2 is a time-lagged two-wave quantitative study of 107 intercultural leadership coaching dyads comprising 107 leaders of UN agencies and INGOs, and their 107 leadership coaches. Our research team comprised two scholars and one practitioner with long-term work experience with international development and humanitarian organizations. Eight in-depth interviews with coaches and UN leaders were conducted in September 2020 to help develop survey questionnaires. Questionnaires were pre-tested in May 2020, and full-scale data collection carried out from June 2021-June 2022. We collected the data from a coach and a coachee in a dyad in Time 1, before the start of the coaching assignment, and in Time 2, on average four months later, at the end of the coaching assignment. Each coaching assignment consisted of four one-hour online coaching sessions, predominantly via video conferencing. In sum, 1631 observations from coaches and coachees were collected. Reaching the UN agencies and INGOs globally was possible due to close collaboration with HCN, an organization based in Seattle, USA, and providing leadership coaching to international development and humanitarian organizations for a decade.

Credibility issues concern the quantitative study 2, and mostly relate to the question of reducing common method variance. To minimize common method bias we collected the data at two different points in time for independent and dependent variables (Podsakoff 2003). The data on coach CQ, coachee CQ, and demographic data were collected in Time 1, while the data on coaching relationship and coachee learning were collected in Time 2.

Data analysis.

> *For however many things have a plurality of parts and are not merely a complete aggregate but instead some kind of a whole beyond its parts*. Aristotle, Metaphysics

Fuzzy-set Qualitative Comparative Analysis (fsQCA) (Ragin 2008) was chosen to analyze the data. fsQCA is a social science method developed to combine variable-oriented quantitative and case-oriented qualitative analyses. Thus, it allows for the bridging of quantitative and qualitative approaches, and for inductive, deductive, and abductive inquiries (Ragin 2008). fsQCA is grounded in three core principles that differentiate it from other methods. First, it has been developed to identify a configuration of causal conditions leading to a particular outcome, instead of the effects of single independent variables (Ragin 2008). Second, fsQCA allows to identify multiple configurations of

causal conditions leading to an outcome. Third, it can embrace asymmetrical causality by identifying qualitatively different high-performing and low-performing configurations (Deng et al. 2023). These fsQCA features, absent in traditional variance-based methods, helped us simultaneously study individual CQ components of coach and coachee in the same configurations. To the best of our knowledge, due to fsQCA's methodological possibilities, the study is the first to analyze all four individual CQ components of both parties in the dyad.

Further, the strengths of fsQCA in explaining multilevel relationships is that explaining factors could be found on different levels of analysis (e.g., individual, team, organizational, environmental). However, the key challenge in the use of fsQCA is a lack of experience among scholars to formulate relatively complex scenarios that describe how configurations of variables could lead to specific outcomes. This challenge of interpreting the solutions is growing with an increase of factors (causal conditions) in a configuration.

3.3.3 Paper 3

How peer coaching fosters employee proactivity and well-being within a self-managing Finnish digital engineering company (Fey et al. 2022)

Data collection. Paper 3 is an inductive study of an innovative peer coaching system in a self-managing organization. It is based on in-depth interviews with 26 employees at a self-managing organization named Nitor. We chose the qualitative inductive approach as it is well suited to understanding an emerging phenomenon. Our research team comprised three scholars as well as one practitioner experienced in implementing coaching initiatives in a self-managing environment. We developed an interview guide during March-April 2018 and collected the data in May-June 2018. In an inductive study, while it is important to be familiar with the target literature, scholars are encouraged to develop open-ended questions to allow participants to share their experiences and agenda to a greater degree, and avoid influencing participants with their own research agenda. The interview questions differed for employees occupying different roles in the peer coaching system. All Nitor employees were invited to participate in the study, and 26 volunteered (21% of the company's employees). To explore the role of the peer coaching system in employee well-being at Nitor from multiple perspectives, we ensured that our interviewees played different roles in the peer coaching system. Thus, six were coaches, 13 coachees, four acted as both coach and coachee, and three occupied neither role. 81% of the sample were males and 19% females, reflecting the gender distribution in the digital engineering industry in Finland. Secondary data sources included Nitor's intranet materials (coaching materials from Nitor's collaborative platform Confluence, and the principles of Nitor's organizational culture), and Nitor's website.

Data analysis.

"Don't forget about that "you never know."

H. Mintzberg, 2017, p.19.

We analyzed the data inductively and applied Gioia and colleagues (2013) structured analysis methodology. This approach has been designed to generate a theory or conceptual framework from raw qualitative data. First, in line with the Gioia methodology, we applied open coding to identify first-order concepts – the terms or phrases used by the participants themselves. Then, we grouped those into larger second-order themes, which we labelled with our own terms. Finally, we grouped the second-order themes into broader aggregate dimensions. The Gioia methodology allowed us to create a data structure where participants' specific quotes are linked to the second-order themes and, subsequently, to the aggregate dimensions. It helped us remain close to the data and develop a conceptual framework firmly grounded in the data. We chose the Gioia methodology over other grounded theory approaches because this study aimed to generate a conceptual model but not a comprehensive self-standing theory, which would require a more significant data input. The developed data structure helped us identify the core characteristics of the peer coaching system, such as the preferred focus areas and preferred coaching functions, three well-being mechanisms for fostering well-being at the individual level, organizational level outcomes, and potential challenges associated with peer coaching.

3.4 Reflexivity

Impact of my coaching background on my research approach. Being a certified organizational and intercultural coach, also with practical experience in coaching for leadership development in organizations, brings strengths and weaknesses to the research process. The strengths include an in-depth practical understanding of the coaching process, exposure to various coaching inquiries, working with multiple coaching models, and observing how coaching outcomes occur. This insider understanding of the coaching process helped me better relate to the ongoing debates in the coaching literature, and develop a research question that benefits both theory and practice. Moreover, possessing coaching competencies, such as a coaching mindset, coaching presence, active listening, creating awareness, and designing actions, helped me in multiple ways during the research process. For instance, it clarified my ideas and goals regarding the research, applying coaching presence, active listening, and powerful questions in participant interviews.

On the other side, my coaching background carried the risk of bias towards the positive impact of coaching on individuals, teams, and organizations. It may also make me less sensitive towards potential dark sides of coaching, such as the adverse effects on well-being, social integration, performance, and evaluation of work roles (Schermuly & Graßmann 2019). Further, as an intercultural coach, I might be prone to bias towards encouraging cultural diversity in coaching. At the same time, not everyone will benefit from cultural diversity in coaching, and some coachees will gain more from monocultural coaching. To mitigate the above biases during the research process, I sought evidence for the dark sides of coaching (Schermuly & Graßmann 2019); for the effectiveness of coaching in comparison with other developmental methods (Reid et al. 2020). I also took into consideration the borders of applicability and potential challenges of cultural diversity in coaching (Byrne 1971; Couch & Rose 2020).

Further, empirical papers 2 and 3 are written in collaboration with co-authors. The diversity of perspectives and research discussions contributed significantly to the transformation of raw research ideas into well thought out and balanced concepts. The co-authors helped to challenge existing biases.

3.5 Research ethics

The ethical aspects taken into consideration in this dissertation relate to confidentiality and the anonymity of personal data, informed consent, personal data protection, and responsible research practice. These aspects concern empirical Papers 2 and 3, as Paper 1 is conceptual. First, participation in both studies was entirely voluntary. All interviewees in studies 2 and 3 were informed about the confidentiality and anonymity of their personal data and gave informed consent on its use. Further, confidentiality and the anonymity of participants' personal data were given a high priority throughout the research process, including data collection, transcription, analysis, and reporting. In studies 2 and 3, we anonymized the data and assigned IDs to all participants. In study 3, we only indicated employees' job positions when quoting the participants. When manuscripts were ready, we sent them to the respective organizations for validation before submitting them to a journal. To further strengthen the confidentiality of the data in Paper 2, which concerns coaching in international development organizations, including UN agencies, a non-disclosure agreement was specially developed for Paper 2 and signed by all co-authors. In relation to the data management plan, I followed my university's instructions for storing the data.

Yet, both organizations consented to being named in the studies, despite the content's critical component. Transparency concerning the name of the case organization, still relatively rare in management research, allows authors to reveal more details about the organizational context, helps scholars and readers connect more closely with the study context, and perceive the studied organization not as a black box but a living organism with a personality.

4. SUMMARY OF PAPERS

This section describes the main theoretical foundations and key findings of the three papers in this work, explaining how they contribute to particular literature streams and the dissertation overall.

4.1 Paper 1. How global leaders learn from international experience: Reviewing and advancing global leadership development

The first paper systematically reviews the literature and critically synthesizes the research on global leader learning from international experience (IE), published in peer-reviewed journals from 1998-2019 (Fey 2020). IE has been acknowledged as the major developmental method for global leader development (Mendenhall 2008), and is defined in this study as experience gained from living and working outside of a person's home country (Gregersen 1998; Ng et al. 2009). Scholarly understanding of how global leaders learn from IE and why some global leaders benefit from IE more than others has increased significantly during the last two decades (e.g., Li et al. 2013; Ng et al. 2009; Terell & Rosenbusch 2013). However, the literature on global leader learning from IE remains fragmented, with a critical need to integrate the findings in the field. In particular, there is a need to identify bridging mechanisms between individual level dispositions and the development of global leadership capabilities (Osland et al. 2018), and to specify global leader learning processes (Osland et al. 2017). Previous reviews on global leadership development reviewed the variety of developmental methods, and indicated the need to understand how global leaders learn from these methods (Cumberland et al. 2016; Oddou & Mendenhall 2018; Suutari 2002). They provided useful foundations for understanding relationships between particular developmental methods and enhanced global leader competencies (e.g., Cumberland et al. 2016), but did not specify how the learning process occurs in those relationships. Alternatively, they adopted a processual approach to specify global leader development (Osland & Bird 2013; Mendenhall et al. 2017) but focused narrowly on one learning mechanism of transformational learning. Therefore, this is the first review on global leadership development that systematically reviews and integrates the extant literature on individual and organizational enablers of learning, as well as on multiple learning mechanisms enabling global leader learning from IE.

This study adopts a learning perspective on global leadership development, which it conceptualizes as global leader learning from IE. The organizational context of the review is predominantly a multinational corporation (MNC), reflecting in the extant literature the currently prevailing focus on global leader learning in MNCs, although global leaders also increasingly work in international nonprofit organizations (Dickmann & Cerdin 2018). IE in this study is classified into three types that are most frequently explored in the reviewed studies: long-term international assignments, short-term business travel, and global leadership development programs. Based on an in-depth content analysis of 42 conceptual and empirical studies (built only on managerial samples) in peer-reviewed journals, the review presents several valuable and novel findings.

First, the review identifies key elements of global leader learning processes from IE, such as individual and organizational enablers of global leader learning (and thus global leadership development), and learning mechanisms. In particular, the study suggests five types of individual enabler, namely personal traits, individual capabilities, learning ability, learning behaviors, and attitude to learning; two types of organizational enabler, that is, developmental qualities of IE and organizational support; and three types of learning mechanism – the experiential learning cycle, transformational learning cycle, and social learning process. Second, based on transformational learning theory (TLT) (Mezirow 1978), the study suggests that the interplay of individual and organizational enablers predisposes the likely learning mechanism. Third, and most relevant for the current dissertation, building on TLT, the paper defines coaching as an effective organizational enabler, and suggests that it can activate any of the above learning mechanisms. Thus, coaching could serve as an essential organizational enabler of global leader learning from IE, underlining that its role in global leadership development is currently under-researched. Finally, the review provides detailed avenues for future research: 1) individual and organizational enablers as antecedents of global leader learning from IE; 2) individual and organizational enablers as moderators of global leader learning from IE; 3) the learning mechanisms of global leaders from IE; 4) the methodological repertoire of the studies; 5) the role of executive coaching and peer coaching in enhancing global leader learning from IE, and 6) new research agendas influenced by Covid-19.

The study contributes to the extant global leadership development literature by identifying and integrating individual enablers, organizational enablers, and key learning mechanisms of global leaders from IE into a conceptual model of key elements of the global leader learning process (KEGLL). It advances earlier reviews by explicating the key enablers of learning and the learning process of global leaders from the three most common types of IE. Additionally, the review challenges the current assumption in the field (e.g., Cumberland et al. 2016; Oddou & Mendenhall 2018; Woods & Peters 2014) that particular developmental methods activate particular learning processes in global leaders (e.g., international assignment – immersion learning process; short term business travel – experiential learning process; in-class training program – didactic learning process). In contrast, this review suggests that a configuration of individual and organizational enablers could significantly influence what type of learning mechanism will switch on and what type of learning process will occur. For example, with a well-considered, personalized design, short-term business travel could lead to an immersive learning process, not only to experiential learning as assumed in the extant literature.

Further, by delineating and extending the nature of learning enablers beyond the GLED model (Osland & Bird 2018), learning mechanisms beyond the Process Model of Global Leadership Competency Development (Mendenhall et al., 2017), and by critically integrating the conceptual ideas behind these frameworks, this review holistically explains the learning process of global leaders from IE. It offers interesting insights as well as practical implications (e.g., expanding the pool of effective global leaders), and opens avenues for future studies not available when focusing only on enabling factors or a learning mechanism. Moreover, the review is uniquely based on evidence from a managerial as opposed to a student sample. Utilizing a managerial sample helps ensure

the findings are relevant to organizations aiming to develop global leaders, as studies have reported different results for managerial vs. student samples (Gupta et al. 2013; Tay et al. 2008).

Finally, earlier reviews attribute a higher degree of agency to organizational factors, and a lesser degree to individual factors (Osland & Bird 2013; 2018). By revealing five types of individual enabler, this review emphasizes the agency of global leaders in their learning. The review proposes that global leaders possess learning resources beyond the personal traits and capabilities that are most often explored in the extant literature.

Paper 1 contributes to the overall research question of this dissertation, first by conceptualizing global leadership development as the global leader learning process from IE, and then delineating that process as a combination of individual and organizational enablers and learning mechanisms. The paper next conceptualized coaching as an effective organizational enabler of global leader learning from IE. More specifically, this study highlights the moderating role of organizational enablers in general, and coaching in particular, and indicates that, potentially in combination with other organizational and individual enablers, coaching could activate any of the global leader learning mechanisms. Although this review was conducted in the global leadership development domain, its findings could be generalizable to other organizational contexts where learning takes place via IE or other developmental methods, and where the use of coaching could enhance leader learning and, therefore, leader development.

4.2 Paper 2. The emergence of a relational view on cultural intelligence: Evidence from intercultural leadership coaching

The second paper is a pioneering large-scale two-wave quantitative coaching study that examines the key success factors of intercultural leadership coaching. It is an innovative and increasingly important type of coaching for leadership development (Carr & Seto 2013), where the coach and a coachee in a leadership position come from different cultural backgrounds. The paper investigates intercultural leadership coaching success factors in the contexts of United Nations (UN) agencies and INGOs –important and very much under-researched organizational contexts. The paper's core aim is to define the largely unknown role that a particular type of intercultural competence, cultural intelligence (CQ), plays in facilitating intercultural leadership coaching (Couch & Rose 2020). To date, scholars have mainly focused on coach CQ as an antecedent of coaching outcomes (Abbott 2006; Couch & Rose 2020), and explored it predominantly qualitatively and in an aggregate form. Moreover, coachee CQ has been considered only as an outcome of coaching (Abbott 2006), and similarly only in an aggregate form. Given the interactive nature of intercultural coaching, this one-sided coach-centered approach, and largely the absence of empirical investigation on the interactive dynamics of coach and coachee CQ in intercultural leadership coaching is problematic, since it neglects the coachee's role in contributing to successful coaching outcomes. Further, research on coaching in international development organizations (Patel & Van Nieuwerburgh 2022) and in nonprofits is scarce (Watson 2020).

Therefore, drawing on social exchange theory (SET) (Blau 1964) and the conceptualization of CQ (Ang et al. 2007), both scarcely applied in the coaching literature, this paper first responds to calls to examine the effect of individual CQ components (Leung et al. 2014; Presbitero 2020; Schlaegel et al. 2021) as well as the interplay between CQ components (Gelfand et al. 2015; Richter et al. 2020) on coaching outcomes. Further, this paper suggests examining CQ from a relational perspective by considering the levels of individual CQ components for both the coach and the coachee. In line with these two aims, *we* theorize and examine the effect of the metacognitive CQ and motivational CQ components of coach and coachee (in configurations with other CQ components) on coachee learning. Additionally, we included coaching relationships in all studied configurations, as coaching relationship is acknowledged as the most consistent predictor of leadership coaching effectiveness in monocultural dyads (Baron & Morin 2009; Bozer, Joo, & Santora 2015; De Haan & Duckworth 2013), and qualitative evidence on the importance of coaching relationship in intercultural coaching dyads is growing (Abbott 2010; Milner et al. 2013; De Araujo 2021).

This empirical paper is built on a unique dataset collected at two points in time from 107 intercultural leadership coaching dyads. These comprised 107 leaders (from eight of the most global and oldest UN agencies and from eight INGOs), and their senior coaches, together representing 74 nationalities across five continents. The data were collected from the coachees, who received four online coaching sessions via video conferencing, and their coaches before the start and after completion of coaching assignments, with on average four months in between, and analyzed using fsQCA.

Our study yields several interesting and important findings. First, the results indicate that both metacognitive CQ and motivational CQ are important to coachee learning, on the part of both coach and coachee, and more consistently so than cognitive CQ and behavioral CQ. This points to the consistent relevance of coach and coachee metacognitive and motivational CQ components, whereas the cognitive and behavioral CQ components may be more pertinent in terms of compensatory mechanisms in the context of intercultural leadership coaching. Second, adopting a relational perspective on CQ, and examining configurations of coach and coachee individual CQ components simultaneously, we found that coach CQ has a stronger impact on coachee learning, but coachee CQ, while secondary to coach CQ, is relevant, too. Finally, our findings suggest that compensatory mechanisms may exist not only intrapersonally, between individual CQ components of one person (coach or coachee), but also interpersonally, that is, between individual CQ components of both persons (coach and coachee).

This pioneering coaching study contributes to the CQ, intercultural competence, and coaching literatures. It makes two major theoretical contributions to the extant CQ and intercultural competence literatures. First, in response to calls by Schlaegel et al. (2021) to examine how CQ components uniquely relate to different outcomes in intercultural dyads, we advance the need to consider the configurations of individual CQ components instead of CQ aggregates, and the existence of compensatory mechanisms within the individual. Second, our findings imply that in contrast to a conventional, coach-centric perspective on CQ (the higher a coach's CQ, the better the coaching outcomes) in intercultural interaction (Couch & Rose 2020), CQ could depend on a specific

relationship. In particular, we emphasize the importance of considering the levels of different CQ components of both individuals involved in intercultural encounters, and the compensatory mechanisms between the individuals. Therefore, our study proposes a relational rather than coach-centric perspective on CQ specifically and intercultural competence in general. The types of intrapersonal and interpersonal compensatory mechanisms we identified have rarely been recognized in the extant CQ research. While our research examines intercultural leadership coaching, we suggest that the relational view on CQ and compensatory mechanisms we advance could be relevant for other fields where intercultural competence is essential, such as global leadership, multicultural teams, global virtual teams, intercultural mentoring, and leader-member exchange in intercultural settings.

Further, our study advances the coaching literature in several novel ways. It is the first study to operationalize coach CQ and coachee CQ, and does so at the level of individual CQ components. Second, this is the first study to examine a global sample of intercultural leadership dyads, addressing the need to conduct large-sample studies of experienced coaching dyads in organizational settings (Graßmann & Schermuly 2020). Third, the study makes a contextual contribution by studying coaching in the contexts of UN agencies and INGOs, a greatly under-researched organizational context in the extant leadership development literature (Bozer, Kuna, & Santora, 2015). Fourth, the study introduces a distinction between the term *intercultural leadership coaching* specifically for coaching with coach and coachee in a leadership position from different cultural backgrounds, and *cross-cultural leadership coaching* for monocultural coaching of leaders on cross-cultural issues. The study emphasizes the importance of conceptually differentiating coaching processes in intercultural leadership dyads from monocultural leadership dyads. Finally, to the best of the authors' knowledge, this study is the first in the extant coaching literature to apply the fsQCA method to analyzing the data.

Paper 2 contributes to the overall research question of this dissertation by studying a particular type of coaching for leadership development, intercultural leadership coaching, in the substantially under-researched organizational contexts of international development organizations and INGOs. The coaching in this context is characterized by the global nature of its organizations and the cultural diversity of their leaders and coaches. Our study finds that metacognitive CQ and motivational CQ are more consistent than cognitive or behavioral CQ in enabling coachee learning in intercultural leadership coaching, and that interpersonal compensatory mechanisms between individual CQ components are present. Further, the results indicate that not only the coach's individual CQ components but also the coachee's CQ become important to enabling coachee learning and, thus, coachee leadership development. In addition, the coaching relationship is an important success factor in those configurations.

4.3 Paper 3. How peer coaching fosters employee proactivity and well-being within a self-managing Finnish digital engineering company

The third paper is a pioneering in-depth inductive study of an innovative, bottom-up, and voluntary peer coaching system, designed to support employee proactivity and well-being, in a self-managing Finnish digital engineering company Nitor (Fey et al. 2022).

The core aim of the study is to explore the role of coaching in fostering well-being in the emerging and under-researched context of self-managing organizations. Well-being lies at the heart of this study, as unhealthy and stressful workplaces are of increased concern for modern organizations and societies, and workplace-related stress is one of the major causes of death in developed countries (Pfeffer 2018). This global level concern is reflected in the UN's *Sustainable Development Goal 3, "Good Health and Well-being"* (Fonseca 2020). Modern organizations are increasingly characterized by an absence of informational and emotional support (Parker et al. 2008 p.488). This absence of support becomes even more vivid in organizations practicing more radical forms of self-management, as their employees do not even have formal leaders to whom they could turn. While scholars have found a positive relationship between self-management and employee well-being (Stewart et al. 2011), the studies have been conducted in traditional organizations with formal leaders. To date, very little is known about the effects of self-managing organizational structures on employee well-being (Manz 2015). Thus, the acute question is what self-managing organizations can do to avoid stress-related effects, besides the apparent strategies of hiring self-efficacious employees and providing less self-efficacious employees with relevant training. In our case organization Nitor we explored precisely this question in-depth.

Nitor questions the traditional belief of how profitable organizations should be organized and managed, and their innovative peer coaching system is an attempt to ensure employees' well-being and thereby long-term organizational performance. We conducted 26 in-depth interviews with employees in different job positions and in the role of coach, coachee, and acting in both roles and in neither roles. We were exposed to diverse employee voices, and able to study the different perspectives on whether peer coaching might serve as a source of proactivity and well-being in a self-managing organization. We employed Gioia et al.'s (2012) grounded theory approach to analyze the data and develop a conceptual framework for the study.

Our inductive data analysis yielded several interesting and novel findings. First, we found that the coachee's needs is the core driving force of the peer coaching system at Nitor. These needs are multidimensional and define the preferred focus of peer coaching engagement (personal, work, or holistic), as well as the preferred function (scanning, validating, sharing, activating). Second, our study identified multiple coaching-induced paths to employee well-being, such as through 1) self-awareness and proactivity in the personal domain; 2) self-awareness and proactivity in the work domain; and 3) psychological safety. Third, our study explored organizational level benefits as a result of peer coaching. They include creating a psychologically safe organizational climate, organizational belonging, organizational learning, and organizational empowerment. We found that these organizational outcomes occur in two steps as a result of peer coaching interventions. In the first step, a psychologically safe organizational climate, organizational belonging, and organizational learning can be enabled through the peer coaching functions of scanning, sharing, and validating. If the first step is successful, then the second is to enable organizational empowerment through the peer coaching function of activating. Fourth, and probably one of the most interesting and novel findings of the study, is the indication that peer coaching in self-managing organizations can substitute for middle managers, and fulfill several leadership functions in the

absence of traditional managers. Finally, the study takes a critical stand towards peer coaching in self-managing organizations, and identifies key challenges it may face in the context of such organizations. We identified four challenges in particular: 1) allocating time for regular peer coaching; 2) confidentiality vs transparency in the coaching process; 3) risks associated with switching the coach; and 4) agency in the coaching process.

This study contributes to the literatures on peer coaching, self-managing organizations, and well-being. First, our study contributes to the peer coaching literature by conceptualizing the preferred focus (personal, work, or holistic) and preferred function (scanning, validating, sharing, activating) of peer coaching; outlining organizational level benefits of peer coaching (creating a psychologically safe organizational climate, organizational belonging, organizational learning, and organizational empowerment); and specifying the key challenges of peer coaching in a self-managing organization. Additionally, our study suggests an alternative view to the current dynamic stage-based models of peer coaching (Hagen et al. 2017). That is, a more flexible functional approach, based on coachee needs. Instead of meticulously going through all the stages of the peer coaching process, the coach is encouraged to attentively follow the coachee's needs, and respect that coaching engagements vary greatly in terms of length, frequency of sessions, their formats, and coaching models. Second, this study contributes to the extant literature on self-managing organizations by explicating evidence on how peer coaching enables employee's well-being in the absence of managers. It suggests that the coaching is especially useful in self-managing organizations, as it can fulfill several leadership functions in the absence of traditional managers.

Third, our study advances the literature on individual well-being by specifying peer coaching as a potential antecedent of individual well-being in organizations, outlining the multiplicity of paths to individual well-being for employees (via the personal domain, work domain, or psychological safety), and specifying the particular stages in the process to employee well-being (through self-awareness and proactivity). Finally, our study contributes to McGregor's (1960) Theory Y by suggesting important limitations to the theory in the context of self-managing organizations. More specifically, by exploring a radical self-managing organization, working under Theory Y assumptions, we suggest that even employees predisposed towards Theory Y assumptions will benefit from some form of organizational guidance and support in the context of self-managing organizations. Peer coaching could thus be an effective form of organizational guidance and support for the employees in self-managing organizations.

Paper 3 contributes to the overall research question of the dissertation by studying how peer coaching enables proactivity, which is closely associated with self-leadership (Cranmer et al. 2019), and well-being in the context of a self-managing organization. It offers valuable evidence on how the peer coaching process could foster employee self-leadership and well-being in a self-managing organization where a traditional leadership structure is absent. The study conceptualizes the peer coaching process for self-leadership and individual well-being by outlining the multiplicity of paths to self-leadership and well-being for employees enabled by peer coaching. Further, our study suggests that employees' self-leadership in a self-managing organization is not an

ultimate outcome, but a pre-requisite enabling employee well-being in the short-run, and creating conditions for organizational level outcomes in the long-run. The study further explicates how these organizational level outcomes are created, and outlines the major potential challenges in applying peer coaching in a self-managing organization. Finally, this study contributes to the overall dissertation by shedding light on the rarely studied processes of collective leadership development (Lehtonen & Seeck 2022) and well-being in the context of a self-managing organization.

Connection between the three papers of my dissertation

Three studies of this dissertation studied three different coaching forms: executive coaching, intercultural leadership coaching, and peer coaching. They studied them in the organizational context of MNCs, international development organizations and INGOs, and in a self-managing organization respectively. Further, three studies of the dissertation concern different leadership outcomes such as global leader learning, coachee learning, employee proactivity, well-being and collective leadership. Table 7 indicates organizational context, leadership development needs, coaching forms, and leadership outcomes for each of three papers of this dissertation.

Reviewing the extant literature on global leadership development helped me identify the research gap in relation to coaching for leadership development, and address it in two empirical studies in this dissertation. The learning perspective on leadership development I adopted in Paper 1 led me to conceptualize global leadership development as global leader learning. That in turn resulted in my examining coachee learning as a key outcome of intercultural leadership coaching in Paper 2. Additionally, the processual view on leadership development in the review paper led me to adopt a processual view in Paper 3, in order to study the process of well-being creation as an outcome of peer coaching intervention. Further, the review paper outlined that while individual and/or organizational enablers are desirable pre-conditions for facilitating global leader learning, they are not in themselves sufficient. Learning occurs as a result of the interaction of individual and organizational enablers with learning mechanisms. This led me to adopt a configurational perspective on leadership development and employ the fsQCA method in Paper 2, in order to examine how multiple configurations of causal conditions lead to a particular outcome. Although Papers 1 and 3 do not apply configurational theorizing explicitly, they outline several configurations of factors and multiplicity of paths to learning and well-being.

Table 7 Organizational context, leadership development needs, coaching forms, and leadership outcomes in three papers of this dissertation

Paper	Organizational context	Organizational structure	International scope	Leadership development needs	Coaching Form	Leadership outcomes
1	MNC	Hierarchical	Global	Global leadership development	Executive coaching	Global leader learning
2	International development organizations and INGOs	Hierarchical	Global	Leadership development	Intercultural leadership coaching	Coachee learning
3	Self-managing organizations	Flat	Local	Self-leadership development	Peer Coaching	Employee proactivity, well-being, collective leadership

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The main goal of this dissertation is to enhance scholarly understanding of how coaching enables leadership capabilities in contemporary organizations. I pursue this by exploring the dissertation's overall research question: How does coaching enable leadership development in contemporary organizations in local and global contexts? The three studies of my dissertation answer this question from different theoretical and methodological perspectives. They jointly contribute to a broader theoretical understanding of how coaching enables leadership capabilities through innovative forms of coaching in emerging and under-researched organizational contexts. In particular, I examine two innovative forms of coaching, intercultural leadership coaching and intercultural peer coaching, in the highly under-researched contexts of international development organizations, INGOs, and self-managing organizations. The theoretical contributions of my dissertation are grouped into the topic areas within coaching for leadership development to which they contribute most: 1) role of coaching; 2) forms of coaching; 3) success factors of coaching; 4) outcomes of coaching; and 5) methodological contributions to coaching research. I discuss these one by one below. For the individual papers' contributions to the specific literatures beyond the coaching literature, I refer the reader to Chapter 4 of this dissertation.

5.1 Theoretical contributions of the dissertation

1. Role of coaching

The dissertation advances the coaching for leadership development literature by developing the Key Elements of Global Leader Learning model (KEGLL). The model conceptualizes global leadership development as global leader learning from international experience (IE), and specifies coaching as an organizational enabler of global leader learning. This responds to a research call to identify bridging mechanisms between global leaders' individual characteristics and the development of global leadership capabilities (Osland et al. 2018), and to specify the global leader learning process (Osland et al. 2017). Thus, in contrast to other theoretical perspectives on leadership development, including cultural, cognitive, personality traits, social/relational, and political (Vijaiakumar et al. 2018), Paper 1 adopts a learning perspective on leadership development. Drawing on Transformational Learning Theory (TLT), it conceptualizes the global leader learning process as a combination of individual enablers, organizational enablers, and learning mechanisms. Paper 1 found that coaching as an organizational enabler of global leader learning plays a moderating role in facilitating the global leader learning process from IE. Coaching can turn to any of the three learning mechanisms: experiential learning cycle, transformational learning cycle, or social learning process. Which mechanisms are activated depends on the interaction of particular individual and organizational enablers (Fey 2020). By conceptualizing coaching as an important organizational enabler of global leader learning from IE, this dissertation emphasizes the significant potential of coaching in creating the space for global leaders' reflection and enhancing their learning. Despite Paper 1 being situated in a global leadership development context, its findings could be relevant to a broader literature on leadership development, where learning leans on experience and coaching

could facilitate leader learning and, thus, leader development. This useful conceptual finding has helped create the agenda for the rest of my dissertation. The two empirical studies herein are built on the premise of coaching being an effective enabler of leadership development, and they explore different aspects of how coaching can enable leadership development in greater depth.

2. Forms of coaching

Most of the extant coaching for leadership development literature has to date focused on executive and leadership coaching (Jones et al. 2016; De Haan et al. 2020). This dissertation advances the literature by showing that innovative forms of coaching such as intercultural and peer could effectively facilitate leadership development, and by demonstrating how they are conducted. The intercultural dimension of emergent intercultural leadership coaching indicates that coaching for leadership development is becoming more culturally diverse, since it involves coaches and coachees from an increasingly wide range of cultural backgrounds. In particular, it is becoming more accessible to leaders in less developed regions and countries, historically underserved in terms of coaching services. The leadership dimension of intercultural leadership coaching demonstrates that coaching expands from top to lower leadership levels in organizations. Moreover, although more gradual, the growth of peer coaching in organizations indicates that coaching for leadership development is becoming more accessible to ordinary employees who are not in formal leadership roles. These promising tendencies of vertical (to lower levels of the organization) and horizontal expansion (to different countries) of coaching, which we explore in our studies, help outline the possible ways for **coaching for leadership development to become more accessible and inclusive** (Boyatzis et al. 2022).

Further, the ways in which the two innovative forms of coaching we studied are applied do not have to be set in stone. As the innovative peer coaching system at Nitor shows, traditional peer coaching can be flexibly adjusted to a specific organization's needs. For example, peer coaching could be one-directional (one coach and one coachee) instead of traditionally bi-directional (Parker et al. 2015), and offer a choice of a permanent or temporary peer coach. Similarly, intercultural leadership coaching could be offered pro bono and online, as we found with the HCN coaching, instead of delivered in-person and conventionally for financial remuneration. Further, although not explored in this dissertation, these innovative forms could be creatively re-engineered. For instance, combining intercultural leadership coaching with peer coaching could lead to new and innovative forms of intercultural peer coaching or peer coaching among leaders. This dissertation suggests one strength of coaching lies in its **plasticity to adjust to various leadership needs**, thus indicating favorable opportunities to use different forms of coaching within and across organizations to help them flourish. Finally, this dissertation studied two innovative forms of coaching successfully applied in the significantly under-researched contexts of international development organizations and INGOs, and self-managing organizations. Hence, it offers an important contextual contribution by studying coaching for leadership development in these rarely examined contexts, and revealing the growing demand for coaching and its **applicability across a range of organizational contexts.**

3. Success factors of coaching

Next, this dissertation responds to a research call to explore the success factors of coaching for leadership development on the coach's and coachee's sides, and to study their joint effect (Ely et al. 2010). Several new coaching success factors were identified, such as coach-coachee cultural intelligence (CQ) characteristics in intercultural leadership coaching, and the preferred focus/function of peer coaching. In particular, Paper 2 contributes to coaching for leadership development by examining the role of individual components of coach and coachee CQ in the effectiveness of intercultural leadership coaching. Drawing on social exchange theory (SET), Paper 2 finds that metacognitive and motivational CQ, both of coach and coachee, are most important for coachee learning, showing the importance of looking at the different dimensions of CQ and not just CQ on aggregate, something that few existing studies have done (Van der Horst & Albertyn 2018; Coach& Rose 2020). Additionally, the paper's findings indicate the existence of compensatory mechanisms in relation to cognitive and behavioral CQ component, so that cognitive and behavioral CQ become important when metacognitive or motivational CQ is absent. Second, this dissertation contributes to coaching for leadership development with a novel relational view on CQ. While Paper 2 found that coach CQ has a stronger impact on coachee learning, it shows that coachee CQ is also relevant. Therefore, this dissertation adopts a relational rather than conventional coach-centered perspective on CQ, and emphasizes the importance of considering the interaction of coach and coachee CQ components in particular coaching dyads. As coaching for leadership development becomes increasingly global, understanding which factors lead to coaching effectiveness in intercultural settings is essential. Thus, identifying the impact of CQ on the coach's and coachee's sides is a novel and important contribution to the field. These findings could be relevant to other interpersonal and intercultural dyadic relationships, including the fields of global leadership, global virtual teams, intercultural mentoring, and leader-member exchange in intercultural settings.

Further, Paper 3 of this dissertation explored critical success factors of peer coaching in the context of a self-managing organization in Finland. The study found that successful peer coaching interventions are driven by coachees' needs, which are multidimensional and diverse, and attending to those needs is essential for favorable outcomes of the coaching engagements. In particular, for a coach, it is important to identify the coachee's preferred focus area (work, personal, holistic) and stay tuned to the coachee's preferred coaching function (scanning, validating, informing, activating). Alignment with the coachee's dynamic and evolving needs on those two dimensions positively relates to the perceived effectiveness of peer coaching. Although putting the coachee front and center and following their needs is in the nature of coaching engagements, identifying more nuanced characteristics of those needs in peer coaching is valuable, as in contrast to external coaches in leadership coaching, peer coaching is provided by colleagues in the organization. Therefore, the coachee's level of self-disclosure will largely depend on the quality of the relationship between coach and coachee, given the higher demand for confidentiality and greater risk of potential conflict of interests when coached by a colleague within the organization as opposed to an external coach. Further, while coaching engagements in executive coaching are more formalized, with an often pre-defined number, length, and frequency of coaching sessions, Paper 3 advocates an

alternative and more flexible peer coaching design where these characteristics could vary significantly depending on the coachee's preferences and needs.

First, from the overall findings of this dissertation concerning coaching success factors, it can be inferred that **some coaching success factors are likely to be universal, while others are likely more coaching form-specific** (e.g., intercultural leadership coaching vs. peer coaching or another form). For example, a high-quality coaching relationship seems consistently important across various coaching forms. At the same time, coach CQ is important in leadership coaching in intercultural settings but likely not in monocultural settings. Clearly, more research is needed before we could convincingly classify these factors as universal vs. coaching form-specific. Second, new coaching success factors identified by this dissertation add to existing success factors and reflect **the growing diversity of coaching success factors**. The variety of identified coaching success factors has its strengths and weaknesses. On the positive side, it enhances scholarly understanding of coaching success factors (De Haan et al. 2020) across coaching forms, thus helping us design coaching interventions that take these factors into account. The dark side of this diversity is that these success factors could function as thresholds and inhibit coaches' and coachees' effectiveness in particular coaching forms. For example, low CQ could decrease coach and coachee effectiveness in intercultural leadership coaching, while a lack of abilities on the part of a peer coach to follow their peer coachees' preferred focus/function area could lead to decreased outcomes in peer coaching. Third, success factors identified within one coaching form could lead **to cross-fertilization across coaching forms**, and stimulate coaching scholars to examine success factors in other coaching forms. For example, a relational view on CQ, which we identified in intercultural leadership coaching, creates an opportunity to explore a relational view on other success factors in coaching. Thus, instead of exploring the coach's and coachee's characteristics independently, it creates an agenda to study the simultaneous impact of the coach and coachee's similar or different characteristics on coaching effectiveness. Therefore, studying the diversity of coaching forms could furnish coaching scholars with new insights, facilitate cross-fertilization across coaching forms, and enable a better understanding of the boundaries of applicability of coaching success factors across these coaching forms.

4. Coaching outcomes

This dissertation makes a further contribution to coaching for leadership development by highlighting the importance of expanding the range of traditional outcomes of leadership development (e.g., leader performance), to a more holistic understanding of leadership development (Pearce 2007). Therefore, by adopting learning and well-being perspectives on leadership development, the dissertation explores several rarely examined leadership outcomes: global leader learning (Paper 1), leader learning (Paper 2), and employee proactivity, well-being, and collective leadership (Paper 3). After briefly highlighting the papers' individual contributions to coaching for leadership development concerning coaching outcomes, I will discuss their joint relevance for the field.

Both Papers 1 and 2 adopt a learning perspective on leadership development and explore how to enhance leader learning through coaching. The learning perspective on leadership development aligns well with the coaching approach, as learning is a natural

outcome of coaching interventions (Spence et al. 2019). Outcomes of global leader learning, identified by Paper 1, include intercultural competencies, cognitive complexity, and transformed identity. While not in the core focus of Paper 1, they represent essential and complex leadership outcomes which, as the KEGLL model in Paper 1 shows, could be achieved with the help of coaching as an organizational enabler of learning. Coachee learning or leader learning is the key outcome of intercultural leadership coaching in Paper 2. The fsQCA method applied in Paper 2 allows us to identify the configurations of conditions leading to high coachee learning and those leading to the absence of high learning. These configurations are qualitatively different based on the set-theoretic principles of fsQCA.

Further, Paper 3 contributes to the coaching for leadership development literature by exploring employee proactivity and well-being as outcomes of peer coaching on an individual level. Peer coaching studies were mainly conducted in hierarchical organizations and focused on personal and professional development (Parker et al. 2015), and leadership development (Ladyshewsky 2017). There are very few studies on peer coaching with a focus on well-being, and those which do exist are located primarily in the educational and medical settings and have mixed findings (Short et al. 2010). Further, the mechanisms for nurturing employee well-being through peer coaching in organizational settings have not been addressed. In addition, empirical research on peer coaching in self-managing organizations is non-existent. Therefore, this dissertation makes several contributions to the field by exploring the mechanisms for fostering employee proactivity and well-being through peer coaching in a self-managing organization.

Moreover, this dissertation contributes to the coaching for leadership development literature with the interesting and novel finding that peer coaching, in the absence of middle managers, fulfils several leadership functions, and thus could be especially impactful in self-managing organizations (Fey et al. 2022). In particular, by replacing the safety and control leadership function with the coaching function of scanning, the relational function with validating, informational function with sharing, and empowering function with activating. These findings are also important to traditional organizations where leaders are busy or ineffective, and thus not able to totally fulfill their leadership roles.

Further, Paper 3 sheds light on the rarely studied processes of collective leadership development through coaching (Lehtonen & Seeck 2022), revealing the novel indications that peer coaching could be a source of collective leadership development in self-managing organizations. Although Paper 3 uses the term organizational empowerment instead of collective leadership in its conceptual framework, in line with definition of collective leadership as "*networked relationships among individuals that enhance cooperation and resource exchange*" (Day 2000, p.585), it indicates the emergence of collective leadership enhanced by peer coaching in the context of a self-managing organization.

In sum, the above findings concerning the variety of outcomes of coaching for leadership development offer several useful implications for the field. First, despite learning being a natural outcome of coaching, coaching scholars have focused surprisingly little on

learning as a coaching outcome (Spence et al. 2019). Due to the over-emphasis on goal attainment, learning's importance in coaching for leadership development has been under-emphasized (Spence et al. 2019). However, learning outcomes help to predict more distal outcomes of coaching, such as behavior change and results (Ely et al. 2010). Moreover, studying global leader learning and leader learning through different theoretical lenses (transformational learning theory vs. social exchange theory) provides cross-fertilization opportunities to apply **different theories within a learning perspective**, and, therefore, better understand the nature of leader learning.

Next, though the leader's well-being is a highly valuable outcome, as employee well-being positively relates to employee's high performance (Nielsen et al. 2017), the literature on coaching for leadership development has traditionally focused largely on skills attainment and performance outcomes, seldom on well-being outcomes (Passmore 2015). Therefore, Paper 3 expands the traditional scope of leadership outcomes in coaching, adopting a well-being perspective on leadership development and considering well-being an important outcome of coaching for leadership development. The study's novel finding is that **employee well-being could be fostered through employee proactivity**, which is closely associated with self-leadership (Cranmer et al. 2019), facilitated by peer coaching interventions. Thus, this dissertation sheds light on the relationship between self-leadership, well-being, and peer coaching, which thus far has been subtle in the coaching literature.

In sum, studying a range of coaching outcomes (e.g., learning and well-being outcomes) allows for a diversity of theoretical perspectives on coaching for leadership development, and thus contributes to **a more multifaceted, nuanced, and holistic understanding of coaching for leadership development**. Second, it offers insights into a potential **combination of different organizational coaching forms** that can deliver multiple desired outcomes. For example, an employee could participate in intercultural leadership coaching to accomplish coachee learning, and peer coaching to attain well-being. Finally, it creates an opportunity for **cross-fertilization in coaching research on leadership outcomes.** For example, studying well-being as an outcome of intercultural leadership coaching, and peer learning as an outcome of peer coaching.

5. Methodological contributions to coaching research

This dissertation responds to the call to advance the field methodologically (Kotte & Bozer 2022), and makes a methodological contribution. To the best of the author's knowledge, this dissertation is the first to apply the Qualitative Comparative Analysis (fsQCA) method to the coaching literature. Additionally, this is one of the few papers to perform configurational analysis based on individual-level data, and the first study to employ a configurational approach to individual CQ components in the CQ literature. The fsQCA method creates valuable opportunities to examine the patterns of complex causal relationships among coaching success factors, jointly leading to various key coaching outcomes. Moreover, a strength of fsQCA for coaching scholars lies in the opportunity to use small and medium-sized samples. As collecting large samples of data in coaching is challenging due to issues of accessibility and confidentiality (Graßmann & Schermuly 2020), small samples of up to 25 cases and middle-sized samples up to 50

cases (Ragin 2008) could provide an important opportunity to identify the generalizable patterns in the data, based on a smaller sample size than is usually required for variance-based methods. Therefore, I hope the use of fsQCA in this dissertation will inspire many coaching scholars to apply this innovative and promising method in their own coaching research.

5.2 Practical and societal implications

This dissertation has several useful practical and societal implications, primarily of interest to HR professionals responsible for leadership development functions in their organization, executive education institutes, coach training programs, certification institutes, representatives of self-managing organizations or self-managing units in traditional organizations, and reflective practitioners in coaching.

First, identifying coaching as an organizational enabler of global leader learning from IE in Paper 1 indicates the important role of coaching in global leader learning. It can inform HR professionals selecting coaching as a developmental method for leaders. An indication of a moderating role for coaching suggests that coaching interventions benefit leaders by enhancing what they learn through various developmental assignments.

Second, the identification of several types of individual and organizational enablers of global leader learning from IE in Paper 1 can inform HR professionals' recruitment decisions. In particular, it expands the recruitment pool of potential effective global leaders by leveraging different configurations of individual and organizational enablers. Therefore, not only extrovert and open leaders, but also more introvert but reflective and self-efficacious leaders could benefit highly from IE. This could be achieved by adopting a more personalized approach to designing IE interventions, and integrating executive coaching, peer coaching, and other elements of structured corporate programs into less structured interventions, such as long-term international assignments and short-term business travel.

Third, Paper 2 presents the novel findings that individual components of coach CQ are important to coachee learning in intercultural leadership coaching, and have useful implications for coach training and certification institutions. In particular, they are essential in selecting coaches with high CQ for intercultural coaching assignments, designing core curriculums in coach training programs, and for coaching certification institutions setting the requirements for coach competencies. Currently, intercultural competence skills are largely absent from the core modules of coach training programs. More precisely, our findings suggest that in situations where time and resources are limited, the development of coach metacognitive CQ and coach motivational CQ should be prioritized, as they indicate more consistent support for coachee learning. Further, we propose that a relational perspective on CQ suggests the most favorable outcomes for coachee learning are co-created by coach CQ, playing the major role, and coachee CQ playing a secondary role. Therefore, pairing a coach and coachee with high metacognitive and motivational CQ components, and ensuring a high-quality coaching relationship between them, will likely yield the most favorable outcomes in intercultural leadership coaching. Coach training programs should emphasize the importance of developing

high-quality coaching relationships with coachees in intercultural settings, and providing coaches with the necessary tools.

Fourth, intercultural leadership coaching in Paper 2 was studied in the contexts of international development organizations and INGOs, which are critical to societies. It is among the first studies in the coaching literature to address the context of international development organizations, and, in particular, to study UN agencies' leaders in receipt of coaching. I firmly believe the work will encourage many scholars to explore this greatly under-researched context, and deepen the findings of this dissertation in their own work. The effective operation of international development organizations and INGOs is increasingly vital to modern societies. If support can be provided for these leaders, serving in the most complex and isolated locations, to maintain their well-being and enhance performance through coaching, it would positively affect several stakeholders on a large scale.

Fifth, self-managing organizations and self-managing units within more traditional organizations will be most interested in the findings offered by Paper 3. They suggest an innovative way to enable employee proactivity and well-being within a self-managing organization through a peer coaching system, and reveal that peer coaching could become a substitute for formal middle management functions by enabling employee self-leadership and collective leadership. Our findings specify the characteristics that are important to consider when designing a peer coaching system. In particular, rather than establishing the precise stages of the peer coaching process, the findings suggest a more flexible, functional approach, dependent on coachee needs, with some general guidance on how to provide coaching that targets coachee needs. Further, the study indicates a multiplicity of employee paths to well-being, several organization-level outcomes generated by peer coaching, and challenges accompanying the implementation of peer coaching in an organization. Coaching educators could add to their training programs knowledge on what helps peer coaches who are less experienced in coaching itself be effective, for example, insider knowledge of the organization and understanding of the organizational dynamics, thus emphasizing the importance of external coaches paying attention to the organizational context. Additionally, coaching educators could establish peer coaching networks within their coaching programs to enhance sharing and learning, proactivity, and well-being amongst the students.

Overall, the dissertation's findings contribute to more inclusive leadership development (Day et al. 2021), and more inclusive coaching (Boyatzis et al. 2022), by suggesting the engagement of coachees at the different leadership levels in organizations, showing how coaching could be more accessible to leaders from the least developed and least privileged regions of the world, and by shedding light on how to essentially develop a coaching culture (Hawkins 2012) through peer coaching in self-managing organizations. The coachees and coaches taking part in this research represent 74 countries. They include a coach with 15 years of corporate experience in global multinationals in three countries, recognized among 100 female change-makers in the world by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC); a coach from Hungary with more than 1500 hours of coaching practice; a security officer from a UN agency based in war-affected Yemen; and a Finnish software developer without a formal leadership role in a coaching role. This

variety of roles and cultural backgrounds indicates that the coaching practice is expanding, and, importantly, both vertically across leadership levels and horizontally across cultural borders. This advancement provides hope that coaching practice and research will continue to develop and benefit core stakeholders on individual, organizational, and societal levels in the future.

5.3 Limitations and suggestions for future research

Each research work is not without limitations. Here, first, I will discuss the overall limitations for the whole dissertation, and then a few additional recommendations regarding the published Papers 1 and 3, which are not included in the papers themselves. For detailed limitations on each of the three individual papers, I refer the reader to the appropriate paper. First, two innovative forms of coaching, intercultural leadership coaching, and peer coaching, have been studied in contexts where they make specific sense, but the transferability of my findings should be better established. In line with a research call (Kotte & Bozer 2022), future studies should examine the applicability of the coaching forms in different organizational contexts. Second, as a certified coach, I may have approached the topic of coaching for leadership development with a potential bias towards its effectiveness. For example, I chose to study two case organizations that are applying coaching effectively. However, the dark sides of coaching for leadership development have recently been explored (Schermuly & Graßmann 2019). Aside from the challenges for peer coaching discussed in Paper 3, Papers 1 and 2 could benefit from a discussion on the potential dark sides. Third, this dissertation is a composition of three papers, two of which are published and the third has been presented at the 2023 Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management and is included in 2023 Academy of Management Proceedings. During the publishing process, I had to adjust the papers to the requirements of the specific journals concerned. This may have influenced the final versions of the papers, and, thus, their research questions may have a more diverse scope and be less aligned with each other than initially intended.

In particular, it may appear that Paper 3 offers a limited contribution to the dissertation's overall research question. However, I argue it contributes to that question by explicating the role of coaching in self-leadership development as one of the forms of leadership development (Manz & Sims 1980). (For the relationship between proactivity and self-leadership, see p.32 of this dissertation, and Cranmer et al. (2019)). One alternative, therefore, was to formulate the overall research question more specifically. For example, "How does coaching enable leadership development and self-leadership development in contemporary organizations in local and global contexts?" However, as I studied leadership development in Papers 1 and 2 and self-leadership development only in Paper 3, and Paper 3 was only implicitly connected to self-leadership (we referred to proactivity instead of self-leadership in the paper), I opted for the original research question. Future studies employing self-leadership or proactivity should more explicitly connect proactivity with self-leadership, and self-leadership with leadership development.

Suggestions for future research based on individual papers. This dissertation has generated several interesting opportunities for future studies. I will first discuss suggestions for future research based on the individual papers, and then suggest several research avenues based on the overall dissertation. The first area for future research is

related to global leader learning. Here, Paper 1, based on a systematic literature review of global leader learning from IE, indicates the following directions: to examine individual and organizational enablers as antecedents or moderators of global leader learning from IE; study the learning mechanisms of global leaders from IE; expand the methodological base of the studies; examine the moderating role of executive coaching and peer coaching in enhancing global leader learning from IE; study the antecedents of coaching effectiveness and compare the effectiveness of different forms of coaching; and, finally, adopt a research agenda taking into consideration the effects of the Covid-19 pandemic on global leader mobility, and therefore learning.

The second, broader area of suggestions for future studies includes the CQ literature on coaching. Here, Paper 2 outlines the following directions: to examine configurational approaches to individual CQ components, and the relational view on CQ in different organizational contexts, including MNCs and the public sector; examine additional causal conditions, such as coach motivation, coachee credibility, and gender and cultural dyad diversity; and, examine the impact of coach and coachee CQ on other coaching outcomes, such as self-awareness, self-regulation, well-being, work satisfaction, and work performance. Furthermore, our findings suggest that when adopting a relational perspective on CQ, the research may benefit from the consideration of roles, status, and even power relationships between individuals. Therefore, research on the potential impact of roles, status, and power relationships on coaching relationships and outcomes merits greater attention. Further, future studies exploring the role of CQ in coaching, should in addition to fsQCA employ traditional variance-based methods to examine individual effects of coach and coachee CQ on coaching relationships and outcomes.

The third distinct area for future research concerns peer coaching in self-managing organizations and other contexts. In particular, the peer coaching literature should investigate: core characteristics of the coach and coachee, and matching strategies for coach and coachee; effective coaching methodologies; long-term outcomes of peer coaching; the impact of peer coaching on organization-level outcomes; and, the combination of peer coaching with other forms of coaching and other developmental methods in self-managing organizations, and in other organizational contexts. In the light of this dissertation's finding that peer coaching could be a substitute for middle managers, and fulfill several leadership functions, future studies could explore the concept of substitutes for leadership (Kerr & Jermier 1978) from the perspective of peer coaching.

Suggestions for future research based on the overall dissertation. This dissertation gives rise to several interesting research avenues within coaching for leadership development. First, the coaching field would benefit from comparative research identifying and comparing antecedents, processes, and outcomes of coaching across various coaching forms, including: 1) coaching executives vs. coaching leaders; 2) coaching executives on cultural issues vs. coaching executives from different cultural backgrounds; 3) coaching leaders on cultural issues vs. coaching leaders from different cultural backgrounds. This types of comparative studies would advance our understanding of what remains similar and what is different in the coaching process across various coaching forms and organizational contexts.

Further, this dissertation brings together innovative forms of intercultural leadership coaching and peer coaching, and adopts a leadership development perspective to examine them. These coaching forms, however, are usually studied in separate coaching domains. While leadership coaching is commonly related to leadership development, peer coaching has mostly been associated with personal development and well-being, except for Ladyshewsky (2007; 2017) who first connected it to leadership development. Thus, this dissertation creates the foundation for scholars to study peer coaching through the theoretical lens of leadership development, that is, through the self-leadership development perspective in self-managing organizations. Moreover, future research on leadership development could explore peer coaching more generally as an enabler of learning, for example, as an antecedent or moderator of learning.

I have studied the coaching forms in contexts where they make specific sense (e.g., intercultural leadership coaching in global UN agencies and INGOs and peer coaching in a self-managing Finnish digital engineering company), but the transferability or context specificity of my findings open wider avenues for future research. Specifically, future studies should extend this research to learn more about the transferability of the dissertation's findings to other contexts, in particular concerning: 1) coaching as an enabler of learning from IE in the context of MNCs; 2) the relational view of intercultural leadership coaching in the contexts of international development organizations and INGOs; and 3) employee proactivity and well-being as outcomes of peer coaching in the context of self-managing organizations. Finally, the dark sides of intercultural leadership coaching and peer coaching should be examined, for example, the potential negative effects of coaching on psychological well-being, social integration, and performance.

In conclusion, coaching for leadership development is a young but actively growing research field with multiple fascinating research opportunities to contribute to organizations' effective functioning by fully unleashing the leadership potential of individuals and organizations. This dissertation contributes to the field by responding to essential yet unanswered questions, and enhancing our understanding of how coaching enables the leadership capabilities of individuals and organizations beyond mainstream coaching forms and organizational contexts. This, in turn, contributes to more inclusive coaching for leadership development.

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HOW GLOBAL LEADERS LEARN FROM INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE: REVIEWING AND ADVANCING GLOBAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Natalia Fey, Hanken School of Economics

ABSTRACT

International experience has been acknowledged to be the most useful method for developing global leaders. However, not everyone benefits equally from international experience. During the last two decades, our understanding of why this is the case and how global leaders learn from international experience has rapidly increased. Several individual and organizational enablers facilitating global leader learning from international experience have been identified in the literature, as have learning mechanisms that make such learning possible. However, the literature remains fragmented, and there is a great need to integrate the findings in the field. Therefore, the present paper systematically examines peer-reviewed studies on global leaders' learning from international experience published between 1998-2019. The study contributes to the extant literature by identifying and integrating individual enablers, organizational enablers, and key learning mechanisms from global leaders' international experience and by suggesting topics for future research.

Keywords: global leader; global leadership development; developmental method; international experience; learning process; learning mechanism.

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THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM AND THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

"Developing global leader competencies requires fundamental human transformation; it does not involve adding incrementally new techniques to one's managerial skill portfolio."

(Mendenhall, 2006, p.425)

Interest in global leadership development (GLD) is strong today among scholars and practitioners alike, and global training and development constitutes one of the key research areas in the field of global leadership (GL) (Osland, Li & Wang, 2014, Vijaiakumar, Morley, Heraty, Mendenhall, & Osland, 2019). This is not surprising since evidence suggests that a multinational corporation's (MNC's) ability to develop global leaders positively affects its financial performance (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Stroh & Caligiuri, 1998), and the shortage of effective global leaders has been recognized to be a major obstacle facing globally operating companies (Bird &Mendenhall, 2016; PwC, 2017). International experience (IE) has long been recognized as a leading tool for fostering global leaders (Mendenhall, 2008). It is defined in this study as experience gained from living and working outside of a person's home country. IE, however, does not automatically result in increased GL ability unless learning from the experience takes place (Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009a; 2009b; Li, Mobley, Kelly, 2013; Terrell & Rosenbusch, 2013; Walker, 2018). Further, such learning does not always happen, or it happens in varying degrees.

Scholars have identified a variety of individual and organizational factors that facilitate global leader learning from IE. For example, individual factors include extroversion (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009); global competencies (Furuya et al., 2009), divergent learning style (a learning style emphasizing concrete experience and reflective observation) (Li et al., 2009a; 2009b), positive attitude towards learning, engaging in self-reflection (Terrell & Rosenbusch, 2013), self-efficacy (Walker, 2018), and so forth. Key organizational factors are organizational attitude towards international operations, well-crafted international assignment policies, and HR policies (Furuya,

Stevens, Bird, Oddou, & Mendenhall, 2009). Additionally, scholars have suggested several distinct learning mechanisms that facilitate learning from IE including the experiential learning cycle (Pless, Maak, & Stahl, 2011; Li et al, 2013; Woods &Peters, 2014); the transformative learning cycle (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2018); social learning mechanism (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; 2012); the integrative learning ecosystem (Walker, 2018). However, these learning mechanisms have not been previously systematically analyzed and contrasted in the literature on global leader learning. The purpose of the present study is to synthesize the literature on individual and organizational enablers of learning and learning mechanisms of global leaders from IE in the light of recent GLD models (Osland & Bird, 2013; 2018; Mendenhall, Weber, Arnardottir, & Oddou, 2017).

Several earlier literature reviews have provided important groundwork for understanding how global leaders learn from their IE. For example, Suutari (2002) identified the need to understand the relationship between GL development and learning from international assignments. Cumberland, Herd, Alagaraja, and Kerrick (2016) indicated that global leaders learn differently from different developmental methods and classified IE as part of experiential and immersion approaches. Osland & Bird (2013; 2018) discussed three process models of GLD -- the Chattanooga model, the Global Leadership Expertise Development model (GLED), and a Model for Developing Global Executives. The model for Developing Global Executives primarily focuses on the organizational role in developing global leaders, while the GLED model, an extension of Chattanooga model, suggested antecedents, moderators, and outcomes of the process of GL expertise development and classifies them into thematic categories. Both models identified elements of the transformational process such as experiences, challenges, encounters and decisions, and emphasize the role of CAIR factors (complexity, affect, intensity, relevance) in moderating expertise development in global leaders. Mendenhall et al. (2017) reviewed existing

GLD models and highlighted the staged nature of these models which consisted of antecedents, transformational process, outcomes and moderators. Further, Mendenhall et al. (2017) were the first to specify the GLD process and to provide testable propositions in their Global Leadership Competency Development Process Model based on Transformational Learning Theory (Mezirow, 1978). Additionally, in their review of developmental methods, Oddou and Mendenhall (2008; 2018) categorized IE as part of the experiential approach and delineated the transformational learning process of global leaders. They suggested three stages of the transformational learning process such as contract, confrontation, and remapping (earlier introduced by Black & Gregersen, 2002) and pointed out that global leaders' transformational learning is initiated by a trigger event.

However, no reviews known to the author have attempted to systematically map and synthesize the extant literature on either individual or organizational factors that enable global leader learning or the different learning mechanisms which can help facilitate global leaders' learning process. Therefore, following Osland, Li, Petrone, & Mendenhall's (2018) call to identify bridging mechanisms between individual-level dispositions and the development of GL capabilities, and Osland, Li, and Mendenhall's (2017) call to specify the learning processes of global leaders, the key aim of this study is to integrate the extant literature on various factors enabling global leader learning from IE and on different learning mechanisms involved in learning process. The GLED model (Osland & Bird, 2018) was a helpful starting point to inform the author's effort to categorize individual and organizational factors enabling learning of global leaders, and the Process Model of Global Leadership Competency Development (Mendenhall et al., 2017) served as a beacon, guiding this study in its endeavor to identify and synthesize the variety of learning mechanisms global leaders use to learn from IE.

Thus, the present paper systematically synthesizes peer-reviewed studies on GL's development published between 1998-2019 and explores the following research question: *What are the key individual enablers, organizational enablers, and learning mechanisms for the method of IE in the domain of global leadership?* The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: a methodology section, results section and a discussion section that concludes with the study's contributions and implications, limitations, and suggestions for future study.

METHODOLOGY

This section explains how the studies for the literature review were selected and analyzed and presents the organizing framework used to report key findings. This study adopts Reiche, Bird, Mendenhall, and Osland's (2017, p.556) definition of global leaders which suggests they are *"individuals who influence 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."* They argue that the challenges facing global leaders differ in degree and in kind from the challenges leaders face in a domestic context (Bird & Osland, 2004; Osland, J., Bird, Mendenhall & Osland, A., 2006).

Data Collection

To identify relevant articles, the author performed an article search in the databases SCOPUS, EBSCO, ProQuest, and Google Scholar using the key words '*global leader'* or '*global manager' or 'global executive' or 'global leadership competencies'* in combination with at least one of the following words: *'IE'* or '*developmental method'* or *'learning process' or 'learning mechanisms'* in the article titles, keywords, abstracts, or, in the absence of an abstract, in the introduction. Searching these databases is a common practice in contemporary literature reviews. Articles had to satisfy the following four criteria.

1. The paper had to be peer-reviewed, written in English, and in the fields of HRM, management, leadership, international business, or psychology. Books, book chapters, PhD dissertations and conferences papers were excluded to ensure a consistent high quality in the reviewed studies.
2. The article had to describe the method of IE for developing global leaders. Studies describing IE among other methods for developing global leaders were included, but not studies with only brief mentions of IE for developing global leaders. Studies focused on multicultural teams were excluded as their leaders, and virtual teams warrant separate investigation.
3. Articles on expatriates or host country managers working for foreign companies that were not explicitly defined as global leaders/managers were excluded because not all expatriates are global leaders (Bird & Osland, 2004) or are being developed as global leaders.
4. Studies using MBA/EMBA students were included, but not studies based on bachelor and master students in non-MBA business master's programs or other disciplines. This was done in response to calls for studying managerial rather than student samples (Clapp-Smith & Wernsing, 2014; Ott & Michailova, 2018) and to ensure that the article's findings are relevant for organizations trying to develop global leaders. For example, in studies of the effect of IE on expatriates and business travellers' CQ results, both Gupta, Singh, Jandhyala, & Blatt (2013) and Tay, Westerman, & Chia (2008) reported results different from similar studies on student samples. Furthermore, global leaders are often senior leaders; using students with little work experience as proxies for global leaders in firms may introduce error. Therefore, in spite of a significant increase in recent studies exploring the development of GL capabilities through IE in business schools (e.g. Mendenhall,

Arnardottir, Oddou, & Burke, 2013; Lokkesmoe, Kuchinke, & Ardichvili, 2016; Karla et al., 2018; Osland et al., 2018; Quirk & Gustafson, 2018; Rowe et al. 2018), these studies were excluded to ensure studying of managerial samples.

Data Analysis

After applying the above-described criteria for the selection process 42 studies remained and formed the basis of the final in-depth analysis. The author screened each article to extract information about the author(s), year of publication, journal, type of study, type of IE explored, type of GL competencies explored, conceptual framework used, and the study's findings. These 42 studies, published from 1998 to 2019, are broadly distributed across 20 journals. *Advances in Global Leadership*, which published 28.6 % (n=12) of these articles, is by far home to the largest number of these studies. Another five journals have at least two publications each: *Organizational Dynamics* (n=5), *Human Resources Management* (n=4), *Academy of Management Learning & Education* (n=3), *Journal of World Business* (n=2), and *Journal of Management Development* (n=2). The remaining 14 studies have been published in 14 different journals.

Categorization of the 42 studies revealed that 21 studies are conceptual (See Table A1 in Appendix A for a list of conceptual studies) and 21 studies are empirical (See Tables A2 and A3 in Appendix A for lists of quantitative & mixed method and qualitative studies respectively). Among the 21 empirical studies, 11 are qualitative (52.3%), 7 are quantitative (33.3%), and 3 use mixed methods (14.3%), confirming the primarily qualitative nature of the extant GLD literature. This could be attributed to the complexity of conducting research in a global business setting, the difficulty of accessing large and relevant samples of global leaders, and the fact that dynamic, emerging and non-linear GLD processes could be challenging to clearly specify and investigate quantitatively with a limited number of constructs.

The identified studies explored the development of different types of GL competencies and other outcomes of learning through different types of IE (from long-term international assignment to short-term business travel). The papers were categorized in Table 1 into one of three types of IE: international assignments (n=26); international corporate training programs (n=14); and short-term business travel (n=2).

INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

The rationale for this categorization is the following: the GLD literature distinguishes several developmental approaches such as self-awareness, didactic, experiential and immersion (Cumberland et al., 2016), which are the most suitable for development of particular capabilities. For example, the experiential approach enhances skills and abilities, while the immersion approach influences knowledge, skills, abilities and, to some degree, personality characteristics (Caligiuri, 2006). Long-term international assignment represents the immersion approach, while short-term business trips and international corporate training programs reflect the experiential approach (Cumberland et al., 2016). Thus, synthesis and comparison of the enablers and learning mechanisms for three types of IE sheds light on whether/how learning processes within experiential and immersion approaches differ.

Out of 21 empirical studies 18 studies (85.7%) use samples with global leaders and only three studies use samples with MBA students (see Tables A2 in Appendix A for a description of the samples). Thus, it is fair to say that this literature review is based on managerial samples. Finally, all studies were categorized based on their use of one or more of the four different types of core GL competencies most frequently used in the extant literature -- GL competencies, cultural intelligence (CQ), global mindset, and other specific cross-cultural competencies (Bird, 2018). Jokinen (2005) originally noted and Yari, Lankut, Alon, & Richter (2020) confirmed substantial

overlaps among these competences. Due to space limitations, global leader learning in relation to each of the four types of identified GL competencies are not discussed in detail.

The qualitative nature of the studies led the author to employ content analysis of the data. The author closely read each paper, codifying all material relating to global leader learning from IE with special attention to diverse factors enabling the learning of global leaders and the mechanisms facilitating the learning process. Only seven quantitative studies and three mixed method studies explored global leader learning quantitatively (See Table A2 for a list of quantitative studies). The rest of the studies were qualitative and used words similar to 'enable', 'facilitate', 'enhance' to indicate that these factors were found to be important for global leader learning. Therefore, through performing a qualitative content analysis and categorizing all data to the themes and sub-themes, the author identified two distinct groups enhancing global leader's learning: 1) *individual enablers of learning* and 2) *organizational enablers of learning.* Individual enablers of learning are defined as individual-level factors that enable global leader learning, while organizational enablers are organization-level factors performing the same function. Individual enablers were further categorized into five sub-categories: 1) *personal traits*, 2) *individual capabilities*, 3) *learning ability*, *4) learning behaviors,* and *5) attitude to learning*. Organizational enablers of learning were further categorized into two sub-categories: 1) *developmental qualities of the method*, and 2) *organizational support* (See Figure 1).

Additionally, content analysis of the reviewed studies revealed that individual and organizational enablers alone are not sufficient to guarantee learning outcomes. For high learning outcomes to occur, the correct *learning mechanisms* to produce learning also seem to be important. In this study *learning mechanism* is defined as a specific mechanism through which learning takes place during a developmental method (Pless et al., 2011). The next section presents the content

analysis results of the reviewed articles. The key individual and organizational enablers and learning mechanisms are presented for three types of IE.

CONTENT ANALYSIS RESULTS

Overall, studies on the IE of global leaders are unequally spread across the three different types of IE. Twenty-six studies (62%; 16 conceptual and 10 empirical studies) explore how learning occurs during international assignments or how it occurs through a combination of methods where international assignments is one of several key methods. Fourteen studies (33%; 2 conceptual and 12 empirical) explore how learning occurs during international corporate training programs, and only 2 studies (5%; 1 conceptual and 1 empirical) explore how learning occurs during short-term business travel. In addition, international assignments were more frequently explored in conceptual articles, while international corporate training programs were more frequently explored in articles mainly based on case-studies.

International Assignment as a Learning Environment

Long-term international assignments are characterized by both the intensity and the length of the cultural experience. According to Mendenhall & Stahl (2000), an international assignment is the laboratory where global leaders learn, practice, develop, and master their capabilities. In particular, core GL competencies such as cognitive complexity, behavioral complexity, cross-cultural skills, business savvy, and the ability to manage uncertainty can be developed through international assignments (Osland, 2001). International assignments have created more scholarly interest than any other types of IE (See Table 1). This is not surprising since the investment for this type of IE is greater than other kinds of IE.

Individual Enablers of Learning from International Assignment

All five types of individual enablers and both types of organizational enablers play important roles in enhancing global leader learning from international assignments (see Table A4 in Appendix A for the content analysis results).

Personal Traits. Three conceptual studies (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002; Caliguiri, 2006; 2013), Four quantitative studies (Furuya et al., 2009; Caligiuri & Tarique 2009; 2012; Gerrard, 2011), and two mixed method studies (Gregersen, Morrison, & Black, 1998; Caliguiri & DiSanto, 2001) explored the role of personal traits in global leader learning. The empirical evidence to date is mixed. For example, Caligiuri & Tarique (2009) reported that extroversion moderates global leader effectiveness as a result of receiving high contact experience, but they (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012) subsequently found that extroversion and openness are predictors of global leader's dynamic cross-cultural competencies (and, therefore, global leader effectiveness). Additionally, Furuya et al. (2009) reported that personal traits in the form of global competencies categorized as perception management, relationship management and self-management and measured by the Global Competency Inventory (GCI) (Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens & Oddou, 2010) predicted higher global management competencies learning, higher global management competencies transfer and increased job performance after repatriation. Although Gerrard (2009) did not confirm that personal traits influence global leader performance, she indicated that emotional stability negatively correlates with withdrawal from international assignments. It would be helpful to further explore personal traits as antecedents or moderators in empirical studies.

Individual Capabilities. In their conceptual studies scholars have also highlighted the role of other individual capabilities for global leader learning and effectiveness, e.g., cognitive complexity (Hollenbeck & McCall, 2003); self-awareness and foreign language skills (Alon & Higgins, 2005). In their quantitative study Caliguiri & Tarique (2012) found that dynamic cross-cultural

competencies (tolerance of ambiguity, cultural flexibility and low ethnocentrism) predict global leader effectiveness. Interestingly, self-efficacy, explored in relation to international corporate training programs, has not been studied in relation to international assignments and presents a research opportunity (See Table A4).

Learning Ability. In their quantitative study, Li et al. (2013) applied Experiential Learning Theory (Kolb, 1984) to explain the link between IE and CQ of global leaders. They found that learning ability in the form of a divergent learning style moderates learning from IE and enhances CQ of global leaders. Other scholars have also applied Experiential Learning Theory but proposed conceptually different relationships. Ng et al. (2009a; 2009b) suggested that CQ moderates experiential learning and that a higher level of CQ predicts higher learning from IE. Lovvorn and Chen (2011) suggested that CQ both mediates and moderates the development of global mindset of global leaders. Empirically clarifying the role of CQ in the global leader learning presents another research opportunity.

Learning Behaviors. Only one qualitative study to date explored the learning behaviors of global leaders (Terrell & Rosenbusch, 2013) and found that intuitive and dynamic learning, learning in the moment and adapted to a particular situation, as well as engaging in self-reflection and generalization of the learnings to other situations, yields results for global leaders. Additionally, scholars argued conceptually that the following learning behaviors enhance global leader learning: learning how to learn (Hall, Zhu, & Yan, 2001); cultivating self-awareness (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002), engaging in a sense-making process and self-reflection (Kohonen, 2005), interacting with locals (Lovvorn & Chen, 2011); experimenting with new ideas (Tung, 2014), and applying learnings in real life (Oliver, Church, Lewis & Desrosiers, 2009). The field needs more conceptual and empirical studies devoted to this individual enabler.

Learning Attitude. Last, but not least in the group of individual enablers of global leader learning is learning attitude. Considering the decisive role of motivation in leader development (Guillen et al., 2015), we still know surprisingly little about the role of motivation in global leader learning from international assignments. In their conceptual studies, Kohonen (2005) emphasized the importance of willingness to explore and reshape identity; Hollenbeck & McCall (2003) and Conger (2014) stressed the importance of motivation to work abroad and to lead in an international business environment. Additionally, in their qualitative study, Terrell & Rosenbusch (2013) highlighted the role of positive attitude towards learning. Although their study was not included in this review since it does not focus on global leader learning during an assignment, Bjorkman & Mäkela's (2013) quantitative study could inform future research on learning attitude of global leaders. They found that such factors as formal identification as talented, identification with corporate values, and perception of the effectiveness of international assignments positively affect the willingness of global leaders to take on challenging international assignments.

To sum up, current empirical evidence indicates that extroverted, open-minded, and emotionally-stable global leaders (Caliguiri, 2009; 2012) who possess the set of global competencies measured by the GCI (Furuya et al., 2009) and have a positive attitude towards learning (Terrell & Rosenbusch, 2013) and a divergent learning style (Li et al., 2013) benefit more from international assignments. However, since only a limited number of global leaders possess these particular traits, abilities, and attitudes, certainly the demand for such global leaders is greater than the supply. This is why the identification of five different groups of enablers--personal traits, individual capabilities, learning ability, learning behaviors, and learning attitude--could expand the pool of potential effective global leaders. When global leaders do not possess extroversion and openness, which are important for the success of global leaders but difficult to develop

(Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012), they could potentially compensate for this lack by developing other capabilities. For example, by developing individual capabilities like self-awareness, self-efficacy, and cognitive complexity, or by strengthening the motivation to be a global leader by identifying what truly motivates him/her to take on an assignment (Guillen, Mayo, & Korotov, 2015). Investing efforts in developing a divergent learning style and practising learning behaviors could potentially provide another way to compensate for the lack of requisite personal traits or other individual characteristics. Although, some scholars argue that, it is not so much possessing a specific set of competencies that is important, but rather the results a global leader can deliver, and that similar results could be achieved by global leaders with different sets of competencies (Hollenbeck & McCall, 2003), certain requisite competencies measured, e.g., by the GCI (Bird et al., 2010) and the GELI (Kets de Vries, Vrignaud & Florent-Tracy, 2004) are important for any global leader. Thus, scholars in global leadership development now face the exciting task of clarifying the role of different individual enablers in global leader learning from IE.

Organizational Enablers of Learning from International Assignment

Interestingly, all 42 studies have suggested at least one organizational enabler. Content analysis revealed that two groups of organizational enablers have the potential to influence global leader learning from international assignments: developmental qualities of international assignments and organizational support before, during, and after international assignments (see Table A5 in Appendix A for the content analysis results).

Developmental Qualities of International Assignments. Several empirical studies emphasize the developmental qualities of IE. In their seminal quantitative studies, Caligiuri & Tarique (2009; 2012) reported the importance of high contact/ high challenge work and non-work cross-cultural experiences for global leader learning and effectiveness. Further, in their qualitative work, Terrell

and Rosenbusch (2013) concluded that global leaders develop through first-hand cross-cultural experience enhanced by reflection. Additionally, many conceptual studies have articulated the importance of the developmental dimension of international assignment. For example, Hall et al. (2001) were among the first to propose an employee-centered perspective on international assignments, suggesting that international assignments be reconceptualized by including global leader learning as one of their performance indicators and rewarding them for developmental experience. Further, Caligiuri (2013) emphasized the importance of the quality of an IE over the quantity of IE, and they suggested peer-collaboration and immediate feedback as key factors that affected global leader's learning (Caligiuri, 2013). Although important steps have been taken by scholars to decode the role of developmental qualities of assignments in global leader learning, much work in examining the role of different developmental qualities in global leader learning is still ahead of us.

Organizational Support. Organizational support is another organizational enabler that has received much attention from scholars doing qualitative research. The empirical effort by Furuya et al. (2009), however, stands out as the first and only quantitative study to date on the role of organizational support. Furuya et al. (2009) reported the positive effect of organizational attitude towards its international operations, HR policies, and international assignment policies on global leader learning. In their conceptual studies, scholars suggested additional ways to ensure organizational support for global leaders such as: ensuring the adaptability of a leader's family (Gregersen et al., 1998), developing an organizational environment that supports diversity, assigning a local mentor (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002), demonstrating the link between the high CQ of global leaders and future career success (Alon & Higgins, 2005); creating a supportive organizational culture, involving senior leaders, direct supervisors, and colleagues (Caligiuri,

2013); talent monitoring, introducing performance scorecards, and repatriation policies (Conger, 2014). Additionally, the selection (Caliguiri, 2006; 2009; 2012) and repatriation of global leaders (Gregersen et al, 1998; Furuya et al, 2009, Conger, 2014) have been repeatedly mentioned as factors facilitating global leaders' effectiveness.

Learning Mechanisms of Global Leaders from International Experience

While the majority of the reviewed studies focused on individual and organizational enablers of global leader learning from IE, fewer studies have attempted to open the black box and theoretically explore the *learning mechanisms* that facilitate the learning process. However, it is essential to develop a better understanding of how the learning process of global leaders unfolds (Mendenhall et al., 2017). Although these studies are few in number, they use a variety of theoretical lenses to explain the learning processes of global leaders.

Three key learning mechanisms were identified in the reviewed literature: 1) The experiential learning cycle; 2) The transformational learning cycle; and; 3) The social learning process (See Table A6 and A7 in Appendix A for details), are briefly reviewed below.

The Experiential Learning Cycle. The experiential learning cycle is explained through experiential learning theory (ELT), developed by Kolb (1984). It is a 4-stage learning cycle in which a specific concrete experience is followed by a stage of observation and reflection, which can lead to the abstract conceptualization stage in which generalizations are formed, followed by hypotheses about future actions that are tested in the final active experimentation stage – resulting in knowledge. Several reviewed studies utilized ELT and the experiential learning cycle to explain how learning occurs in global leaders, e.g. (Li, 2009; Li et al., 2013, Ng et al., 2009a; 2009b, Walker, 2018). They all used ELT to explain different relationships. As noted previously, Li (2009) and her colleagues (Li et al.; 2013) use ELT to explain how the application of a divergent learning

style (which emphasizes both concrete experience and reflective observation) strengthens the positive relationship between the length of IE and global leader's CQ, while Ng et al. (2009a; 2009b) use ELT to explain how CQ moderates a global leader's experiential learning.

The Social Learning Process. Based on Bandura's social learning theory (1975) social learning occurs by thoroughly observing others and interacting with peers, coaches, and mentors. Social learning occurs through the attention – retention – reproduction process in global leaders. Only three empirical studies by Caligiuri and Tarigue (2009, 2012) and Walker (2018) applied this theoretical lens to examine social learning mechanisms. As global leaders spend more and more time in collaborative work (Huesing & Ludema, 2017), developing the ability to learn through observing others and interacting with others cannot be undermined. To date this theoretical lens (social learning theory) and social cognitive theory which evolved from it have not received the attention they have received in neighboring fields. We hope these useful theories will be discovered by more scholars in the future.

The Transformational Learning Cycle. The transformational learning cycle is built on Mezirow's (1978) transformational learning theory (TLT) and presents 10 phases of transformative learning triggered by a disorienting dilemma. These include some typical aspects of personal growth, such as self-examination, a critical assessment of one's assumptions, options of new behavior and perspectives, planning a course of action, and acquiring new skills etc. This 10-stage cycle was later reduced to a 4-stage process (Mezirow, 1997) that resembles the experiential learning cycle on the surface. However, the differences among these learning mechanisms are substantial as the transformative learning cycle creates a foundation for transformational learning while the experiential learning cycle generates learning that is not necessarily transformational (Ensign, 2019b). Widely used in the education field and in the adult learning literature, transformational

learning theory has been rarely applied in the global leadership literature, but it offers great potential for helping in revealing the learning processes of global leaders. For exceptions see Mendenhall et al. (2017), Oddou & Mendenhall (2013; 2018), and Ensign (2019b). This theory has not yet been used in quantitative GL studies. The first attempt to examine it qualitatively was done by Ensign (2019a; 2019b) in her Ph.D. dissertation. In addition to the above established theories, scholars have suggested multiple non-theoretical mechanisms for explaining how learning occurs in global leaders (See Table A6 in Appendix A for other learning mechanisms).The research on learning mechanisms in GLD can be summarized as follows: Different learning mechanisms could occur during an international assignment. The experiential learning cycle has been more frequently examined in studies, with social learning mechanism being less frequently examined, and with transformational learning cycle being rarely examined. No study to date has explored if different learning mechanisms could occur in the same global leader over time and if these learning mechanisms could be examined quantitatively. The author will now overview how global leaders learn from two additional types of IE --international corporate training programs and short-term business travels.

International Corporate Training Program as a Learning Environment

Global Leadership Development Programs (GLDPs), International Service Learning Programs (ISLPs), and MBA-study tour constitute another type of IE explored in this study. GLDPs are 12-18 month-long international corporate programs created either for high-potential future global leaders or for senior global leaders with international experience embedded into the programs. ISLPs have the purpose of fostering responsible global leaders through involvement in non-profitable projects in distant developing countries with the goal of solving socially meaningful and ethically-challenging problems. They have recently gained popularity in corporations such as IBM,

Glaxo Smith Klein, and Cigna (Raver & Dyne, 2018). MBA study-tours are short-term immersive travel abroad experiences that take place within MBA programs. They are normally between 1-8 weeks in length. Participants of MBA study tours are adult students with at least several years of work experience which explains their inclusion in this review. Fourteen studies explored global leader learning from GLDPs (n=8), ISLPs (n=3), and MBA-study tours (n=3). Most of the extant studies on GLDPs are case studies of concrete developmental initiatives in organizations and are qualitative in nature. Specifically, nine studies are qualitative (64.4%), two studies are quantitative (14.3%), one study is a mixed method study (7%) and only two studies are conceptual (14,3%). (See Table A3 in Appendix A for a list of qualitative studies).

Individual and Organizational Enablers and Learning Mechanisms

Scholars exploring global leader learning from international corporate training programs have mainly focused on the role of the developmental qualities. For example, they explored the importance of combining different developmental methods (DiStefano & Maznevski, 2003); aligning developmental talks with the personal developmental trajectories of global leaders (Day & Barney, 2012); embedding the tasks which arouse strong emotions (Pless et al., 2011, Walker, 2018) and ensuring peer-to-peer learning and networking (Tracy, 2018). Studies focused less on organizational support during a structured program. However, those that focused on it, concluded that organizational support is essential for the program success. Scholars have also explored the role of learning behaviors, such as learning through creating paradoxical experiences, constructing a new life-world (Pless et al, 2011), and mindfulness (Tuleja, 2014). To date, however, studies have not discussed learning ability or considered in depth the role of personal traits, individual capabilities, and leaders' motivation. Similar learning mechanisms such as the experiential learning cycle and the social learning process have been found to enhance learning from structured

corporate programs; therefore, they are not specified again in this category (See Table A6 in Appendix for a description of learning mechanisms.

In summary, studies in this group are occupied with program design and delivery and with learning behaviors of global leaders. They pay less attention to participants' individual characteristics, capabilities, and to their learning attitude. Studies tend to emphasize the use of an experiential multi-method training approach in program design and either apply experiential learning theory or are atheoretical. Therefore, identifying additional individual and organizational enablers as well as learning mechanisms for global leader learning from international corporate training programs could be a fruitful research avenue.

Short-term Business Travel as a Learning Environment

Short-term business travel has been frequently proposed in recent years as a yet unexplored alternative to long-term international assignments. While long-term international assignments generate significant benefits, they also have many constraints for both organizations and their assignees (Johnston, 2014; Conger, 2014). For example, it is often difficult for an assignee's family to arrange to travel long-term due to dual careers and schooling issues, and the home organization frequently finds it difficult to do without key employees for a long period of time. As a result, short-term business travel is a logical alternative even if the longer alternatives discussed above might produce somewhat better results in terms of developing global leaders. However, a dearth of research on short-term business travel exists. To date, the conceptual study by Oddou et al. (2000) and the qualitative study by Johnston (2014) are the only studies that address this type of IE in depth. Both studies recommend that short-term business travel has high potential for developing GL competencies and global mindset and that its developmental potential is not fully utilized by most companies.

Individual and Organizational Enablers and Learning Mechanisms

Oddou et al. (2000) suggested openness and curiosity to be important personal traits; cultural sensitivity to be an important individual capability for global leader; observing, asking questions, writing a journal to be important learning behaviors; and willingness to stretch mental map to be an important learning attitude (Oddou, 2000). Additionally, Johnston (2014) stressed the importance of developing centralized corporate travel policies to establish the correct expectations and to ensure travel is designed in a way that has the highest chance of maximizing the developmental qualities of short-term IE. Although Oddou et al. (2000) emphasized that high-quality short-term business travel can become a source of transformational experience and, therefore, learning, they did not specify potential learning mechanisms and theoretical lenses to utilize. Further, Johnston (2014) reveals that some global leaders perceive learning more as an event that occurs as a result of a critical incident, while other global leaders perceive it more as a process and evolution of their continuous sense-making process. She applied the concepts of cosmopolitanism and cognitive complexity (Levy et al., 2007), and sensemaking behavior (Osland & Bird, 2000) to reveal five stages of global leader learning, namely: embark on travel, build relationships, seek deeper understanding, integrate and transfer experience to new context, and be open to additional learning. In sum, the short-term business travel as an IE has received very little attention. More research is needed in this stream to identify individual and organizational enablers and the learning processes that occur during short-term business travel and compare them to learning processes occurring during international assignments and corporate training programs.

SYNTHESIS AND DISCUSSION

Scholars have mainly focused on the role of international assignments and international corporate training programs in global leader learning and have mostly ignored the role of short-term business travel. They have started to decode how global leaders learn from international assignments and have successfully examined a number of individual and organizational enablers as well as learning mechanisms occurring in global leaders during international assignments. Additionally, scholars have actively addressed organizational enablers of global leader learning from international corporate training programs, but they mainly ignored personal enablers and learning mechanisms. Only few individual and organizational enablers of learning from short-term business travel were discussed with learning mechanisms not yet receiving scholarly attention. Due to the unequal attention payed to the three types of IE and little comparative research on the types of IE, useful comparison of individual and organizational enablers, as well as learning mechanisms, could only be partially done.

This comparison shows that potentially all five groups of individual enablers and two groups of organizational enablers could influence global leader learning from the three types of IE, but their effect should be further explored. However, findings show that the role of individual and organizational enablers could differ for different types of IE, with both individual and organizational enablers playing important role in global leader learning from international assignment and short-term business travel. Organizational enablers overweight the role of individual enablers in global leader learning from international corporate training programs. Whether it has more to do with researchers' choices than with the actual phenomena needs to be continued to be explored in future research.

The comparison of learning mechanisms reveals that the experiential learning cycle, the transformational learning cycle, and social learning mechanism could explain global leader learning from international assignments, whereas only experiential learning cycle to date explains global leader learning from international corporate training programs. As mentioned above, it is early to say whether it is due to the types of IE being predisposed to certain learning processes occurring or due to limitations of the studies in the field. Nevertheless, we suggest individual and organizational enablers as well as learning mechanisms to be critical elements of global leaders' learning process.

Thus, the author proposes a conceptual model of the Key Elements of Global Leaders' Learning process (KEGLL) for each of three types of IE building on the results of two extant models: Osland and Bird's (2018) GLED model and Mendenhall et al.'s (2017) Global Leadership Competency Development Process Model and insights gained from this literature review. The KEGLL model (Figure 1) is based on Transformational Learning Theory (Mezirow, 1978) and integrates individual and organizational factors and learning mechanisms relevant for the learning process of global leaders. It aims to increase our understanding of the nature of the relationship between IE and the outcomes of global leader learning.

INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

First, the KEGLL model extends our understanding of the catalysts of experience (CAIR) in the GLED model (Osland & Bird, 2018). CAIR elements represent: complexity (C) – the complexity of tasks, affect (A)– the potential to arise emotional response and evoke deep learnings in a global leader, intensity (I) – the intensity of interaction with locals, the degree of job challenge, and relevance (R) – the relevance of the developmental tasks and qualities of the international assignment. These four catalysts of the experience in the GLED model are represented by the

following similar elements in the KEGLL model: developmental qualities of the international assignment (complexity), attitude towards learning (affect), individual capabilities (intensity), and organizational attitude (relevance). For example, the developmental qualities of IE are represented by high-contact experiences and by exposure to "stretching" assignments (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009) and thus correspond to certain developmental potential or the level of complexity to be decoded by a leader; attitude to learning corresponds to a drive to learn (Conger, 2014) or an affect; the level of individual capabilities corresponds to a level of intensity of experience, and organizational attitude towards international operations (Furuya et al., 2009) corresponds to the relevance of the experience. In other words, by matching these four pairs of elements the author suggests that the transformational power of experience, and hence, the outcomes of the learning from a challenging IE, depend not only on developmental qualities of an IE, but also on individual capabilities of global leaders in relation to this IE. Therefore, the same IE will result in different degree of transformation for leaders with different individual capabilities.

Second, the proposed KEGLL model extends Mendenhall et al.'s (2017) model by introducing a greater variety of potential learning mechanisms and suggests that individual and organizational enablers facilitate the learning process of global leaders and could play the role of antecedents or moderators of the learning process (Mendenhall et al., 2017). Furthermore, different learning mechanisms could be triggered as a result of individual and organizational enablers and their interaction. Importantly, involving multiple individual and organizational enablers could potentially trigger transformational experiences in global leaders and, therefore, lead to transformational learning. The KEGLL model identifies the variety of learning processes that could occur in a global leader and thus, suggests increased possibilities for global leaders' successful learning from IE. Last, but not least, the KEGLL model empowers global leaders to

take responsibility for their own learning. This could be done by encouraging global leaders to increase self-awareness about their learning ability, learning attitude, and learning behaviors through self-reflection and external feedback about their learning processes.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

The following topics for further study are suggested as being particularly useful for enhancing the understanding of the process of global leader learning from IE:

Individual and Organizational Enablers as Antecedents

- GL scholars have suggested more than 260 competencies of an effective global leader (Bird, 2018). However, exploratory research on GLD done to date examined only a limited number of competencies which positively effect global leader learning, e g., global competencies (perception management, relationship management, and self-management), openness and extroversion, a strong drive to learn, and a divergent learning style. Thus, there is a need to further explore the individual enablers of global leader learning from IE in order to develop a more detailed understanding of their role in global leader learning. Do they predict or moderate global leader learning from IE and under what conditions are they moderators and antecedents?
- Future research is needed to explicitly explore interaction of which individual and organizational enablers best predict the IE-global leader learning relationship. In their work Caligiuri and Tarique (2012) confirmed the direct effect of extroversion, openness, high contact work and non-work cultural experiences. Future studies are encouraged to explore the relative importance of other developmental qualities or organizational support enablers.
- Extant research has focused on learning from long-term assignments, but short-term business travel is much more prevalent and cost/time efficient. Therefore, more research is needed on

how to facilitate learning from short-term business travel. A comparison of the learning enablers and learning outcomes from long-term and short-term IE would also be useful.

- There is a need to identify better scales to measure the developmental qualities of IE and potentially improved scales to measure organizational support. This would permit comparative research to define which types of organizational support are effective (Furuya et al., 2009).

Individual and Organizational Enablers as Moderators

- Future research is needed to expand the work begun by Caliguiri and Tarique (2009) to explicitly determine which individual and organizational enablers moderate the IE-learning relationship. However, they only explore the role of one individual enabler as a moderator and the potential moderating roles of many more individual and organizational enablers needs to be explored. Future studies need to identify and rank all enablers in terms of effectiveness.

The Learning Mechanisms of Global Leaders from International Experience

- The identification of three learning mechanisms raises a myriad of interesting questions. For example, which learning mechanisms are most effective to facilitate global leader learning?
- It would be useful to explore if global leaders able to choose which learning mechanism they use or is it pre-determined as a result of an interaction of individual and organizational enablers?
- Future research should explore how aware are global leaders of the learning mechanism they use? How important it is to be aware about this?
- If a certain learning mechanism is a result of an interaction of individual and organizational enablers, what is a correspondence between a global leader's particular set of individual and the organization enablers and a learning mechanism they activate?
- Are some individual or organizational enablers more essential than other individual or organizational enablers to activate a learning mechanism?

- Are individual enablers more influential than organizational enablers in "turning on" a learning mechanism?
- Do these learning mechanisms explain the same learning process through different theoretical lenses or are the learning processes suggested by Kolb, Bandura, and Mezirow differ in nature?

Explain Global Leader Learning through a new Theoretical Lenses

- Empirical testing of process models of global leadership development based on Transformational Learning Theory would be useful.
- It would be beneficial to explore the relational approach to global leader learning from IE, e.g., how global leaders learn from diverse followers.
- Future research is encouraged to apply social cognitive and collaborative experiential theories.

Expand the Methodological Repertoire of Studies Exploring Global Leader Learning

- Much of the extant global leadership research is based on interviews with or questionnaires completed by global leaders. These are very useful methods, but the field would now benefit from also leveraging other research methods. For example, only one study (Huesing & Ludema, 2017) observed global leaders' behavior using a methodology similar to Mintzberg's (1973) seminal work. It would be useful for more future studies to follow organizational ethnography and observe what global leaders really do. Likewise, the global leadership field would benefit from more expert cognition studies like (see Osland et al., 2012; 2017), which used cognitive task analysis to frame and analyze critical incidents of expert global leaders to describe how they make sense of their work. Incorporating a narrative approach into GLD research can provide insight and a complementary view to extant research.
- Large-sample quantitative studies very limited to date, have good potential to add value.

Executive Coaching and Peer Coaching

- Coaching has seldom been studied in the field of GLD, despite executive coaching's tremendous potential for ensuring immediate and effective feedback and self-reflection (Mendenhall, 2006; Rosinski, 2010; Salomaa, 2017). Exploring the moderating role of different types of coaching such as executive coaching and peer coaching in global leader learning from IE presents an interesting research possibility. For example, scholars could use ELT and TLT to explain the learning process of global leaders by examining the moderating role of executive coaching to facilitate reflection at the stages of reflective observation and abstract conceptualization, or by investigating how executive coaching enhances each stage of the experiential learning cycle.
- Identifying under what circumstances and to what extent coaching enhances global leader learning from IE would advance the GLD field.
- A comparative study could demonstrate the effect of different types of coaching, e.g., executive coaching versus peer-coaching, on global leader learning.
- The effect of the length, timing (before, during, and/or after the IE), and approach of coaching on global leader learning could improve GLD interventions.

Research Agenda Influenced by COVID—19:

- Especially in times when people cannot travel due to COVID-19, but also due to the environmental impact, expense and time requirements of international travel/assignments, it would be interesting to explore the extent to which IE for global leaders can be developed domestically through multicultural teams and global virtual teams. It would also be interesting to understand specifically what and how global leaders learn from domestic IE experience.

CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This study has systematically reviewed and integrated research published between 1998-2019 on global leader learning from IE. My work is a response to Osland et al.'s (2018) call to identify bridging mechanisms between individual-level dispositions and the development of global leadership capabilities. Additionally, this study also addresses Osland et al.'s (2017) call to specify the learning processes of global leaders. It makes the following contributions.

First, this review systematically maps and integrates the extant literature on individual and organizational enablers of global leader learning from IE, laying a path for other scholars. Second, the study reveals that a variety of learning mechanisms facilitate global leader learning and proposes a dynamic understanding of learning processes for different learning domains. Current understanding in the field is that different developmental methods activate different learning processes in global leaders (Cumberland et al., 2016). For example, international assignments have a higher potential to activate the transformational learning process in global leaders (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2018), while short-term business travel and international corporate training programs could result in experiential learning. By contrast, this study suggests that the specific developmental qualities of IE, how leaders approach their assignments (individual enablers including attitude towards learning), and organizational enablers (like the provision of coaching, which helps leaders reflect on and thus learn more from their experience) could significantly influence what type of learning occurs. For example, a leader going on a long-term assignment, but living in an expatriate bubble with little significant interaction with locals, may gain very little learning. In turn, with careful design and proper motivation short-term business travel could result in transformational learning. Such a result could be achieved, for example, by a leader/traveler

who explicitly finds lodging in an area where many locals stay or with a family and makes great effort to interact with and get to know locals socially and at work (Johnston, 2014).

Third, this review suggests a variety of important future research directions for IE (detailed below). Fourth, the review is built on articles exploring only managerial samples (as opposed to student samples), and thus provides a useful perspective on the learning mechanisms of global leaders, which might be different from the learning mechanisms of undergraduate students who normally lack work experience.

This review is limited in part by its scope. Future reviews on global leader learning could extend beyond articles to include PhD dissertations, books and book chapters on the topic in order to integrate the latest thinking in the field. Future reviews might also benefit from including research on global teams and virtual global teams, thereby strengthening the social learning perspective on global leader learning. Global leaders may benefit from a more personalized approach to designing IE interventions adjusted to their personal traits, individual capabilities and learning styles. This facilitate a higher degree of learning from IE. Additionally, structured corporate training programs are normally shorter than long-term international assignments, but their efficiency is still high (Pless et al., 2011) due to organizational support, attention to the program's design, and use of a multi-method approach. Thus, organizations could potentially add some elements of structured programs such as executive coaching, peer coaching and networking to long-term international assignment and short-term business travel in order to create more learnings for participants

Identification of five groups of individual enablers and two groups of organizational enablers could expand the pool of potential effective global leaders beyond the traits and capabilities empirically examined to date. For example, when global leaders do not possess

extroversion and openness, which are important for the success of global leaders but difficult to develop, they could potentially compensate for this lack by developing other capabilities. For example, less extroverted leaders who have high self-efficacy and consistently employ learning behaviors to encourage reflection like journaling or who receive organizational support in form of executive coaching may also be successful global leaders. This suggestion has emerged in part from my current experience living in Finland and observing many somewhat introverted brilliant global leaders who, with high self-efficacy and extensive self-reflection, have been quite successful. Risto Silasmaa, Nokia's former Chairman of the Board, is one example of such leaders.

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Table 1. Categorization of the 26 Conceptual, 6 Quantitative, 11 Qualitative and 3 Mixed Method Studies for Method of International Experience.

TYPES OF INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE (42)			
Long-term International Assignment (26)		Global Leadership Development Program, International Service Learning Program, MBA study-tour (14)	Short-term Business ravel (2)
Conceptual studies (21)			
Hall, Zhu & Yan (2001); Gupta & Govindarajan (2002); Kets de Vries & Florent-Treacy (2002); Hollenbeck & McCall (2003); Alon & Higgins (2005); Kohonen (2005); Caligiuri (2006); Mendenhall (2006); Li (2009); Ng et al.(2009a, 2009b); Oliver (2009); Lovvorn & Chen (2011); Javidan & Bowen (2013); Caligiuri (2013); Conger (2014); Tung (2014); Mendenhall et al. (2017)		Black & Gregersen (2000); Caligiuri & Thoroughgood (2015)	Oddou et al. (2000)
Empirical studies (21)			
Quantitative (7)	Furuya et al. (2009); Caligiuri & Tarique (2009); Gerrard (2011); Caligiuri & Tarique (2012); Li et al. (2013)	Wood & Peters (2014); Walker (2018)	---
Qualitative (11)	Terrell & Rosenbusch (2013)	Neary & O'Grady (2000); DiStefano & Maznevski (2003); Sendelbach & McGrath (2006); Derven & Frappolli (2011); Pless et al. (2011); Day & Barney (2012); Gundling et al. (2014); Pless & Borecka (2014); Tracy (2018)	Johnston (2014)
Mixed method (3)	Gregersen et al. (1998); Caligiuri & DiSanto (2001)	Tuleja (2014)	---

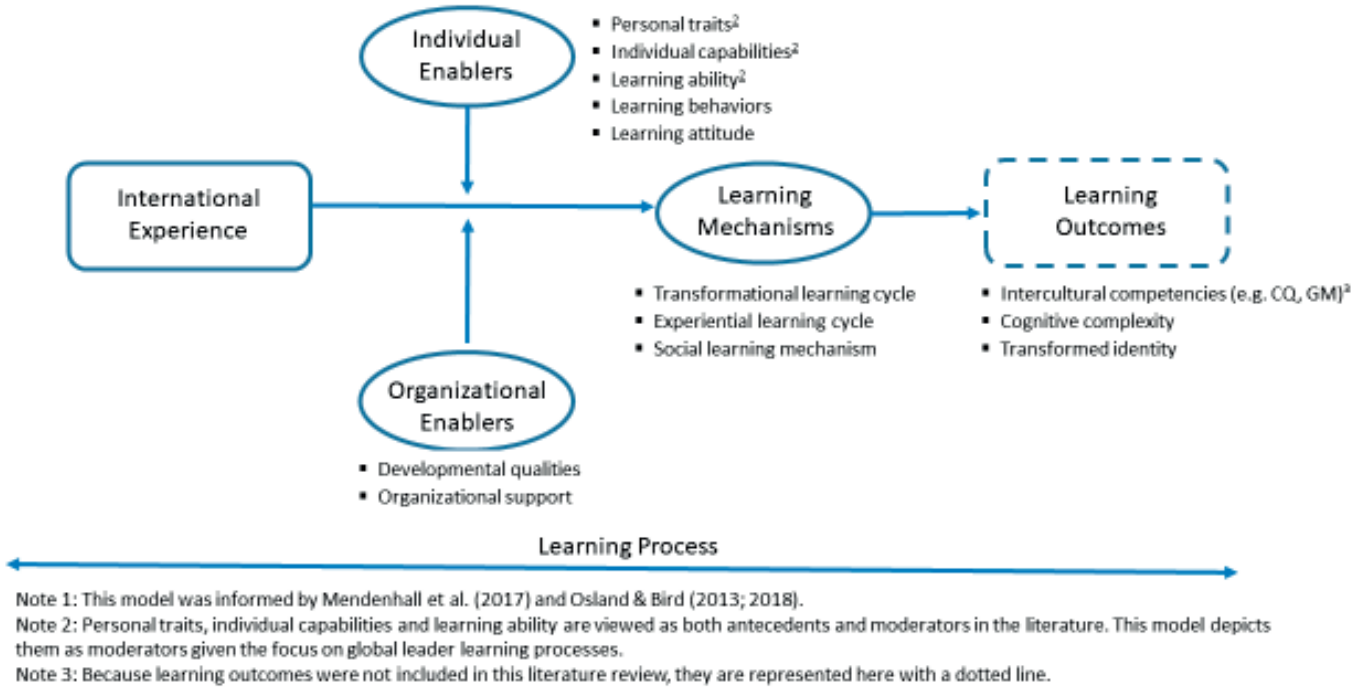


Figure 1. Global Leader Learning Process from International Experience.[1]

APPENDIX A

Table A1. Conceptual Studies on Global Leader Learning from International Experience.

Author & Year	Type of IE	Type of Competencies	Conceptual Framework	Individual Enablers of Learning	Organizational Enablers of Learning	Learning Mechanisms
Black & Gregersen (2000)	GLDP	GL competencies	Contrast-confrontation-concept	Not specified	Ensure global leadership development training which can stretch mental maps	Contrast – confrontation - remapping
Oddou et al. (2000)	Short-term business travel	GL competencies	Quality of IE (high quality short-term business travel can be a source of transformational experience)	Personal traits & abilities: openness, curiosity, willingness to stretch mental maps, sensitivity to differences, dealing with uncertainty; Learning behaviors: writing a journal, observing and asking questions	Organizational support: Corporate travel policies and rewarding for development	Not specified
Hall, Zhu & Yan (2001)	International assignment	GL competencies	ELT	Learning how to learn	Exposure to novelty and uncertainty, providing feedback	Define challenge – define experiences – develop mechanisms of getting leaders to these experiences.
Gupta & Govindarajan (2002)	Formal education, cross-border teams, immersion, international travel, multicultural teams	Global mindset	Mindsets as knowledge structures with attributes of differentiation and integration	Personal traits: openness, curiosity, self-consciousness about own mindset	Exposure to novelty and diversity, providing local mentor, environment supporting diversity through set of core values, ownership rights, job rotation	Develop ability to integrate diverse knowledge bases
Kets de Vries & Florent-Treacy (2002)	4T (Training, transfer, teamwork, travel)	GL competencies	Not specified	Not specified	Strong and supportive organizational culture and HR policies; multinational; mentors with global mindset; networking across borders; international experience; family support	Not specified
Hollenbeck & McCall (2003)	IE	GL competencies	Not specified	Motivation to lead in international business context, openness to learning, cognitive complexity	Alignment of strategy and development; redefine top-management role in global leadership development	Identify job challenge – design experience – select global leaders.

Author & Year	Type of IE	Type of Competencies	Conceptual Framework	Individual Enablers of Learning	Organizational Enablers of Learning	Learning Mechanisms
Alon & Higgins (2005)	Mix of methods	CQ	Multiple Intelligences, EQ, CQ	CQ – moderator of global leadership success; Self-awareness, language fluency, motivation, learning from failure	Demonstrate connection between high CQ and successful career	Individuals go through the stages of motivation, awareness, action to master CQ
Kohonen (2005)	International assignment	GL competencies	Identity construction	Exploring own identity; interaction with locals and self-reflection	Provide exposure to discontinuities, cultural novelty, duality of global vs local, critical incidents, providing feedback	Not specified
Caligiuri (2006)	Didactic, experiential (short-term business travel, GLDP) and IE (international assignments)	GL competencies	Tasks – KSAO – method; aptitude x treatment	Moderators: Personal traits (extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness)	Integrate IE into a broader management development program	Leaders benefit differently from experience – depending on their individual aptitude. Offer right experience to right leaders
Mendenhall (2006)	Mix of methods	GL competencies	Pyramid model of global leadership competencies development	Higher level of development of leadership competencies, awareness of degree of possessing the competencies	Combination of the method, time	Combine other training methods with coaching
Li (2009)	International assignment	CQ	ELT, CQ, divergent learning style	Moderator of CQ: divergent learning style	Selection, cultural exposure, policies and practices to enhance learning from experience	Learning as adaption in thinking, perceiving, feeling, and behaving)
Ng et al. (2009a)	International assignment	CQ	ELT, CQ	CQ – moderator and experiential learning - mediator of global leader effectiveness;	Exposure to challenging tasks (to lead change, high level of responsibility, non-hierarchical relationships)	CQ moderate learning of global leaders from experience
Ng et al. (2009b)	International assignment	CQ	ELT, CQ	CQ – moderator and experiential learning - mediator of global leader effectiveness; Learning behaviors: seeking experiences; reflecting on observations; interpreting conceptually; active experimenting	Selection, organizational policies and practices to encourage experiential learning	Experiential learning cycle (select leader with high CQ, encourage all four stages of experiential learning)

Author & Year	Type of IE	Type of Competencies	Conceptual Framework	Individual Enablers of Learning	Organizational Enablers of Learning	Learning Mechanisms
Oliver (2009)	Combination of the methods of formal training, developmental experience, coaching	GL competencies	"developmental framework 70-20-10"	Not specified	Developmental experience; learning behaviors (reflecting, looking for parallel situations where to apply learnings, seek new experiences), define critical experience	70-20-10 (70 % of learning comes from on-job experience). IE should be combined with other methods
Lovvorn & Chen (2011)	International assignment	Global mindset, CQ	Global mindset, CQ	CQ as learning capability CQ is moderator and mediator of global mindset	Exposure to novelty, encourage interaction with local people	CQ transforms experience into knowledge, as CQ develops it reinforces learning from experience
Caliguiri (2013)	International assignment	Cultural agility	Developmental quality of cross-cultural experience	Personal traits: emotional stability, openness and extroversion.	Selection, developmental qualities of international assignment (peer-collaboration, feedback), supportive org. culture	Selection, designing well-crafted cultural experiences, coaching in strong and supportive learning environment
Javidan & Bowen (2013)	Combination of IE, coaching, training and networking	Global mindset	Global mindset	Antecedents: language fluency, previous IE, graduate degree, age	Antecedents: industry, organizational function, organizational level	Global Psy. Capital is most difficult to develop; it could be developed through coaching
Conger (2014)	International assignment, short-term business travel, training, coaching	GL capabilities	Not specified	Motivation to work abroad, drive to learning	Combining selection and organizational support (monitoring talent, developmental goals, repatriation policies)	not specified
Tung (2014)	Area studies programs, sensitivity training and international assignment	Global mindset	Not specified	Shed ethnocentric tendencies, experiment with new ideas, review one's own limitations, plan for change, learn about other cultures	Exposure to novelty and diversity	not specified
Caligiuri & Thorough-good (2015)	ISLP	GL competencies	Responsible global leadership development, CSR values	Openness, extroversion, emotional stability	Collaboration with peers from diverse cultures, challenging assignments, projects fostering humility, altruism and CSR values	Program should develop values and abilities

Mendenhall et al. (2017)	IE	Intercultural competencies	Global leadership development theory based on TLT, adult learning and CBT	Moderator: developmental readiness (Ability, Motivation); Aptitude, perceived difficulty, perceived magnitude	Learning Context Company Context	Trigger event > Self-commitment > Reflection >Strategy > Implementation > Reflection
Number of studies with focus on individual enabler, organizational enabler and learning mechanism				18	21	16

Note: CBT- Cognitive-behavior therapy, CLT- Cognitive Learning Theory, CQ – Cultural intelligence , EQ- Emotional Intelligence; ELT – Experiential Learning Theory; GL competencies – Global leadership competencies; HLT – Humanist Learning Theory; IE- international experience, KSAO – knowledge, skills, abilities, other characteristics; SLT- Social Learning Theory; GLDP – Global Leadership Development Program, ISLP – International Service Learning Program.

Table A2. Quantitative and Mixed Method Studies on Global Leader Learning from International Experience.

Author & Year	Type of Study	Devel. Method	Conceptual Framework	Constructs Related to Learning	Sample	Results
QUANTITATIVE STUDIES (6) & MIXED METHOD STUDIES (3)						
Gregersen et al. (1998)	Mixed method	IA	Not specified	Not specified	108 MNCs based in USA (survey), 130 global leaders from 50 global MNCs	Study revealed key characteristics of global leaders: inquisitiveness, character, duality, savvy. Key efforts to develop global leaders are: selection, family's support, training and repatriation.
Caligiuri & DiSanto (2001)	Mixed method	IA	KSAO	IV: Personality traits, knowledge and abilities; DV: Global leader's effectiveness	50 global leaders in 50 US-based MNCs, 74 global leaders from 3 US-based MNCs	Certain personality traits like flexibility, openness, ethnocentrism can't be developed through IA, while knowledge and abilities can. Selection of global leaders with appropriate traits is essential
Furuya et al. (2009)	Quantitative longitudinal	IA	Theory of organizational knowledge creation	IV: Intercultural personality characteristics (GCI) (+); self-adjustment experiences, organizational support (+); repatriation policies (+); Mediator: Global management competency learning; DV: Global management competency transfer	305 expatriate Japanese managers from 5 Japanese MNCs	Organizational support and intercultural personal characteristics (GCI) predict, and self-adjustment does not predict global management competency learning (GMCL). GMCL's Mean=3.72, SD=0.47
Caligiuri & Tarique (2009)	Quantitative	IE	SLT, Contact Hypothesis	IV: high &low contact experience (+); Moderator: extroversion (+), openness; DV: global leader effectiveness (individual work performance)	256 global leaders from the UK-based firm, representing 17 nationalities	High contact experience predict global leadership effectiveness when leaders have greater extroversion. Extroversion (personal trait) as a moderator. GLE's Mean = 2.3, SD=0.96
Gerrard (2011)	Quantitative	IE	Big five, Job challenge profile, CQ	IV: role scope; Mediator: dealing with diversity; (+); creating change, responsibility level, managing boundaries; DV: leader development, performance, withdrawal conditions	97 global leaders and 30 global assignees from Australia, Brazil, Canada and US	Dealing with diversity is different for the job with different scope. Dealing with diversity mediates relationships between role scope and leader development; Leader's cognitive CQ predicts contextual performance. Emotional stability predicts tenure in international assignment.
Caligiuri & Tarique (2012)	Quantitative	IA	SLT, Contact hypothesis	IV: high contact non-work, experience (+), extroversion (+), openness (+);	420 global leaders and 221 supervisors	Extroversion, openness and non-work experience predict dynamic cross-cultural competencies, which in turn predict global leader effectiveness. GLE's Mean = 3.22, SD=0.63

				Mediator: dynamic cross-cultural competencies (cultural flexibility (+), tolerance of ambiguity (+); low ethnocentrism (+) DV: global leader success		
Li et al. (2013)	Quantitative	IA	ELT, CQ	IV: IE; Moderator: divergent learning style (+); DV: CQ	294 global leaders (China, Ireland, 18 more countries	Divergent learning style moderates learning from IE and increases CQ of global leaders. CQ =98 (out of 140), SD = 16
Tuleja (2014)	Mixed method	MBA study-tour	CQ, Mindfulness	4 stages of reflection state (non-reflection, understanding, reflection, critical reflection)	141 MBA students, USA, 2-week immersion tour to China	Mindfulness increases learning from immersion study tour and increases CQ of MBA students.
Wood &Peters (2014)	Quantitative	MBA study-tour	CQ	IV: IE; DV: 4 CQ's facets	42 MBA students, 12-day trip	Study-tour increases meta CQ, cognitive CQ, and motivational CQ. Meta CQ Mean=4.8, SD=0.72; Cognitive CQ= 4.24, SD=1; Motiv CQ Mean= 5,61, SD=0.9; Behavioral CQ=5.21, SD=1.11
Walker (2018)	Quantitative	MBA	SLT, ELT, CLT, HLT	IV: Formal & experiential learning, mentoring, peer-learning Mediator: self-efficacy DV: Global Mindset	64 MBA students, Southwestern Univ., USA	Formal and experiential learning predict self-efficacy, self-efficacy predicts GMI, and its parts

Note 1: IA – International Assignment, IE –international experience, GLDP – Global Leadership Development Program, ISLP- International Service Learning Program, STBT – Short-term business travel;

Note 2: CLT- Cognitive Learning Theory; CQ – Cultural intelligence; ELT – Experiential Learning Theory; HLT – Humanist Learning Theory; KSAO – Knowledge, Skills, Abilities and other characteristics; SLT- Social Learning Theory;

Note 3: IV – independent variable, DV – dependent variable; (+) the hypothesis is confirmed;

Table A3. Qualitative Studies on Global Leader Learning from International Experience.

Author and Year	Data collection	Developmental method	Sample	Results
QUALITATIVE STUDIES (12)				
Neary & O'Grady (2000)	Case study	GLDP	35 global leaders (12 non-US leaders)	Building on diversity, tolerating ambiguity – leader's key skills.
Derven & Frappolli (2009)	Case study	Global on-boarding	GLDP at Bristol-Myers Squibb	Peer-coaching and networking provide learning and support.
DiStefano &Maznevski (2003)	Case study	GLDP	MBA students in Europe	Combination of developmental methods yields the most optimal developmental results.
Sendelbach & McGrath (2006)	Case study	GLDP	Ford Motor and Univ. of Michigan's MBA	Leaders need a framework for understanding global environment.
Pless et al. (2011)	Case study	ISLP	70 global leaders from PwC	Effective ISLP provides deep learning in three learning domains: cognitive, affective and behavioral.
Day & Barney (2012)	Case study	GLDP	4 groups of Infosys GLDP, India	Longitudinal design predicts when the development change occurs.
Terrell & Rosenbusch (2013)	Phenomenological study	IA	12 global leaders from 6 countries	Global leaders develop through first-hand experience learn intuitively, are open to learning and reflecting upon
Gundling et al. (2014)	Case study	GLDP	Top 200 managers at FORD	Ability to influence without key authority – key global competence.
Johnston (2014)	Narrative interview	STBT	16 global leaders, USA	STBT is efficient in developing global mindset of leaders.
Pless & Borecka (2014)	Case study	ISLP	ISLP of 6 US-based leading MNCs	ISLP program has one of 3 goals: leadership, organization or community development.
Tracy (2018)	Case study	GLDP	2nd largest chemical manufacturer	Peer-to-peer learning and networking is essential in GLDP.

Notes: IA – International Assignment, IE –international experience, GLDP – Global Leadership Development Program, ISLP- International Service Learning Program, STBT – Short-term business travel

Table A4. Content Analysis for Individual Enablers of Global Leader Learning from International Experience.

Type of Enabler	Results of Content Analysis	Summary for Each Type of an Enabler*
INDIVIDUAL ENABLERS FOR INTERNATIONAL ASSIGNMENT		KEY EVIDENCE
Personal traits	inquisitiveness ***(Gregersen et al., 1998)***; curiosity, openness (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002); extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness (Caligiuri, 2006); **intercultural personality characteristics as antecedents (Furuya et al., 2009); extroversion as a moderator (Caligiuri, 2009); emotional stability as antecedent for staying in international assignment (Gerrard, 2011); extroversion and openness as antecedents (Caligiuri & Tarique2012)**; emotional stability, openness, extraversion (Caligiuri, 2013)	• **extroversion (**moderator for global leader effectiveness) • **extroversion and openness (**antecedents for global leader effectiveness) • **emotional stability** (predicts staying in international assignment) • inquisitiveness
Individual capabilities	cognitive complexity (Hollenbeck & McCall, 2003); self-awareness, foreign language skills (Alon & Higgins); dynamic cross-cultural competencies: **tolerance of ambiguity, cultural flexibility, low ethnocentrism (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012)**; tolerance of ambiguity, cultural flexibility, low ethnocentrism (Caligiuri, 2013); foreign language fluency (Javidan & Bowen, 2013)	• **tolerance of ambiguity, cultural flexibility, low ethnocentrism** (antecedents of global leader effectiveness) • cognitive complexity • self-awareness • language fluency
Learning ability	capacity to learn and adapt (Kets de Vries & Florent-Treacy, 2002); **divergent learning style as a learning ability (Li,** 2009**; 2013**); CQ as a set of learning capabilities (Ng et al., 2009a; 2009b); CQ as a learning capability (Lovvorn & Chen, 2011)	• **divergent learning style (**moderator of CQ**)** • CQ (moderator of experiential learning) • capacity to learn
Learning behaviors	learning how to learn (Hall, Zhu & Yan, 2001); cultivating self-consciousness about own mindset (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002); engaging into sensemaking process and self-reflection (Kohonen, 2005); reflecting; looking for parallel situations where apply these learnings; seeking new experiences; defining key critical experiences (Oliver, 2009); interaction with local people (Kohonen, 2005; Lovvorn & Chen, 2011); shed ethnocentric tendencies; experiment with new ideas; review one's own limitations; plan for change; understand other sociopolitical, cultural, economic systems (Tung, 2014); ***using intuitive, situation-specific learning approach (Terrell & Rosenbusch, 2013)***	• ***use intuitive, situation-specific learning*** • learn how to learn • increase self-awareness • engage in sensemaking process and self-reflection • interact with locals • experiment with new ideas • apply learnings in real life
Attitude to learning	openness to learning; motivation to lead in international business context (Hollenbeck & McCall, 2003; willingness to explore and reshape identity (Kohonen, 2005); motivation to work abroad; drive for learning (Conger, 2014); ***positive attitude toward learning (Terrell & Rosenbusch, 2013)***	• ***positive attitude to learning*** • drive to learn • motivation to lead in global business environment • Motivation to explore and reshape identity
INDIVIDUAL ENABLERS FOR SHORT-TERM BUSINESS TRAVEL		

Personal traits	openness, curiosity (Oddou et al., 2000)	▪ openness, curiosity
Individual capabilities	cultural sensitivity (Oddou et al., 2000); ***ability to demonstrate culturally responsive leadership and effective interpersonal communication (Johnston, 2014)***	▪ cultural sensitivity ▪ ***culturally responsive leadership*** ▪ ***effective interpersonal communication***
Learning behaviors	observe, ask questions, write a journal, exercise behavioral flexibility (Oddou et al., 2000);	▪ observe, ask questions, write a journal, exercise behavioral flexibility
Attitude to learning	willingness to stretch mental map (Oddou, 2000)	▪ willingness to stretch mental map
INDIVIDUAL ENABLERS FOR INTERNATIONAL CORPORATE PROGRAMS		
Personal traits	openness, emotional stability, extraversion; intrinsic motivation	▪ openness, emotional stability, extraversion
Individual capabilities	***self-awareness, tolerance of ambiguity (Neary & O'Grady, 2000);*** self-awareness; language fluency (Alon & Higgins, 2005); **self-efficacy (Walker, 2018)**	▪ **self-efficacy** ▪ ***self-awareness*** ▪ ***tolerance of ambiguity*** ▪ language fluency
Learning behaviors	***application of learning in a real world (DiStefano & Maznevski, 2003);*** learning from failure (Alon &Higgins, 2005) ***asking questions, being non-judgemental (Sendelbach& McGrath, 2006); ensuring mindfulness, journaling, and group discussions-- to enhance critical reflection (Tuleja, 2014); 10 learning behaviors: cultural self-awareness, invite the unexpected, results through relationships, frame-shifting, expand ownership, develop leaders, add value, core values and flexibility (Gundling et al., 2014)***	▪ ***develop cultural self-awareness*** ▪ ***invite unexpected*** ▪ ***develop relationship*** ▪ ***frameshifting*** ▪ ***expand ownership*** ▪ ***develop leaders*** ▪ ***ask questions, journaling – to enhance critical reflection*** ▪ learn from mistakes
Attitude to learning	motivation to lead in international business context (Alon & Higgins, 2005); intrinsic motivation (Caligiuri & Thoroughgood, 2015)	▪ motivation to lead in international business context ▪ intrinsic motivation

Note: Findings highlighted **in bold** come from quantitative studies with statistically confirmed results; studies ***in italics*** are qualitative and mixed method studies, and studies in normal type are conceptual studies.

Table A5. Content Analysis for Organizational Enablers of Global Leader Learning from International Experience.

Type of Enabler	Content Analysis Results	Summary for Each Enabler*
ORGANIZATIONAL ENABLERS FOR INTERNATIONAL ASSIGNMENT		
Developmental qualities of international assignment	significant role transition; exposure to novelty and uncertainty, providing feedback (Hall, Zhu & Yan, 2001); including developmental goals into performance measurements ***(Caligiuri, 2001)***; exposure to discontinuities, cultural novelty, duality of global vs local, critical incidents, providing feedback (Kohonen, 2005); cultural exposure (Li, 2009; Lovvorn & Chen, 2011; Tung, 2014); **providing leaders with high-contact cross-cultural leadership development experiences exposure (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009);** challenging tasks (to lead change; high level of responsibility; non-hierarchical relationship) (Ng et al., 2009a; 2009b); **ensuring non-work cross-cultural experiences (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012);** peer-collaboration, providing feedback (Caligiuri, 2013)	• **ensure high-contact cultural experiences and non-work cultural experiences** • exposure to cultural novelty • "Stretching assignment" and developmental indicators • peer-learning and networking • providing feedback
Organizational support	ensuring adaptability of leader's family, providing training ***(Gregersen et al.,1998)***; assigning local mentor; environment supporting diversity – through set of core values, ownership rights, meritocracy, job rotation (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002); link development and business strategy, involvement of top-management (Hollenbeck & McCall, 2003); geocentrically-oriented organization; satisfying the needs of community, meaning and pleasure, ensure internationally-minded HR strategies exposure to foreign experience (Kets de Vries & Florent-Treacy, 2002); integrating IE as a part of a broader management development program (Caligiuri, 2006); **organizational attitude towards its international operations; well-crafted international assignment policies and HR policies** (**Furuya et al., 2009**); org. policies to encourage experiential learning (Ng et al., 2009); supportive organizational culture (Caligiuri, 2013); monitoring talent, introducing performance scorecard (Conger, 2014); facilitating repatriation ***(Gregersen et al.,1998***; ***Caligiuri, 2001***; Conger, 2014); teaching leaders how to learn from experience; seeing development as one of the outcomes of an international work (Javidan & Bowen, 2013); **selection of leaders with appropriate traits** (***Gregersen et al.,1998; Caligiuri, 2001***; 2013; Kets de Vries & Florent -Treacy, 2002; Li, 2009; Ng et al., 2009a; 2009b; Conger, 2014	• **selection of global leaders with appropriate traits** • **organizational attitude towards international operations** • **international assignment policies** • **HR-policies** • supportive organizational culture • top-managers' involvement • assigning local mentor • ensuring family's adaptability • facilitating repatriation
ORGANIZATIONAL ENABLERS FOR SHORT-TERM BUSINESS TRAVEL		
Developmental qualities of STBT	***ensure developmental qualities of short-term business travel (Johnston, 2014)***	▪ ***developmental qualities of STBT***
Organizational support	corporate travel policies (having a free time on a trip; interact with locals); rewarding for learning and using language (Oddou et al., 2000)	• corporate travel policies • rewarding for using language

ORGANIZATIONAL ENABLERS FOR INTERNATIONAL CORPORATE PROGRAMS		
Developmental qualities of international corporate programs	consortium programs (Black & Gregersen, 2000); designing action learning projects and real global ***business projects; arranging work in small teams; avoiding trouble-free experience (Neary & O'Grady, 2001); combining developmental methods; integrating technology into the program (DiStefano & Maznevski, 2003)***; ***);*** incorporating blended approaches, robust needs analysis; adjusting the program to GM career cycle **(Derven & Frappolli, 2011),** ***providing coaching (DiStefano &Maznevski, 2003; Day & Barney, 2012)***; ***ensuring first-hand experience; unstructured, complex in scope and in scale (Pless et al., 2011); providing knowledge, ensuring first-hand experience and critical self-reflection*** **(Tuleja, 2014)**; ***define the purpose of a study-tour, ensure interaction with locals, reflection; rewarding for use of foreign language skills*** **(Wood & Peters, 2014)**; qualities of the program: meaningful projects, collaboration with peers from other cultures, "stretch assignments", fostering humility and altruism, work with peers possessing CSR values: in-country coaching; encourage blogging about experience (Caligiuri & Thoroughgood, 2015); ***peer-to-peer learning and networking (Tracy, 2018)***; dynamic and integrative approach to learning, where programs design is integrated, customized, and taps into cognitive, affective and behavioral domains of learning (**Walker, 2018**); ***get leaders to the front line, connect people, make it personal; teach influencing skills (Gundling et al, 2014);*** provide pre-assignment cross-cultural training and coaching, and post-program support: ensure application of acquired knowledge and skills (Caligiuri & Thoroughgood, 2015)	▪ ***ensure effective design of the program which provides cognitive, affective and behavioral outcomes*** ▪ ***provide coaching and ensure self-reflection*** ▪ ***peer-to-peer learning and networking during and after the program*** ▪ ***meaningful projects, get to frontline, connect with local people, use foreign language*** ▪ ***ensure application of acquired knowledge and skills***
Organizational support	***engaging high-ranking into the program (Neary & O'Grady, 2000);*** demonstrate connection between CQ and successful career (Alon & Higgins, 2005); ***modelling personal development trajectories through assessment of leadership behaviors and matching it with a developmental challenge; consolidate organizational cross-cultural knowledge and business insights gained (Johnston, 2014);*** public display, support returning volunteers, future volunteer projects (Caligiuri & Thoroughgood, 2015)	▪ ***ensure top-management involvement into the program design and implementation*** ▪ ***personalize global leader developmental plans*** ▪ ***integrate diverse practical cultural knowledge within organization***

Note: Studies highlighted **in highlighted black** are empirical quantitative studies; studies ***in highlighted italic black*** are qualitative and mixed method studies, and studies in standard black are conceptual studies.

Table A6. Content Analysis for Learning Mechanisms of Global Leader Learning from International Experience.

Learning Mechanisms (explained theoretically)	Content Analysis for Each Type of Learning Mechanism	Theoretical Lens	Key Learning Mechanism
LEARNING MECHANISMS FOR INTERNATIONAL ASSIGNMENT			
Experiential learning cycle	experiential learning cycle (Hall, Zhu & Yan, 2001); grasping experience and transforming experience. divergent learning style moderates learning from experience (Li, 2009); experiential learning is moderated by CQ (Ng et al, 2009a; 2009b); **experiential learning style moderates learning from IE (Li et al., 2013)**	**experiential learning theory (ELT), Kolb (1984)**	**CE > RO > AC > AE**
Transformational learning cycle	***trigger event—self-commitment --reflection –strategy – implementation –reflection*** (based on adult learning, leadership development, TLT, CBT, and SLT) (Mendenhall et al., 2017); ***(Beckett, 2018)***	transformational learning theory (TLT), Mezirow, 1978	trigger event > self-commitment > reflection > strategy > implementation > reflection
Social learning process	**attention- retention –reproduction through participative modelling process (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009); multiple intercultural experiences --lead to positive attitude towards different cultures – lead to learning appropriate behaviors (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012)**	**social learning theory (SLT), Bandura (1975)**	attention > retention > reproduction through participative modelling process
LEARNING MECHANISMS FOR SHORT-TERM BUSINESS TRAVEL			
--	***Not specified***	--	**--**
LEARNING MECHANISMS FOR INTERNATIONAL CORPORATE PROGRAMS			
Experiential learning cycle	contrast – confrontation – concept (Black & Gregersen, 2000); ***learning methodology of the service-learning program include assessment, challenge and support. Individual and team coaching is an important part of all phases of the project (Pless et al., 2011);*** **through a short-term business travel participants engage into experiential learning cycle and enhance their metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ and motivational CQ (Wood & Peters, 2014);** ***experiential learning through combination of individual learning, teambuilding, training, and coaching (Pless & Borecka, 2014)***	**experiential learning theory (ELT), Kolb (1984)**	**CE > RO > AC > AE**
Social learning process	"attention-retention-reproduction" (Tung, 2014);	social learning theory (SLT), Bandura (1975)	attention > retention > reproduction through participative modelling process

OTHER LEARNING MECHANISMS (NOT EXPLAINED THEORETICALLY)
• job challenge – identify experience – select right person to this job challenge (Hollenbeck & McCall, 2003); • sensemaking process (Kohonen, 2005) • aptitude X Treatment: Offer right developmental opportunities to right people (Caligiuri, 2006); • international experience and CQ have a complex inter-relationship, IE enhances CQ, in turn CQ transforms information from IE into knowledge, as CQ develops it reinforces learning from IE (Lovvorn & Chen, 2011); • ***assessment of leadership behaviors - matching it with developmental challenge - predicting personal development trajectory (Day & Barney, 2012);*** • ***transformation through acquiring new behaviors. Key elements for transformation to happen: self-awareness, novelty, learning through relationships, frame-shifting, own results, develop others, add value (Gundling et al, 2014);*** • ***engaging in self-reflection and generalization to other situations (Terrell & Rosenbusch, 2013);*** • ***mindfulness (reflective practice) is the link between knowledge and behaviors, it involves cultural sensemaking through framing, making attributes and selecting scripts and enables transition from non-reflection to understanding to reflection to critical reflection through personal insights. (Tuleja, 2014)*** • ***learning process: 1. Embark on a travel; 2. Build relationships; 3. Seek deeper understanding; 4. Integrate and transfer experiences to new context; 5. Open to additional learning (Johnston, 2014)*** • **Integrative adult learning mechanism through multiple types of learning; combination of ELT, SLT, CLT, humanist learning theory (HLT) (Walker, 2018)** IE is a pathway from self-efficacy into social capital, then to psychological capital**, self-efficacy is developed through formal and experiential learning (Walker, 2018)**

Note: Studies highlighted **in bold** are empirical quantitative studies; studies ***in bold and italics*** are qualitative and mixed method studies, and studies in standard black are conceptual studies.

*Transformative learning process in global leader development has been qualitatively examined in the doctoral dissertation "The role of Mezirow's ten phases of transformative learning in the development of global leaders" by Beckett (2018).

Table A7. Conceptual Frameworks Explaining Learning Mechanisms of Global Leader Learning from International Experience.

Conceptual Framework	Author and Year	Developm. Method	Learning Mechanism	Conceptualization of Global Leadership Development
EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE (QUANTITATIVE STUDIES)				
Theory of Organizational Knowledge Creation (Nonaka, 1994)	Furuya et al. (2009)	IA	Experience and feedback are central to learning process. Nature and framing of experience will shape the type of learning.	Global management competency learning is acquisition and enhancement of knowledge, skills, abilities across 3 domains: global business domain, global administrative skills and intercultural employee management skills
Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1975); Contact Hypothesis Theory (Allport, 1954)	Caligiuri & Tarique (2009; 2012)	IA	Attention > Retention > Reproduction through participative modelling process	Global leadership development is viewed as a social learning process, in which global leadership competencies are developed through social interaction (through practicing and receiving feedback in a safe environment)
Experiential Learning Theory (Kolb, 1984)	Li et al. (2013), Wood & Peters (2014)	IA, MBA study-tour	Concrete Experience > Reflective Observation > Abstract Conceptualization > Active Experimentation.	Global leadership development is viewed as an experiential learning process which occurs through grasping and transformation of experience
Experiential Learning Theory; Social Learning Theory Cognitive Learning Theory, Humanist Learning Theory	Walker (2018)	MBA program	Formal and experiential learning predict self-efficacy, self-efficacy predicts Global Mindset, and its components (Global Intellectual Capital, Global Intellectual Capital, and Global Social Capital)	Global leadership development process is hypothesized to be sustained by multiple types of learning that build upon and reinforced each other. Global leadership development is viewed as an ecosystem where different learning methodologies interact with each other
CONCEPTUAL STUDIES				
Experiential Learning Theory (Kolb, 1984), CQ (Ang et al., 2007)	Hall et al.(2001; Li et al. (2009); Ng (2009a; 2009b)	IA	Concrete Experience > Reflective Observation > Abstract Conceptualization > Active Experimentation	Global leadership development is viewed as an experiential learning process which occurs through grasping and transformation of experience
Transformational learning Theory (Mezirow, 1978)	Mendenhall et al.(2017)	IA	Trigger event > Self-commitment > Reflection > Strategy > Implementation > Reflection.	Global leadership development is viewed as a non-linear and organic transformational learning process of learning from experience which is characterized by dynamism and directionality

APPENDIX 2

Paper 2

The emergence of a relational view on cultural intelligence: Evidence from intercultural leadership coaching.

Natalia Fey
Hanken School of Economics, Helsinki, Finland

Christof Miska
Vienna University of Economics and Business, Vienna, Austria

Jason Ighani
The Humanitarian Coaching Network, Seattle, USA

Manuscript in preparation for publication as a journal article, and thus is excluded from the online version of this thesis. It is available upon request from the author.

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How peer coaching fosters employee proactivity and well-being within a self-managing Finnish digital engineering company

Natalia Fey, Emma Nordbäck, Mats Ehrnrooth, Kirsi Mikkonen

KEYWORDS
Self-managing organization;
Well-being;
Peer coaching

Abstract Pressure is increasing on traditional organizations to transform by moving away from old hierarchical structures towards more self-management in order to respond to nimble and agile entrepreneurial ventures and start-ups. In order for organizations to succeed in such transformations we need to know more about how radically self-managing organizations function, and what makes employees thrive and struggle in such settings. In this paper, we delve into an innovative peer coaching system used by Nitor, a self-managing digital engineering company, which challenges the mainstream belief how profitable companies should be organized and managed. In our study we explore the key characteristics of this peer coaching system, the mechanisms through which it enables employee proactivity and well-being, the key organizational outcomes and the challenges of successfully implementing it. The study suggests that peer coaching is especially helpful in self-managing firms as it is able to replace some of the key roles that middle management plays in traditional organizations.
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INTRODUCTION

> Most of us can't envision management practices that don't correspond to the norms of our own experience.
> Hamel, 2007

The roots of more flexible, adaptable, dynamic, and decentralized organizations run deep. The creation of such organizations is considered dependent on extensive self-management and the related ideas of collective, distributive, or emergent leadership. Presently, the idea of self-managing organizations is more relevant than ever, and 'getting rid of managers' seems to be a sticky notion whose time may have come. It strikes a chord with people's increasing considerations of meaningful work and the popular notion of agile. Research suggests that employees provided with radical autonomy become more engaged, proactive, and agile, enabling organizations to better and faster respond to changes in business environments. Self-managing organizations can be understood as taking McGregor's Theory Y more seriously than ever, building on its assumptions that employees are happy to work on their own initiative, accepting and seeking responsibility, and needing little guidance.

However, while employees may largely thrive under these assumptions, radical autonomy may also be demanding for some, with stress and disorientation representing its dark side. Thus, in pursuing increasing self-management, organizations are well advised to consider how this dark side can be avoided to fully benefit from the upsides. This advice is all the more topical because stressful and unhealthy workplaces are an increasing concern for organizations and societies. We

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know that burnout decreases performance, and in the US workplace-related stress is estimated to be the fifth biggest cause of death and to cost society US$ 300 billion per annum. The interesting and important question is thus what self-managing organizations can do to avoid or decrease stress-related effects, apart from the obvious: start hiring proactive and self-efficacious employees, offering less self-efficacious employees appropriate training, and perhaps, following Zappo's example, offering the latter attractive opportunities to leave the organization.

Another big question is how to transform traditional hierarchical organizations into more self-organized entities, which a number of recent consultancy reports considered a leading challenge. Clearly, to succeed in such transformations, organizations need to delve into processes and practices that transform the underlying operational system. Based on our research, we convey a compelling story about a self-managing organization that uses an innovative peer coaching system to foster employee well-being, defined as employees' overall satisfaction with their life and emotional experiences. The case company, Nitor, is a young yet award-winning Finnish digital engineering company that essentially runs without managers, and helps large Finnish and international companies digitalize their business processes. Nitor is listed in the Deloitte Technology Fast 50 and has racked up the best customer satisfaction scores in the history of IT in 2012—2018, as measured by Onway, an independent business analysis firm. In 2018 and 2019 respectively, Nitor was ranked second and third in the annual Europe's Best Workplaces™ survey by Great Place to Work®, and recognized in 2017—2019 as the best place to work in Finland.

As we will show, Nitor's peer coaching system replaces several functions that leaders fulfil in more traditional organizations. We begin by painting a picture of the landscape of self-organizing, employee well-being, and peer coaching. We then present the case company, the results of our empirical study, and their implications for practice.

SELF-MANAGEMENT, WELL-BEING, AND PEER COACHING

In many organizations, employees experience a high need for informational and emotional support, due to the fast pace of change and fewer available managers to act in a mentoring or guiding role. This need grows bigger when organizations move towards more radical forms of self-management. Today there is much anecdotal evidence of companies radically and systematically decentralizing authority throughout the organization. One example is the Dutch multinational bank ING, which has recently made a large-scale transition towards a self-managing model in order to be able to respond more quickly to changing customer requirements. Other companies, such as Whole Foods Market and Valve Corporation, have organized themselves in non-hierarchical ways to promote employee engagement and product development. These organizations are, in various ways, innovative followers of those with long-standing experience of self-management, collective leadership, and freedom, such as Morning Star, W.L. Gore, and Semco.

While research has shown that self-management is associated with improved employee well-being through greater internal control, increased self-efficacy, and reduced stress and anxiety, most of this research has been conducted in work environments where employees have formal leaders, i.e., someone to turn to that "has their back". Thus, there is a clear need to increase our understanding of well-being in radically self-managing organizations.

Whereas executive and managerial coaching have been actively applied in business organizations during the past two decades, peer coaching is only starting to gain traction. Currently, just some 7% of all organizations use peer coaching. The concept, originating in the field of education and directed at staff development, is usually characterized as a development process involving a coach and coachee of equal status, and aims to build or expand new skills and knowledge in the workplace. Peer coaching can take many forms, for instance reciprocal, unidirectional or group, and has to date mainly been used in educational and medical contexts.

The very few studies on peer coaching with a focus on well-being were also conducted in such settings, and have resulted in mixed findings — with some research pointing to its positive impact on individual well-being and some showing little impact. The scarce previous research on peer coaching in business contexts, all conducted in more traditional hierarchical organizations and none with an explicit focus on employee well-being, suggests several positive outcomes: peer coaching increases personal development and learning, contributes to employees' work satisfaction and leadership development, and accelerates cultural change, organizational effectiveness, and growth. Research is also scarce, and has produced mixed results, on the relative merits of peer coaching and external coaching. We refer the reader to the Selected Bibliography at the end of this paper for relevant literature on peer coaching.

While peer coaching initiatives can clash with a hierarchical managerial culture, it would not only seem to be a more natural fit in non-hierarchical, self-organizing companies, but also potentially be more important in such settings. Specifically, since there is research suggesting that increased self-management may have paradoxical effects on individual well-being, it is important to shed light on whether and how peer coaching may fill the ensuing leadership void from a well-being perspective. Against this background, our study addresses the following three questions: 1) What are the core characteristics of the peer coaching system in Nitor? 2) What are the mechanisms through which the peer coaching system fosters employee well-being? 3) What are the organization-level benefits and challenges accompanying the peer coaching system?

THE CASE COMPANY

Nitor is a prominent Finnish digital engineering company practising "organizing without managers" and challenging the mainstream belief on how profitable companies should be managed. Founded in 2007, the company employs over 200 digital engineers in Finland and Sweden, and yielded revenues of 29 million euros in 2019. The founders of Nitor envisioned that if they take exceptionally good care of their customers and their employees, they could build a strong foundation for a successful company. Benchmarks with other companies suggest it is a successful recipe, since Nitor has

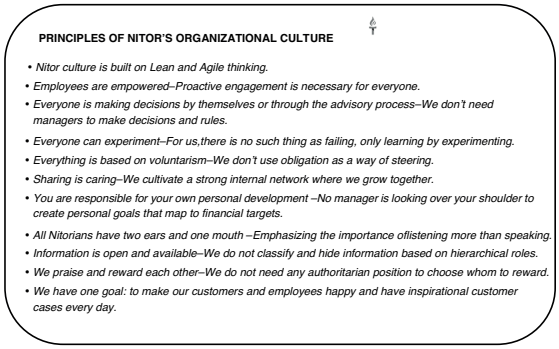


Figure 1 Principles of Nitor's Organizational Culture

consistently been ranked amongst the best places to work in Europe, and the best in Finland (see Introduction). Founder and ex-CEO Matti Vilmi's motto is "we build the company where we would like to retire."

The principles of Nitor's culture (presented in Fig. 1) were developed by employees through a bottom-up process, and are constantly updated through voluntary input. The company's organizational culture is built on Lean and Agile thinking. The CEO, whose core tasks include leadership and business development, business steering and key account sales, is the only formal and direct supervisor for each employee. No middle management exists. Although several employees carry a title, such as 'director' or 'VP', these do not reflect an internal hierarchical structure and are merely used to facilitate external communication with customers. Nitor aims to create and sustain a culture where employees are trusted, respected, and empowered with authority in every aspect of their work. Information is openly shared, and strategic and operational decisions are taken collectively. For instance, decisions on hiring, firing, and pay are taken collectively amongst employees. Depending on their own expertise and interests, employees choose in which decisions and projects to participate. As a Nitor employee put it: "*There's very little management in the company and everything's voluntary . . . like no one gets assigned to projects . . . Projects come in and then the interested people go to work on those projects . . .* " (Service designer, coachee A). There are multiple initiatives and practices in place at Nitor that enhance its non-hierarchical and self-organizing environment. The peer coaching system in the focus of our study is one of the supporting practices.

Nitor's employees work as IT professionals, service designers, and agile coaches for customer organizations, helping large Finnish and international companies digitalize their business processes. These employees normally operate in cross-functional teams together with other Nitorians, customer representatives, and consultants from other organizations. As the pace of work is very dynamic, many employees regularly (based on their voluntary sign-up) move between projects. Having a lot of freedom also brings challenges: *"Well, you can do whatever you want here. But you have a lot of responsibility . . . This is not for everyone. You need to be really aware of what you need, what you want, and then be active in pursuing those needs and wants, because no one will do it for you"* (Service designer, coachee A). Another employee expressed the freedom challenge as follows: *"Everybody says we don't need managers, but when you get rid of the managers you realize that, holy shit, we really need managers*" (Software developer, coach D).

These employee comments highlight the challenge for which Nitor's peer coaching system provides one important response. Not everyone knows all the time what to do, and being fully empowered and responsible for your own performance in a self-managing organization is not necessarily a preferred choice for everyone, all the time. This can often lead to stress. In McGregor's terms, rather than fitting either the assumptions of Theory X or Theory Y, employees are likely to have a range of preferences between these two extremes. In a self-managing organization, even employees more inclined towards Theory Y assumptions are likely to benefit from some form of organizational guidance and support. Nitor's peer coaching system was developed to substitute the continuous informational and relational support normally provided in traditional organizations by middle management, and to offer more clarity and structure in the ambiguous self-organizing environment. In fact, the coaching system originated from a need in the organization, with multiple employees wishing for coaching to help them maintain their well-being. A group of people, including two certified coaches at Nitor and other employees expressing an interest in the topic, began developing the company's peer coaching system. The system's primary goal was set to ensure employee well-being: *"We're very keen on everybody having a good situation in life in general, because if you feel good, if everything's balanced in your life, then there's a lot less risk of burning out"* (Digital designer, coachee H). This aim differentiates Nitor from the majority of organizations using peer coaching for professional development or to enhance the organization's financial performance and effectiveness. Nitor strongly believes the company's long-term performance is dependent on nurturing employee well-being.

The peer coaching system comprises a pool of voluntary coaches, available to all Nitor employees. In line with the self-managing organizational culture, joining and staying in the peer coaching system as a coach and/or coachee is entirely voluntary, and independent of an individual's role and experience. In order to attract potential coaches and

coachees into the system, Nitor introduces its peer coaching to all new hires, as well as providing information about it on the company's intranet. There is a lot of variety in the background of both the coaches and coachees. The coachee can freely choose their coach from the pool of employees who have voluntarily signed up for the role. The guiding light in the choice of coach is usually that they have the competence, experience or characteristics that make them attractive to a particular coachee. For prospective coaches, Nitor arranges a two-day training session. Nitor believes that anyone can develop into a successful peer coach with some training. Staying true to the self-managing culture, this training educates coaches in applying a flexible approach where the coachee is in the driver's seat and leads the discussion. To support this aim, coaches are trained in core coaching skills such as active listening, establishing trust, being present, open communication, creating awareness, asking strong questions, and goal-setting. In addition, meet-ups are arranged on a regular basis to facilitate peer learning among coaches (voluntary for anyone to join, including coachees). The coaching sessions' content is however confidential to the coach-coachee pair. In addition, coaches are encouraged to ask for feedback and improvement suggestions from their coachees to enable additional learning. Finally, resources related to peer coaching are provided on the company's online collaborative platform Confluence. While the coaching system is well aligned with the self-managing culture, it also has its challenges, to which we return towards the end of the paper.

To better understand the functioning of Nitor's peer coaching system from the employees' perspective, we conducted 26 in-depth interviews with six coaches, thirteen coachees, four employees acting as both coach and coachee, and three who had not joined the system at all. The interviews uncovered the subjective experiences and perceived outcomes of peer coaching among these participants (For more information about applied methods, see the Appendix). At the time of the interviews in autumn 2018, Nitor had 31 coaches and 71 coachees among its 120 employees (some both coach and coachee). Around this time, the peer coaching system had been in place for one-and-a-half years, and more than 150 coaching sessions had taken place. The peer coaches had one to six coachees. The frequency of coaching sessions for the coachee ranged from a few per year to one every second week. We analyzed each interview inductively, where we identified common themes and insights. These research findings are presented below.

THE CORE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PEER COACHING SYSTEM DRIVEN BY COACHEE NEEDS

The major driving force of the peer coaching system at Nitor is the coachee's needs. These are multidimensional and determine the nature of the coaching engagements. We identified two main characteristics of coaching engagements which impact the perceived effectiveness of peer coaching: the focus of coaching sessions (work, personal, holistic), and their function (e.g., nurturing employee well-being, providing emotional and informational support, and/or empowering employees). We now discuss these characteristics.

The Preferred Focus Areas in Peer Coaching at Nitor

The Nitor Mindplatter holistic coaching tool stresses the importance of employee well-being and guides the focus in coaching sessions (Fig. 2). It gradually and collaboratively evolves to suit Nitor's culture through the work of a voluntary and changing group of Nitor employees. At the time of our study, the tool comprised ten thematic areas highlighting both personal well-being and professional issues: nutrition, sleep time, focus time, non-focus time, connecting time, creativity time, happy time, physical time, customer time, and Nitor time. In the coaching sessions, employees are encouraged to rely on the Mindplatter to ensure that a wide range of well-being areas are initially covered and kept in mind, but they are free to choose other areas on which they prefer to focus. *"The starting point for the peer coach is to bring two ears that listen openly to the coachee",* and at least initially to avoid any professional or personal goal-setting.

Our informants reported that the Nitor Mindplatter tool serves as a good starting point in the coaching sessions, helping to raise their awareness concerning their well-being, and to reflect on different areas and identify those on which to focus in the session. In addition, coachees described the tool as follows: *"The Mindplatter illustrates the wholeness of how everything is connected and all of those aspects are important for you to feel good"* (Digital designer, coachee H). After an initial discussion based on the Mindplatter tool, sessions tend to focus on one of three aspects: *personal focus, work focus,* or *holistic* focus. The group of employees choosing *personal focus* prefer to discuss mainly personal issues such as *physical well-being* (e.g., improving physical exercise, eating habits, and/or sleeping habits), *mental well-being* (e.g., work-life balance), and *personal development* (e.g., clarifying and achieving personal goals). A typical response from this group was: *"I wouldn't want to talk about career development or those business-specific things. I'd like to keep the business out of it"*(Digital designer, coachee H). The *work focus* employees prefer to stick to work-related themes such as *work performance and satisfaction* (e.g., how to be more proactive and engaged at work, and how to deal with challenges presented by customers and other situations), *professional development* (e.g., defining developmental career paths and learning new technical and soft skills), and *community belonging* (e.g., the coachee's social network). These employees are not interested in raising personal issues in the sessions, as they prefer to keep their work and personal life separate: "*I chose a coach who has senior architect skills, and have been working in this area for a long time, so in my situation it was more professional targets than personal*" (Software architect, coachee G). Employees with a *holistic focus* prefer to discuss both personal- and work-related topics in the peer coaching sessions, which was typically reflected as follows:

> It's absurd to think that you can only discuss the professional self in a coaching session because I'm here as a complete person, there's no abstract part of me that is the professional, [such that] only the professional comes to work and does the work. (Service designer, coachee A)

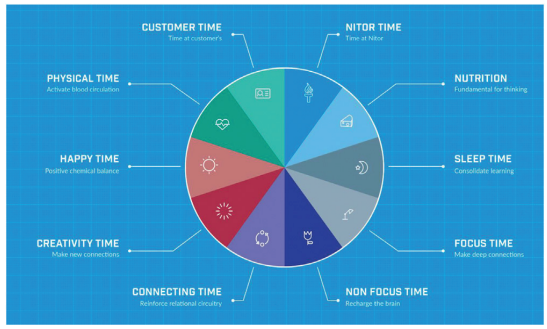


Figure 2 The Nitor Mindplatter Tool for Peer Coaching (adapted based on Rock et al., 2012)

> [It is] refreshing to see that they also mentioned the sleep there [in the Mindplatter tool]. Which is a good thing, because most of us don't sleep enough. Or rest enough. Yeah, so it's not, it should not be only about work, it should be about your life in total. (Senior software architect, coachee F)

Employees generally expressed a strong preference for one of the three focuses, holistic being the most common among coachees, followed by personal and work as summarized in Table 1. A strength of the peer coaching system is its flexibility to cater to these diverse preferences.

The Preferred Coaching Functions in Peer Coaching at Nitor

In addition to having different focus preferences in the coaching sessions, employees had different preferences as to the function of the sessions. Some employees were satisfied with their status quo and perceived the peer coaching sessions primarily as a "safety forum" for maintaining their current well-being. In contrast, others felt a real need to change and used the sessions to get help therein. Based on our interviews, we identified four functions accomplished by peer coaching at Nitor, that is, *scanning*, *validating*, *sharing*, and *activating* (see Table 2). These functions cut across the preferred focuses of peer coaching, such that for each focus area the sessions might accomplish one or several coaching functions. Thus, while the prior literature has in general described peer coaching as a developmental process, which aims to build and develop new skills and knowledge in the workplace, our findings suggest the functions of peer coaching may be more multifaceted. We now describe each of these functions.

Scanning

Coachees most common need at Nitor was to have someone to turn to, someone who would help them reflect on how things were going, and explore whether there were issues that required attention. Therein, the peer coaching sessions provided employees with a time and space to stop and reflect upon what is going on in their life. Those employees valued a coach who used techniques that raised the coachee's awareness of different aspects of their life and work, and their current state of well-being. As a result of this function, coachees commonly felt safer, "looked after", and more confident.

Validating

The second most common coachee need concerned validation, for recognition and affirmation of the coachee's thoughts or feelings. An employee in need of validation viewed a peer coach as "an ear" that listened to those thoughts and feelings on a regular basis, or as "a shoulder

Table 1 Preferred Focus in the Peer Coaching Sessions

Personal focus	Coachees in this group (*5 interviewed coachees*) showed a preference for focusing largely on personal issues in the peer coaching sessions, such as *physical well-being*, *mental well-being*, and *personal development*. This group of coachees was open to sharing their personal life experiences with the coach.
Work focus	Coachees in this small group (*2 interviewed coachees*) showed a preference for discussing mainly professional issues, such as *work performance and satisfaction*, *professional development*, and *community belonging*. They preferred to keep work life and personal life separate.
Holistic focus	The third group of coachees, the majority (*9 interviewed coachees*), preferred to focus on both personal and work issues during the peer coaching sessions.

Recommendation for implementing peer coaching:

- Awareness of these three preferred focus areas, driven by the coachee's individual needs/preferences and adjusting to those needs, is an important aspect facilitating the success of a peer coaching system. The ability of the coach to recognize and fulfil different coachee needs/preferences is an important success factor.

Table 2 Functions of the Peer Coaching System that Cut Across the Preferred Focus Areas

Coaching function	Description of coaching function (for personal, work, or holistic focuses of peer coaching sessions)	Illustrative coachee quotes
Scanning	Regular check-ups on the employee's current situation in the personal and/or work domain(s)	*"It's very reassuring to know that at least somebody is kind of looking after you, because otherwise in this kind of flat hierarchy it's easy to get lost."*
Validating	Recognition and affirmation that the employee's feelings and thoughts are valid and relevant in the personal and/or work domain(s)	*"You get to kind of validate your feelings, that you are not wrong."*
Sharing	Sharing an external perspective, information, and knowledge with an employee in the personal and/or work domain(s)	*"We have a great team and great co-workers, but in the coaching sessions you can get help with your work from someone working a little bit outside your immediate work group."*
Activating	Empowering an employee to take action towards the achievement of goals in the personal and/or work domain(s)	*"In the sessions you actually agree on action points . . . and then you report . . . and you come back to action points that were agreed upon."*

Recommendation for implementing peer coaching:

- These four coaching functions are driven by individual needs/preferences, which is another important aspect of the peer coaching system. The ability of the coach to recognize and match the current coachee need/preference to a particular coaching function is thus vital for successful peer coaching.

to lean on", who offered emotional support. Those employees valued a coach who engaged in active listening, and did indeed help affirm the coachee's thoughts and feelings. As a result of this function, coachees commonly perceived that they gained peace of mind, a feeling of being socially connected, and of becoming emotionally recharged.

Sharing

The third coachee need concerned informational support, where the coach provides an external perspective on a specific topic or problematic situation. Those coachees valued coaches who shared their own experience, offered an additional informative perspective on the coachee's current work or life issues, and assisted the coachee in generating their own perspectives on the current situation. As a result of sharing, coachees commonly perceived that they gained new perspectives on their own challenges, and learned to better navigate the self-managing environment.

Activating

The final coachee need that we identified was "being activated". Coachees wanted the peer coaching sessions to facilitate and enhance their proactivity, to reach personal and/or professional goals. Those employees valued a coach who enabled change by helping them become empowered and in charge of their own life and work situations, commonly through defining and following up on concrete goals. As a result of this function, coachees felt they achieved concrete change. Essentially, through the activating function they learned to take responsibility for their own well-being, development and performance, essential criteria to thrive in the self-managing environment.

In sum, the same coaching focus, for example "*reducing stress at work*", could be pursued in different ways. The coachee might have the need to discover/assess current stressful issues in their work (*scanning*), or just to vent about a current stressful situation and get affirmation from the coach (*validating*), and/or perhaps to receive information related to the topic of the stress and how to handle it (*sharing*), and/or to take action to reduce the stress (*activating*). In practice, these four functions are not completely independent of each other and are rarely manifested alone in any particular coaching session. On the contrary, the realization of one need leads to the actualization of another, and several coaching functions can thus be in play in one coaching session. For example, scanning a situation, and validating a coachee's thoughts and feelings at the beginning of a session, could be followed up by the coach sharing an external perspective, and the coachee being activated through defining a clear goal and first immediate actions.

It is, however, essential for peer coaches to understand this nuanced and diverse range of coachee needs and preferences, in order to provide them with the support they need. In a few instances, the support provided by the coach was not aligned with coachee needs. For instance, a few employees who wished to become "activated" had a coach who placed more emphasis on just "scanning". Those employees felt disillusioned and unhappy with the coaching outcomes. In the majority of cases, however, the pairing was more successful, and peer coaching could act as a powerful resource for well-being. We now turn to explaining how peer coaching enhanced well-being at Nitor.

MULTIPLE WAYS PEER COACHING FOSTERS EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING

The peer coaches and coachees at Nitor experienced the peer coaching system as a powerful source of individual well-being. Our data point to three specific mechanisms of its effects, through: 1) an increase in coachee self-awareness and proactivity in the personal domain; 2) an increase in

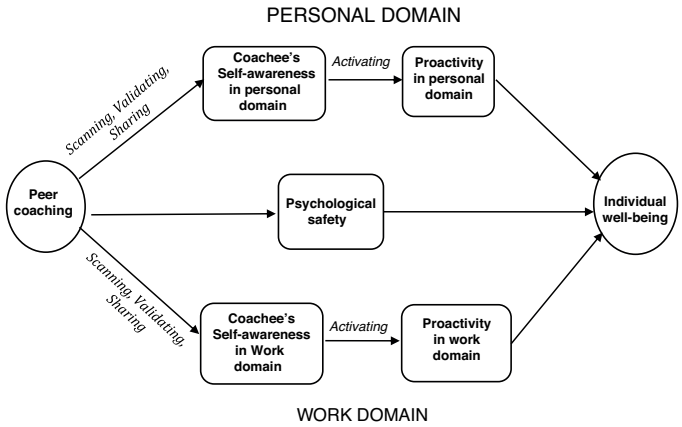


Figure 3 Enhanced Well-being Through Self-awareness, Proactivity, and Psychological Safety

coachee self-awareness and proactivity in the work domain; and 3) the perception of psychological safety. We now describe these three pathways to individual well-being at Nitor through peer coaching (See Fig. 3).

Nurturing Well-being through Self-Awareness and Proactivity in the Personal Domain

Employees who preferred to focus on the personal domain in peer coaching commonly experienced an increase in self-awareness in the domain. Increased self-awareness, defined as an accurate understanding of your strengths and weaknesses, reflected greater awareness and more clarity on the coachee's current state of well-being and extant challenges in the personal domain: such as unhealthy nutrition, non-sustainable sleeping routines, or a lack of physical exercise: The following quotes exemplify these outcomes: *"During that session I realized that I'm not paying enough attention to what I eat due to a lack of time with my busy schedule. But that made me more mindful . . . when rushing to the store to buy a meal"* (Digital designer, coachee H). Alternatively, some employees realized they were content with their life and satisfied with their level of well-being, which is also an important part of creating self-awareness among employees: *"I realized that even though I'm very busy I'm actually quite happy with my life situation in general"* (Digital designer, coachee H). Our findings indicate that three functions of peer coaching (scanning, validating, and sharing) facilitated this change in self-awareness.

Based on the above, and supported by the activation function of the peer coaching system, many coachees also took further steps to set and achieve goals in relation to their well-being, thus becoming more proactive in increasing and sustaining it. The activities undertaken included improving work-life balance, increasing quality time with family and significant ones, and allocating more time for self-care, such as going to the gym more frequently or biking to work: *"It's a very big difference, like, when you want to lose weight, if you tell someone about your goal, then it's different than if you just decide that yourself. It's kind of easier to forget the target, if you are alone"* (Software developer, coachee N). Thus, one common way to enhance employee well-being is through an increase in self-awareness and proactivity in the personal domain.

Nurturing Well-being through Self-Awareness and Proactivity in the Work Domain

Employees preferring to focus on the work domain in peer coaching commonly experienced an increase in self-awareness in that domain. This increased self-awareness concerned topics such as work performance, professional development needs and opportunities, and aspects of community belonging. For example, after assessing their own strengths and desired areas for growth, a coachee identified which work project it would be useful to join next, or what training to attend in order to continue their development in a certain professional area: *"It helped me assess whether I have enough time for career development . . . and to notice that okay, here's some room for improvement"* (Principal cloud architect, coachee B). Frequently, coaching sessions would focus on how to get things done and manage the workload in a self-organizing environment: *"It's definitely something you need to learn, how to keep the balance [manage workload] in this environment"* (Senior software architect, coachee M).

In several cases, increased self-awareness, in turn, led to the coachee utilizing the activation function of the peer coaching system to take concrete steps in an agreed direction, supported by the coach. For example, *"One thing is that it kind of pushed me to do this one certificate I'd been wanting to do for a year."* or *"I learned that I was waiting too much for a green light from somebody, for somebody else to make the decision, but then in the end it was up to me"* (Senior software architect, coachee F). Importantly, coaching engagements helped improve the skills needed to work in a self-managing environment. Thus, another way to enhance employee well-being through peer coaching is via increased self-awareness and proactivity in the work domain.

Nurturing Well-being through Psychological Safety

Although the majority of employees were interested in using the peer coaching to clarify their own goals and becoming proactive in achieving them in the personal and/or work domain, not everyone was in need of transformation despite attending peer coaching. Not everyone wanted to become activated. For some, just walking into a session and walking out feeling safe and "looked after", was a source of increased psychological safety, in the sense of clarity and support for self-expression, and thereby of reduced stress and insecurity. Psychological safety therein offered an alternative pathway to well-being, as illustrated in Fig. 3 below. The following comment shows how peer coaching may nurture well-being through psychological safety: *"It's also nice to exchange opinions with other people even though it's not that constructive and doesn't lead to any big solution"* (Business operations specialist, coachee L). Coaches should be aware that activation is not on everyone's wish list, and employee well-being could be increased in multiple ways based on the coachee's current needs and preferences. Peer coaching at Nitor is, therefore, a dynamic employee well-being support system, where the functions of the peer coaching system evolve organically based on employees' current needs.

ORGANIZATION-LEVEL IMPACT OF PEER COACHING AT NITOR

Beyond the positive impact of peer coaching on individual employee well-being, our study allows us to elucidate organization level gains from peer coaching. Below we describe different organizational level impacts of peer coaching, namely a psychologically safe organizational climate, organizational belonging, organizational learning, and organizational empowerment. In addition, we discuss the role of peer coaching in substituting the middle management function. Our findings suggest that these organizational outcomes occur in two stages as a result of peer coaching engagements (see Fig. 4). In the first stage, a psychologically safe organizational climate, organizational belonging, and organizational learning are enabled through the interaction of the scanning, sharing and validating coaching functions. In the second, organizational empowerment is enabled through the peer coaching function of activating. We now discuss each of these outcomes.

Psychologically Safe Organizational Climate

One important outcome of peer coaching at the organizational level is a psychologically safe organizational climate. Our findings indicate that the coaching function of scanning serves as *an organizational safeguard mechanism*, in that employees feel they have someone to turn to, and who is looking after them. The function scans the environment through "check-ins" that can alert the appropriate actors should the situation slip out of control: *"Yes, it's a nice gesture from the company side that they allocate somebody who cares about you . . . . It's nice to have a person who is dedicated to looking after you. It's kind of a safety thing, a feeling of safety I get out of it the most"* (Senior software architect, coachee M). In addition, peer coaching may be especially beneficial for new employees: *"This psychological safety is especially helpful for new people at Nitor who aren't used to operating in this kind of structureless environment, where you can just do things and everything will be fine"* (Senior software architect, coachee M). As a result of scanning, someone at Nitor is continuously aware of the well-being of employees participating in the peer coaching system.

Organizational Belonging

A second outcome of peer coaching at the organizational level is organizational belonging. Scanning helps to create a psychologically safe organizational climate and in interaction with the validating coaching function it serves as a mechanism for *organizational belonging*. This increases feelings of connection and being part of a close community among employees and fulfills a relational need: *"Peer coaching helps to develop a stronger connection with a colleague . . . people that feel they are strongly connected to their company and where they have somebody to talk to are also a lot happier at the workplace"* (Software developer and agile coach, coach E) and *"It's easier to speak with people with whom you work daily . . . but then the peer coaching system builds the network on the top of that. So in that sense, it builds a strong, unstructured network within the company"* (Lean-agile coach, coach A). Organizational belonging was thus fostered through peer coaching by creating an atmosphere where people felt they could empathize with one another, that their thoughts and feelings were accepted, and where they felt included and could identify with their organization.

Organizational Learning

The third outcome is organizational learning. Our findings indicate that peer coaching sessions in which active listening, empathizing, and knowledge sharing take place, through the coaching functions of scanning, validating, and informing, result in individual learning by both the coachee and coach. As a Nitor coach put it: *"I thought it's*

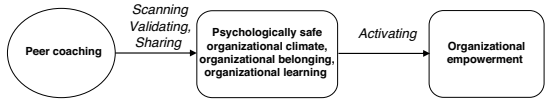


Figure 4 Organization-level Impact of Peer Coaching at Nitor

one-way learning when I provide support for my coachees, but then I discovered it's been a two-way learning process, because as I talk to my coachees, I get a better idea of what's going on" (Senior software architect, coach B). While it is important not to take organizational learning for granted, the psychologically safe climate and feelings of belonging fostered by the peer coaching also contribute to employees' willingness to share and learn from each other. Thus, even as the content of the peer coaching sessions is confidential and directly contributes only to knowledge exchange between the coach and coachee, the cumulative learnings of both actors in multiple coaching relationships increases knowledge sharing and learning also at the organizational level.

Organizational Empowerment

The final outcome is organizational empowerment. Our findings suggest that when the self-organizing environment is enriched with safety, trust, openness, sharing, and learning, peer coaching fosters organizational empowerment. The activation coaching function serves as an organizational empowerment mechanism, in that coached employees derive more clarity on their goals, gain more confidence to act, define action plans, and follow up on them. *"For the company we are going to have motivated people that want to improve themselves in a professional way"* (Software developer and agile coach, coach H). Peer coaching encourages and supports employees in taking charge of their own well-being, development, and performance. A high level of empowerment is crucial in self-managing organizations, which are primarily based on principles of self-leadership and initiative-taking on the part of employees.

The Peer Coaching System as a Substitute for Middle Management at Nitor

In traditional hierarchical organizations managers play many roles. One important role revolves around energizing, motivating, and mobilizing human resources. A key question concerns the extent to which, in self-managing organizations, the tasks performed in the above-mentioned roles can be executed by structuring the organization and its processes, essentially by substituting the formal leadership, through structures and systems including peer support.

The four organization-level outcomes of peer coaching at Nitor as discussed above — a psychologically safe organizational climate, organizational belonging, organizational learning, and organizational empowerment — indicate that the voluntary peer coaching system can substitute the formal leadership functions of traditional companies when it comes to creating well-being. The scanning function of the peer coaching system substitutes the safety and control function of formal leadership, the validating function its relational function, the sharing function leadership's informational function, and the activating function its empowering function. Indeed, as a Nitor employee put it: *"This system makes sure that we are not suffering from the side effects of not having managers. Also it's a sign, an indication, from the company side that we do value employee well-being"* (People operations, coach I). As Nitor grows and matures, it continues to explore the peer coaching system's potential and scalability with one goal firmly in mind: *"Our aim is not to start managing people, because if we do they become manageable, showing less entrepreneurial spirit, and taking fewer initiatives"* (Lean-agile coach, coach A). Hence, the aim of the peer coaching is not to be a system of monitoring or managing people as Nitor is striving to stay flat and entrepreneurial in spite of its significant growth. Although we have, to date, mainly focused on the positive side of the peer coaching system at Nitor, we now highlight four challenges associated with peer coaching in self-managing organizations that are important to bear in mind.

CHALLENGES ACCOMPANYING THE PEER COACHING SYSTEM

Challenge #1: Allocating Time for Regular Peer Coaching

In contrast to executive coaching, where the coach's main responsibility is to deliver coaching to employees, peer coaching at Nitor is based on voluntary work. All the coaches operate as software developers, service designers, or architects, or act as agile coaches in a highly competitive and turbulent business environment aiming to provide cutting-edge solutions to demanding clients in the industry. Their projects leave limited time to spend on peer coaching sessions: *"Sometimes a project tends to tie the coach or coachee up pretty tightly, so the schedules are difficult to arrange"* (Software developer and agile coach, coach E). In addition, many of the employees work on long-term projects at customer sites, and, thus, peer coaches and coachees are often physically present in different locations. Partly to prioritize time for peer coaching, Nitor has introduced Friday as a "work at the office" day (before the Covid-19 pandemic arrived). Having a day where you normally do not have client meetings has helped in implementing the peer coaching system.

Challenge #2: Confidentiality vs. Transparency in the Coaching Process

Peer coaching sessions are confidential, meaning that only the coach and coachee know what happens behind closed doors. It is precisely this confidentiality that allows for a high level of trust and intimacy in the peer coaching relationships, a core condition for successful peer coaching. However, this same confidentiality makes it challenging to create organization-level awareness of employee well-being. As one solution to this, Nitor has been experimenting with collecting anonymous aggregate data from peer coaching interactions to better understand the overall well-being situation in the organization.

Challenge #3: Switching the Coach

Switching to another coach when the relationship is not working satisfactorily involves challenges in the form of perceived social costs for the coachee. While in executive coaching, switching the coach might be considered normal

practice, in peer coaching at Nitor a coachee sometimes hesitates to request switching. This is due to the fear of damaging the coach's reputation and/or jeopardizing the relationship with a coach who may be a colleague working in the same organizational unit, and sometimes in the same project team. Thus, none of our interviewees had attempted to change their peer coach, even if the coaching process was sometimes not working especially well. To alleviate such challenges, Nitor is experimenting with assigning temporary coaches and rotating them once in a while through a process called "peer coach switching day".

Challenge #4: Agency in the Coaching Process

In self-managing organizations, there is an underlying expectation that everyone not only has the opportunity, but also the ability, to manage themselves. There is a strong expectation of individual agency. Nevertheless, employees at Nitor had varying expectations of how active the coach should be in activating change. One group of people viewed coaches as the peers they were, there to offer support and guidance, and facilitate change. Another group expected the coach to take action to solve problems or create goals for the coachee, thus viewing the coaching system as a substitute for top-down leadership, and the coach as their "stand-in" manager. It is important to understand the different agency expectations, as they may lead to dissatisfaction with coaching, where the coachee expects active guidance from the coach but it is not forthcoming. The following two comments exemplify the various perspectives of the role of coach vs. coachee in "getting things done": *"So I think the talking part has been most useful... I haven't been looking for it [solutions] because usually if I have a problem in my life or work I just solve it myself"* (An example of coachee agency from a senior software architect, coachee M). And *"In an organization like this the coach can maybe help you solve your problems, because it's not an organization where you need authority to get things done"* (An example of coach agency from a software architect, coachee G).

In general, one of the core coaching principles is that it is the coachee who has agency, not the coach. However, based on the empirical evidence from the Nitor case, we recommend that agency expectations need to be explicitly discussed and clarified at the start of each peer coaching collaboration. At the same time, it is important to keep the system flexible and driven largely by the needs of the coachee, which may change over time. To support the coaching process, Nitor has developed a system whereby the coach records information from the coaching session so that the coach and coachee can keep track of, and go back to discuss, the progress made (e.g., concerning any goals that have been defined).

CONCLUSIONS

We have delved into a self-managing organization, operating under radical Theory Y assumptions and realizing that many employees still need some form of hands-on guidance. This suggests interesting limitations to Theory Y, even in an organization that tries to hire self-efficacious employees, comfortable with autonomy and the ensuing responsibility. Our case study offers insights into the core characteristics of an innovative peer coaching system that, very much in line with the self-managing culture, serves the purpose of guiding employees and nurturing their well-being.

We have identified central aspects of this voluntary peer coaching, including coachees' preferred focus areas (holistic, personal, work), and the preferred functions of coaching (scanning, validating, sharing, activating). The study also points to multiple paths to employee well-being, through self-awareness and proactivity in personal and/or work domains, as well as through psychological safety, all facilitated by the peer coaching. Furthermore, we have highlighted some topical organization-level outcomes that also seem to be nurtured by peer coaching. These are a psychologically safe organizational climate, organizational belonging, organizational learning, and organizational empowerment. Finally, we identified tentative solutions to four challenges concerning the self-managing peer coaching system, including 1) allocating time for peer coaching, 2) the confidentiality of the coaching process, 3) switching coaches, and 4) agency in the coaching process.

There is an evolving paradigm shift within the field of leadership, in line with the romance of leadership theory, which suggests that we socially misconstrue the relevance of hierarchical person-centric leadership. Many practitioners and scholars alike now view leadership as a property of the collective. Self-management is an essential part of such collective leadership. To function effectively, both collective leadership and self-management need supporting organizational structures, practices, and systems. This study has demonstrated how peer coaching may function as one such system, filling the middle-management void. We posit that some form of peer coaching is a viable idea also for more traditional organizations that are moving towards increased self-management, but it is important to bear in mind the bottom-up, voluntary nature of the evolution of the studied peer coaching system. Interested organizations may do well to start small and simply nudge employees to engage with the system.

The present study contributes to the literature on self-managing organizations by providing evidence of a peer coaching system that helps employees thrive in the absence of managers. The study advances the literature on peer coaching in several specific ways. First, our findings are consistent with the limited previous research that has found peer coaching in traditional business settings to be positively related to personal and professional development and career learning, as well as organizational learning and leadership development. Second, there are very few extant studies on the relationship between peer coaching and well-being, all in educational and medical settings, and they have yielded mixed results. Thus, our study constitutes pioneering research on peer coaching's impact on employee well-being in business organizations, and in particular in self-managing organizations. Third, the studied peer coaching system suggests a supplementary view to existing dynamic stage-based models of peer coaching. Rather than prescribing the exact stages of the peer coaching process, it suggests a more flexible functional approach, grounded in coachees' needs, with only some general guidance on how to provide coaching

that is attentive to the needs of the coachee. This is very much in line with the management philosophy and values of self-managing organizations.

All in all, we posit that peer coaching provides exciting opportunities for fostering employee proactivity and well-being in particular in self-managing organizations.

INFORMED CONSENT

Informed consent was obtained from all participants in the study.

DATA STATEMENT

Our data is unavailable to access as the research data is confidential.

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Appendix 1 Methods

Our research team comprised academics and one practitioner (Senior Lean-Agile Coach from the case company, Nitor), with the shared aim of discovering how peer coaching might serve as a source of well-being in self-managing organizations. We began our research project by presenting the study at the monthly company-wide meeting at Nitor,

which was open to participation by all employees. Following this, 26 (21% of the company's personnel) employees volunteered to take part in the study. In selecting the participants, we ensured that we had employees in the roles of peer coach (N = 6), coachee (N = 13), acting as both (N = 4), and neither (i.e. people who had not joined the coaching system) (N = 3), in order to obtain a diverse sample representing different perspectives. The gender distribution in our sample was 21 male (81% of the sample) and 5 female (19%). The age distribution was as follows: 21—30 years old (12% of our sample), 31—40 (38%), 41—50 (46%), and 51—60 (4%).

Next, we conducted 26 semi-structured in-depth interviews (45—90 min long, 82 min on average). They were conducted by two members of our research team, in English, which is the primary working language at Nitor. The core interview protocol was designed to uncover the subjective experiences and perceived outcomes of peer coaching amongst the participants. The interview themes included: characteristics of the peer coaching system, individual and organizational outcomes, mechanisms to create well-being, challenges in peer coaching, and areas where the system could be improved. The interview questions differed in part for peer coaches, coachees, people in both roles, and people outside the coaching system, due to their different perspectives.

All the interviews were recorded and transcribed for analysis. Additional data sources included Nitor's company website and intranet documents, such as the principles of Nitor's organizational culture, materials on coaching from Nitor's online collaborative platform Confluence, and the Mindplatter tool. We analyzed our data inductively, first by applying open coding to identify initial first-order concepts, then by grouping them into second-order themes, and finally into aggregate dimensions, in line with Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton (2013). This data analysis allowed us to identify two main characteristics of coaching engagements impacting the perceived effectiveness of peer coaching. These comprised the focus of coaching sessions (aggregate dimension), namely work focus, personal focus, or holistic focus (second-order themes); and their function (aggregate dimension), namely scanning, validating, informing, and activating (second-order themes). The analysis also revealed a number of well-being mechanisms at the individual level, organizational level outcomes, and peer coaching system challenges.

Natalia Fey is a Doctoral Researcher at Hanken School of Economics, Finland, a certified organizational coach, and the founder of the company Multicultural Lab. Natalia conducts research on innovative approaches to developing leadership through coaching in the context of multinational and self-managing organizations. In her research, Natalia draws on 15 years of professional experience in intercultural trainings and coaching. Her previous work has been published in *Advances in Global Leadership*. E-mail: natalia.fey@hanken.fi. (Corresponding author).

Emma Nordbäck is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Management and Organization at Hanken School of Economics. The core of her research focuses on how to lead and design thriving collaborations for an empowered workforce, particularly in the context of globally distributed teams and virtual work, as well as in self-managing organizations. Her work has been published in journals from various disciplines, including *Journal of Management Information Systems, Journal of Organization Design, and Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*. E-mail: emma.nordback@hanken.fi.

Mats Ehrnrooth is Professor at the Department of Management and Organization at Hanken School of Economics. His research focuses on the theory and practice of HRM, leadership, and organizational behavior from international, indigenous, cross-cultural, and various methodological perspectives. He has published in several prestigious academic journals including *Journal of Management Studies, Strategic Management Journal, Journal of International Business Studies, Human Resource Management, Human Resource Management Journal, and Journal of World Business*. E-mail: mats.ehrnrooth@hanken.fi.

Kirsi Mikkonen is a senior Lean - Agile coach at Nitor. Prior joining Nitor, Kirsi was a change driver at Ericsson R&D Finland where she successfully led Lean thinking transformation. Kirsi is now on a mission to turn company by company into Agile, increasing company profitability and creating a better working environments. She has practiced Lean & Agile thinking since 2008 and applies a neuroscientific approach both in her coaching work and when applying agile methods. She has published in the *Lean Management Journal*. E-mail: kirsi.mikkonen@nitor.com.

NATALIA FEY

Advancing Coaching for Leadership Development: Coaching as an Enabler of Learning and Well-Being in Local and Global Organizations

The shortage of effective business and societal leaders, able to solve complex tasks in a responsible way, is recognized among the major obstacles facing local and global organizations. However, scholarly understanding of how leaders develop their leadership capabilities sufficiently to address current and future organizational challenges is limited. Foremost leadership development research has been focused on developmental methods such as formal training, mentoring, job assignments, and action learning. Research on coaching for leadership development is lagging behind, despite coaching emerging as a mainstream HR development practice in organizations. Further, extant research largely focuses on the most traditional form of coaching for leadership development - executive coaching, and mainly in traditional hierarchical business organizations.

Against this background, my dissertation explores the role of coaching and the mechanisms of how coaching enables leadership development beyond the mainstream coaching forms and organizational contexts. In particular, the first study, which is a systematic literature review, conceptualizes the global leader learning process from international experience and identifies the moderating role of coaching in global leader learning. It serves as a conceptual foundation for the two following empirical studies, which investigate the two innovative and distinct coaching forms of intercultural leadership coaching and peer coaching. The second study is a pioneering large-scale two-wave survey of 107 coaching dyads examining the role of the coach and coachee's individual cultural intelligence (CQ) components in coachee learning, carried out in the much under-researched context of international development organizations. The third study is an in-depth inductive study exploring the role of an innovative peer coaching system in fostering employee proactivity and well-being in a self-managing Finnish digital engineering company.

This dissertation extends the theoretical landscape of coaching for leadership development by applying several theoretical perspectives such as the learning perspective, the relational view, the proactivity perspective, and the well-being perspective. It contributes to the coaching literature by outlining the moderating role of coaching in leadership development; identifying the primary role of the coach's metacognitive and motivational CQ and the secondary role of the coachee's metacognitive and motivational CQ in coachee learning; and revealing that peer coaching is able to foster employee proactivity and well-being and can substitute for several leadership functions in a self-managing organization. The dissertation contributes to the CQ literature by explicating novel intrapersonal and interpersonal compensatory mechanisms between the CQ components of one person and the CQ components of two different people interacting.

By studying coaching initiatives that penetrate vertically across leadership levels in organizations and horizontally across cultural borders, my dissertation advances scholarly and practitioner knowledge on how coaching enables leadership development beyond conventional coaching forms and organizational contexts. This in turn reveals significant opportunities for more inclusive coaching for leadership development and its possible benefits.

HANKEN SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS

HELSINKI
ARKADIANKATU 22, P.O. BOX 479,
00101 HELSINKI, FINLAND
PHONE: +358 (0)29 431 331

VAASA
KIRJASTONKATU 16, P.O. BOX 287,
65101 VAASA, FINLAND
PHONE: +358 (0)6 3533 700

BIBLIOTEKET@HANKEN.FI
HANKEN.FI/DHANKEN

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