



The International Journal of Human Resource Management

ISSN: 0958-5192 (Print) 1466-4399 (Online) Journal homepage: www.tandfonline.com/journals/rijh20

A systematic literature review on the definitions of global mindset and cultural intelligence – merging two different research streams

Maike Andresen & Franziska Bergdolt

To cite this article: Maike Andresen & Franziska Bergdolt (2017) A systematic literature review on the definitions of global mindset and cultural intelligence – merging two different research streams, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 28:1, 170-195, DOI: [10.1080/09585192.2016.1243568](https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1243568)

To link to this article: <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1243568>



Published online: 14 Oct 2016.



Submit your article to this journal [↗](#)



Article views: 11808



View related articles [↗](#)



View Crossmark data [↗](#)



Citing articles: 38 View citing articles [↗](#)

A systematic literature review on the definitions of global mindset and cultural intelligence – merging two different research streams

Maike Andresen and Franziska Bergdolt

Department of Social Sciences, Economics and Business Administration, University of Bamberg, Bamberg, Germany

ABSTRACT

The literature on global mindset indicates a growing array of different approaches to its definition and conceptualization. The components making up global mindset are often unclear and vary significantly between studies. Concomitantly, global mindset shows major overlap with the cultural intelligence construct. This leads to an unfortunate lack of comparability of research results and to potential confusion for readers. In this article, the authors systematically review and synthesize the existing definitions and conceptualizations of global mindset and cultural intelligence. These definitions and conceptualizations are grouped according to four dimensions of cross-cultural competencies: personal attributes, cognitive knowledge and skills, motivation, and resources for adapting behavior. Based on this analysis, we provide definitions and a demarcation of the constructs global mindset and cultural intelligence using the three levels of business management (normative, strategic, and operative). Whereas cultural intelligence is a sufficient cross-cultural competency for employees working in operative management, a global mindset becomes highly relevant at the strategic and normative management levels. We derive implications for management practice as well as for future research.

KEYWORDS

Global mindset; cultural intelligence; cross-cultural competencies; systematic literature review

Introduction

Nowadays, global managers and companies face challenges, dualities, and paradoxes to such a high extent that standard structural solutions that are not tailored to specific cultural contexts are believed to no longer be effective (Evans, Pucik, & Barsoux, 2002). Scholars and practitioners are increasingly concluding that only complex human cognition and behavior can tackle the challenges and demands of a complex global environment (e.g. Ashkenas, Ulrich, Jick, & Kerr, 2002). We

extend this assumption by asserting that managers with cross-cultural competencies are nowadays every bit as critical to the success of domestic companies as to internationalizing or international organizations. Arguments supporting this supposition are the steady increase in contacts to international suppliers and customers of domestic companies as well as the rise in the cultural diversity of local workforces (Fitzsimmons, 2013). Therefore, employees and managers across all companies increasingly face and have to deal with intercultural differences.

Hence, as a prerequisite for being successful in international and intercultural contexts, many scholars emphasize that it is vital to possess cross-cultural competencies (e.g. Bücker & Poutsma, 2010a; Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006). These intercultural competencies allow global managers to decode complex cross-cultural situations and think outside narrow cultural boundaries when interacting cross-culturally and making global strategic decisions. In the management literature, the two main intercultural competencies most often referred to are global mindset (e.g. Lovvorn & Chen, 2011; Maznevski & Lane, 2003) and cultural intelligence (e.g. Ang et al., 2007). These two cross-cultural competencies figure prominently within the international business and management fields (e.g. Ang et al., 2007; Story, Barbutto, Luthans, & Bovaird, 2014). We can use a simple literature search in order to illustrate this: when we enter the term cultural intelligence into the business database EBSCO Business Source Complete, we receive 968 hits. For the term global mindset, the database indicates 518 hits. Other cross-cultural competencies have been studied significantly less frequently (e.g. intercultural sensitivity with 202 hits; intercultural competency with 295 hits).

Global mindset as a field of research is constantly growing and nowadays includes a great variety of approaches (e.g. Arora, Jaju, Kefalas, & Perenich, 2004; Javidan & Bowen, 2013; Levy, Beechler, Taylor, & Boyacigiller, 2007; Story et al., 2014). Therefore, the confusion about what the construct of global mindset constitutes seems to grow exponentially according to the increasing number of suggested approaches. A further shortcoming is that due to this conceptual disarray, the comparability of research results is impeded. The use of different scales within global mindset research (e.g. Arora et al., 2004; Story et al., 2014) complicates the interpretation of results, as differences can be ascribed to the differing conceptualizations of a global mindset. As inconsistent and contradictory findings from existing empirical research (Levy et al., 2007) cannot be reconciled, the further development of the concept is impeded. This is why scholars in the field call for a substantive further research effort in order to address this confusion (e.g. Levy et al., 2007; Osland, Bird, & Mendenhall, 2012).

In contrast to research on global mindset, the conceptualization and definition of the construct of cultural intelligence are highly congruent within the literature, which identifies cognitive, motivational, and behavioral components (e.g. Earley & Ang, 2003; Thomas, 2006). However, newer conceptualizations define the construct with reference to a cognitive component only (e.g. Thomas et al., 2015).

Bücker and Poutsma (2010a) describe the main problem associated with the use of the concepts of cultural intelligence and global mindset in the literature. They contend that these two intercultural competencies are treated as more or less similar concepts and appear to show major overlap. Their short and non-systematic review of four cross-cultural competencies (global mindset, cross-cultural competency, intercultural sensitivity, and cultural intelligence) concludes with the development of an integrative and dynamic model of cross-cultural competencies. Differences between cultural intelligence and global mindset, however, are only touched upon and not systematically analyzed.

Former reviews of the global mindset construct, such as the one by Levy et al. (2007), mainly focused on the different research perspectives that global mindset entails (e.g. a cultural or strategic perspective). The systematic review in this paper strives not only to expand the timeframe of the studies reviewed up to 2015, but also to analyze the available definitions through the lens of the different dimensions of cross-cultural competencies. As such, a systematic comparison of the components constituting a global mindset and cultural intelligence is urgently required in order to derive useful implications.

Beyond that, Earley, Murnieks, and Kosakowski (2007) suggest that global mindset and cultural intelligence may be complementary in nature as they stress slightly different and incongruent components of cross-cultural competencies. Despite these findings, current studies apply the concepts of cultural intelligence and global mindset more or less interchangeably as a prerequisite for successful intercultural interactions within different samples (e.g. *for student samples*: Ang et al. (2007) for cultural intelligence and Smith (2012) for global mindset; *for manager samples*: Bücker, Furrer, Poutsma and Buyens (2014) for cultural intelligence and Arora et al. (2004) for global mindset). Students and managers are two very dissimilar sample groups that face different kinds of difficulties and complexities when interacting with their cross-cultural counterparts. Therefore, we suggest that researchers should base their decisions on which cross-cultural competencies to choose for investigation in specific contexts on the relevance of the competency for the specific context and sample studied. It follows that we need to attempt to identify the differences between the two constructs in order to guide future research on the applicability of cultural intelligence and global mindset to particular samples.

This leads to the following research questions which will be addressed here: (1) What are the components making up global mindset and cultural intelligence? (2) What are the main differences between both constructs? and (3) What implications does this have for the application of both competencies within different research and organizational contexts?

The contribution of this paper is twofold: first, we provide a full systematic review of both constructs, global mindset and cultural intelligence, in order to uncover similarities and differences between them. Second, we systematize both constructs with regard to the applicability of a global mindset and cultural

intelligence in management research and practice. In this context, we outline guiding principles for when individuals need either cultural intelligence or a global mindset in order to increase their prospects of success in intercultural interactions and when making global strategic decisions.

The remainder of this article is organized as follows: first, we discuss the extent to which the demands on individuals operating within intercultural contexts alter depending on the internationalization strategy of their company as well as the purpose of their job role, and we provide a theoretical framework for assessing the different dimensions of cross-cultural competencies. Second, the underlying methodology of this systematic literature review is outlined. We go on to present the results of the systematic literature review for global mindset and cultural intelligence before discussing the findings, implications, and limitations of our study critically.

Theoretical background

The relevance of cross-cultural competencies for distinct management purposes

In the management field, there is largely consensus that individuals working abroad or interacting within culturally diverse environments have to possess cross-cultural competencies in order to succeed in their tasks and deliver on their goals (e.g. Bücker & Poutsma, 2010a; Johnson et al., 2006). However, the demands for effective coping within the intercultural environment can vary significantly depending on specific job-related challenges an individual faces. Operating within an intercultural context does not only increase cultural complexity for individuals; it can also be associated with ambiguous environmental contexts that increase strategic complexity for individuals (cf. Levy et al., 2007).

The research stream on cultural complexity emerged in the context of the rise in cultural diversity in organizations that has accompanied globalization. It argues that individuals and organizations must abandon a purely ethnocentric mindset in which domestic values and culture take precedence over the culture of other countries, and move toward a global mindset characterized by openness and an understanding of other cultures. This research stream has been inspired by the landmark typology that Perlmutter introduced in 1969 when he differentiated between ethnocentric, polycentric, and geocentric mindsets held by managers in multinational companies.

Cultural complexity is most relevant for individuals who occupy positions at lower management levels, as their main purpose is to perform specific tasks in operative management within a particular country. An example could be an expatriate sent abroad to fill an operative role because the requisite technical or managerial knowledge is not available in the destination country (cf. Edström & Galbraith, 1977). His or her main mission will likely be to complete a specific

operational task (e.g. establishing a development program for young talents in a newly built subsidiary). Whereas cultural complexity in this job is rather high (cooperating with several specialist departments in order to obtain the necessary information for implementing the development program), strategic complexity is rather low, as all strategic decisions on the cornerstones of the program will already have been taken at headquarters).

In contrast, we argue that expatriates and international managers who have to execute control and coordination tasks abroad (e.g. Harzing, 2001) will face not only high cultural complexity during their assignment, but also increased strategic complexity. Whereas the cultural research stream is based on an increasing degree of cultural diversity, the strategic perspective is based on the increase in environmental and strategic complexity that is accompanying globalization. The rise in the number of different stakeholders in international business is one example for increasing strategic complexity. In addition, the relationships and networks between these stakeholders are becoming ever more complex and this is leading to increased strategic uncertainty for all players in the field (Buckley & Casson, 2001). This research stream is grounded on the framework by Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989, p. 64) that outlines the transnational solution as a new management mentality, which 'recognize[s] that environmental demands and opportunities vary widely from country to country ... [and] that different parts of the company possess different capabilities'. Therefore, in order to successfully deal with this increased strategic complexity, managers must possess a cognitive structure that allows them to distinguish between and integrate across this environmental complexity (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002).

International posts entailing a high degree of strategic complexity can be found in strategic management. This is concerned with the competition-related, long-term securing of the future and success of the relevant company (Rüegg-Stürm, 2003). Practical examples could be chief negotiators in takeover negotiations or international managers involved in strategic decision-making in the headquarters or a host subsidiary.

Other than the job role or management level of a manager, the internationalization strategy of a company has a determining influence on the cultural and strategic complexities a manager faces. Based on the typology of international companies by Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989), Harzing (2000) distinguished three types of multinational companies in her empirical analysis: global companies operate in industries with relatively stable and homogeneous consumer needs enabling companies to realize economies of scale (high degree of integration). Multidomestic companies, in contrast, need to be responsive to local circumstances implying relative independence of subsidiaries from headquarters. Transnational companies simultaneously strive for global efficiency and local responsiveness. In transnational companies, the image of an interdependent network characterizes the relationship between subsidiaries and headquarters best.

Subject to the degree of integration and local responsiveness of the international company of a manager, different levels of cultural and strategic complexities evolve. Due to low global integration, managers operating in multidomestic companies do not have to consider as much strategic complexity in their decision-making as managers in transnational or global companies with high global integration. In contrast, managers in global companies do not face as much cultural complexity as managers in multidomestic companies in which practices and products need to be adapted to local circumstances. Therefore, the degree of global integration and local responsiveness of a company affects the extent of cultural and strategic complexities a manager faces.

Therefore, we argue that in an international work context, individuals face increased cultural and strategic challenges. Whether strategic or cultural challenges dominate depends on the internationalization strategy of the company and the management level of the individual. Building on these insights, we assume that internationally operating individuals require differing cross-cultural competencies in order to succeed – depending on their specific tasks and management level. Therefore, we need to identify the different dimensions of cross-cultural competencies in order to reveal differences between the two cross-cultural competencies: global mindset and cultural intelligence. On this basis, we will be able to draw conclusions concerning which cross-cultural competency fits which purpose.

Dimensions of cross-cultural competencies within the field of international business

Many scholars and practitioners consider cross-cultural competencies to be a key predictor of success in international business and intercultural interactions (e.g. Johnson et al., 2006). However, cross-cultural competency is an umbrella term enclosing a variety of different models and conceptualizations (Leung, Ang, & Tan, 2014). As there is a plurality of different concepts available which overlap to a substantial degree (Bücker & Poutsma, 2010a), a need to differentiate between specific competencies and demarcate their scope of application for cross-cultural (business) situations characterized by particular contexts and conditions exists. In order to do so, we need to arrive at a deeper understanding of what cross-cultural competencies are and what components they consist of.

There is wide consensus among researchers that cross-cultural competencies can be defined as the capacity to function effectively in another culture (e.g. Gertsen, 1990; Johnson et al., 2006). Gertsen (1990) was one of the first to analyze the underlying dimensions of cross-cultural competencies in the field of international business. Within his framework, he identified three different dimensions: an affective dimension (personality traits and culture attitudes), a cognitive dimension (how individuals acquire and categorize cultural knowledge), and a communicative, behavioral dimension. Plenty of the subsequent definitions and

conceptualizations of the term cross-cultural competency (such as Bird, Stevens, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 2010; Johnson et al., 2006) drew on these findings when presenting their own frameworks. Johnson et al. (2006), for instance, have outlined that cross-cultural competency consists of the three dimensions: personal attributes (such as values, beliefs, and personality traits), personal skills (including abilities), and cultural knowledge (comprising culture-general as well as culture-specific knowledge). Bird et al. (2010) have referred to knowledge, traits, attitudes, and skills as components of cross-cultural competencies.

All of the approaches outlined above share some commonalities: they refer to cross-cultural competencies as a combination of *personal attributes* (e.g. personality traits, values, etc.) and *cognitive knowledge and skills* (such as cognitive abilities and cultural knowledge). Bückner and Poutsma (2010a) follow Gertsen's (1990) conceptualization and stress the importance of a behavioral component (that we label as *resources for adapting behavior*). Having a repertoire of appropriate behaviors in cross-cultural interactions is critical, as it is conceivable that, for instance, individuals could have the relevant cognitive knowledge and skills and personal attributes to function effectively within another culture, yet fail to translate those skills and attributes into effective behavior within the new culture. Renkl, Mandl, and Gruber (1996) referred to this phenomenon (knowledge that cannot be transferred into practical contexts) as inert knowledge. In this case, successful interaction would be strongly impeded. Functioning effectively within another culture, it can safely be assumed, always also involves behavioral aspects.

A further dimension of whether people function effectively in cross-cultural situations is what is often termed cross-cultural motivation. It is defined as motivation pertaining to cross-cultural contexts (e.g. Chen, Kirkman, Kim, Farh, & Tangirala, 2010). Newer conceptualizations of cross-cultural competencies also refer to this motivational component as part of their constructs (e.g. Earley and Ang (2003) for cultural intelligence and Story and Barbutto (2011) for global mindset). This *motivational dimension* refers to the mental capacity to direct and sustain energy on a particular cross-cultural task or situation (Ang et al., 2007). Scholars argue that in order to function effectively within a new cultural environment, individuals need a basic motivation or willingness to interact in cross-cultural situations (cf. Earley & Ang, 2003). Individuals who have the relevant cultural knowledge and personal characteristics (such as openness to experience) but are not motivated to use these personal and cognitive resources in intercultural situations will not have the capacity to function effectively in new cultural contexts. Therefore, we contend that motivation constitutes a further dimension of cross-cultural competencies.

Accordingly, in the following, we will refer to four dimensions of cross-cultural competencies: *personal attributes*, *cognitive knowledge and skills*, *resources for adapting behavior*, and *motivation*.

Method

Research design

The present study employed a descriptive, quantitative form of systematically reviewing research. Systematic literature reviews serve to produce a scientific summary of all available evidence on a specific topic and are needed to guide future research (Pettigrew & Roberts, 2006). According to the current state of the literature on global mindset, considerable uncertainty about the definition and conceptualization of a global mindset still exists (cf. Osland et al., 2012) and the main differences between cultural intelligence and global mindset have not yet been clearly elaborated (Earley et al., 2007). Therefore, we consider that a systematic literature review represents the best possible approach to provide a basis for answering our research questions and steering future research endeavors on issues related to the cross-cultural competencies: global mindset and cultural intelligence.

As the literature on what constitutes a cross-cultural competency is very advanced (cf. Johnson et al., 2006), we deemed a deductive approach to data analysis suitable and decided to use the four dimensions of cross-cultural competencies we extracted from the literature as a conceptual framework for analyzing the definitions we identified in the literature.

Data collection

The systematic review strategy employed in this paper began with a systematic search in the electronic databases EBSCO Business Source Complete and PsycINFO. The decision to use these databases is anchored in the observation that the constructs of global mindset and cultural intelligence are mainly discussed in management and psychology literature (e.g. Bückner & Poutsma, 2010a). Therefore, we considered those databases as the most suitable in order to accomplish the goal of this paper. Our search terms were 'global mindset' and 'cultural intelligence'.

In order to gain a comprehensive picture of all definitions and conceptualizations of a global mindset and cultural intelligence, we decided not to restrict the data collection to a specific period. Therefore, the oldest study included in this systematic literature review stems from the year 1992, whereas the most recent relevant study was published in 2015. In order to answer our research questions, we decided on the following inclusion criteria for this review:

- (1) The source needed to include a definition and/or conceptualization of the term in question.
- (2) The definition and/or conceptualization of the term needed to be unique in the sense that it was not simply copied from a prior published source.

This second inclusion criterion ensured that studies that had simply applied the definition and/or conceptualization of a specific publication for their own (empirical) research are excluded from the review. The underlying reason for this relates to our research question. It is not the aim of this study to identify which definition has been applied most often in the scientific literature, but to investigate what the differences between existing definitions and conceptualizations are and how this can guide further research.

We decided not to restrict our search to peer-reviewed scholarly journal articles only, as often done in structured literature reviews with a view to improving results by excluding sources that do not meet specific quality requirements (Pettigrew & Roberts, 2006). As we found that much of the literature on global mindset and cultural intelligence stems from published books, we decided to omit this inclusion criterion in favor of providing a full review covering all definitions and conceptualizations.

The literature review process for the search term ‘global mindset’ proceeded as follows. Our initial search identified 697 articles in the target databases. After reviewing their titles and abstracts, we omitted those studies that did not directly refer to global mindset as a construct in their study. In a second step, we screened the remaining 262 studies for their eligibility with regard to the inclusion criteria outlined above via in-citation search (cf. Pettigrew & Roberts, 2006); within the identified, relevant studies, four additional resources meeting all inclusion criteria were identified. Our systematic literature review of the definition and conceptualization of a global mindset uncovered 25 unique definitions of a global mindset.

For the term ‘cultural intelligence’, we used an identical search and screening process. As an initial search output, we identified 4741 articles in the target databases. After reviewing their titles and abstracts, we omitted those studies that did not directly refer to cultural intelligence as a construct in their study. In a second step, we screened the remaining 2365 studies for their eligibility according to the inclusion criteria outlined above via in-citation search (cf. Pettigrew & Roberts, 2006); within the identified, relevant studies, we discovered two additional resources meeting all inclusion criteria. As the outcome of the search and screening process, we identified seven unique definitions of cultural intelligence that were included in the systematic literature review.

Data extraction and analysis

We screened each article with the goal of extracting information relevant to our questions on the components of and differences between a global mindset and cultural intelligence. Specific data extracted from the articles included the author(s), title of the article, journal, nature of the report (i.e. empirical, non-empirical, and/or review), research method (i.e. qualitative, quantitative, and/or mixed method), and – most importantly – the unique definition and/or conceptualization of global mindset or cultural intelligence addressed in the article. We coded the

latter according to the four dimensions of cross-cultural competencies, which we deduced theoretically from the literature: *personal attributes*, *cognitive knowledge and skills*, *motivation*, and *resources for adapting behavior*. We entered the coded data into an Excel spreadsheet. This facilitated the subsequent analysis of the identified definitions with regard to the outlined research questions.

We also checked whether we needed to add any categories inductively in order to record elements of the identified definitions not covered by our deductive dimensions. However, when reanalyzing the data, we concluded that the four dimensions listed above describe the structure of the identified definitions very well and no additional dimension needed to be added. Due to space limitations, we have included only selected data in the analysis reported in this paper.

Results

Results for global mindset

In Table 1, we outline all 25 identified unique definitions and conceptualizations of the term global mindset and allocate these to the four dimensions of cross-cultural competencies outlined above. At the bottom of the table, the number of definitions that include the dimension indicated in the respective column of the table is aggregated. Behind each number, we have outlined the percentage of studies that have referred to the respective dimension.

The results indicate that 56% of the studies associate a global mindset with a *motivational dimension* and only 40% with actual *resources for adapting behavior*. The remaining two dimensions of cross-cultural competencies are included in the identified concepts far more frequently (with 76% for *personal attributes* and 88% for *cognitive knowledge and skills*). Hence, it appears that the motivational as well as the behavioral dimensions are of lesser importance for the cross-cultural competency global mindset than the other two identified dimensions. When referring to *personal attributes*, most studies refer to either openness (e.g. Lovvorn & Chen, 2011) or cosmopolitanism, defined as a state of mind that is characterized by an orientation toward the outside and openness and willingness to learn from alternative systems of meaning held by others (Levy et al., 2007). In the identified definitions of global mindset, the dimension *cognitive knowledge and skills* is defined as understanding different elements within business as part of a global system and being able to integrate them (e.g. ‘the ability to perceive situations as highly differentiated and to integrate these differentiated constructs’, (Osland et al., 2012, p. 227)).

The second part of our results refers to the overriding research principles of a global mindset. These perspectives are superordinate to the four identified dimensions of cross-cultural competencies and identify the broader point of view that researchers take when looking at constructs. Levy et al. (2007) argue that global mindset has been conceptualized either as a single-perspective (either strategic or cultural) or as a multi-perspective construct (strategic and cultural) in different

Table 1. Systematization of existing definitions and conceptualizations of global mindset.

	Personal attribute	Cognitive knowledge and skills	Motivation	Resources for adapting behavior
Rhinesmith (1992, 1995): A global mindset is a way of being rather than a set of skills. It is an orientation of the world that allows one to see certain things that others do not. A global mindset means the ability to scan the world from a broad perspective , always looking for unexpected trends and opportunities that may constitute a threat or an opportunity to achieve personal, professional or organizational objectives	×	×	×	
Srinivas (1995): A global mindset is a way of approaching the world, a tendency to scan the world from a broad perspective. Globally-thinking persons tend to be open to themselves and others by rethinking boundaries and changing their behavior	×	×		×
Kefauas and Weatherly (2000): Operationally, global mindset is the capacity to appreciate beliefs, values, behaviors, and business practices of individuals and organizations from a variety of regions and cultures	×			
Pucik and Saba (1998): A set of attitudes that values information sharing, knowledge, and experience across national, functional, and business boundaries and balancing competing country, business, and functional priorities that emerge in the globalization process	×	×		
Paul (2000): Companies with a global mindset should possess the two following capabilities: 1. The capability to enter any market in the world it chooses to compete in. The key issues is that the company constantly looks for market opportunities worldwide, processes information on a global basis and constitutes a constant threat to competitors even in countries/markets where it has not yet entered. 2. The capability to take advantage of its worldwide resources in any competitive situation it finds itself in, regardless of where that might be		×	×	×
Gupta and Govindarajan (2002): Building on the language of differentiation and integration, we define global mindset as a High D-High I mindset in the context of different cultures and markets. More concretely, we would define a global mindset as one that combines an openness to and awareness of diversity across cultures and markets with a propensity and ability to synthesize across this diversity	×	×		
Begley and Boyd (2003): We define a global mind-set as the ability to develop and interpret criteria for business performance that are not dependent on the assumptions of a single context and to implement those criteria appropriately in different contexts. [corporate global mindset]		×		×
Maznevski and Lane (2003): The ability to develop and interpret criteria for personal and business performance that are independent from the assumptions of a single country, culture, or context; and to implement those criteria appropriately in different countries, cultures, and contexts. [individual global mindset]		×		×
Arora et al. (2004): A person with global mindset may be defined as one who can analyzes concepts in a broad global array and one who has the flexibility to adapt to local environment and be sensitive to context		×		×

(Continued)

Table 1. (Continued)

	Personal attribute	Cognitive knowledge and skills	Motivation	Resources for adapting behavior
Nummela, Saarenketo, and Puumalainen (2004): A global mindset is said to describe a manager's openness to and awareness of cultural diversity and the ability to handle it	x			
den Dekker, Jansen, and Vinkenburg (2005): At the individual level global mindset refers to the predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable way to (aspects of) globalization processes. In concurrence with the functions of attitudes, the function of a global mindset is to structure and simplify social reality and to guide behavior	x	x		x
Beechler and Javidan (2007): Global Mindset is the stock of (1) knowledge, (2) cognitive, and (3) psychological attributes that enable a global leader to influence individuals, groups, and organizations (inside and outside the boundaries of the global organization) representing diverse cultural/political/institutional systems to contribute toward the achievement of the global organization's goals. The critical components of global mindset are intellectual capital, psychological capital, and social capital		x	x	
Clapp-Smith, Luthans, and Avolio (2007): The cognitive ability that helps individuals figure out how to best understand and influence individuals, groups, and organizations from diverse social/cultural systems. The core constructs that inform this influence process are cognitive complexity, cultural intelligence, and positive psychological capital	x	x	x	
Levy et al. (2013): We define global mindset as a highly complex individual level cognitive structure characterized by an openness to and articulation of multiple cultural and strategic realities on both, global and local levels, and the cognitive ability to mediate and integrate across this multiplicity	x	x		
Bowen and Inkpen (2009): A global mindset is defined by three important individual characteristics, labeled capitals: intellectual (global business savvy, cosmopolitan outlook, and cognitive complexity), social (intercultural empathy, interpersonal impact, and diplomacy), and psychological (passion for diversity, quest for adventure, and self-assurance). These characteristics enable three essential global leadership behaviors relative to decision-making and action: perceiving, analyzing, and decoding the global operating environment; identifying effective managerial action in the global operating environment; and displaying the behavioral flexibility and discipline to act appropriately	x	x	x	x
Ananthram, Pearson, and Chatterjee (2010)/Ananthram and Nankervis (2014): Global mind-set is defined as the ability and willingness of managers to think, act, and transcend boundaries of goals, values and competencies on a global scale		x	x	x
Cohen (2014): Global Mindset is the ability to influence individuals, groups, organizations, and systems that have different intellectual, social, and psychological knowledge or intelligence from your own. It is now: think and act both globally and locally at the same time. This means not only recognize when it is beneficial to create a consistent global standard, but also deepen the understanding of local and cultural differences, crossing cultures and changing contexts.	x	x	x	x

Javidan, Hough, and Boulough (2010): Global mindset is an umbrella concept that contains intellectual, psychological, and social dimensions. It is the capacity of a person involved in international business to influence individuals, groups, organizations, and systems	×	×	×	×
Thomas (2013): Global mindset is an individual level cognitive structure characterized by cosmopolitanism and cognitive complexity . This involves (a) an openness to and awareness of multiple spheres of meaning and action, (b) complex representation and articulation of cultural and strategic dynamics, and (c) mediation and integration of ideals and actions oriented to both the global and local	×	×	×	×
Javidan and Teagarden (2011): Global mindset is the stock of (1) knowledge, (2) cognitive , and (3) psychological attributes that enable the global leader to influence individuals, groups and organizations (inside and outside the boundaries of the global organization) representing diverse cultural, political, and institutional systems to contribute toward the achievement of the global organization's goals	×	×	×	×
Loworn and Chen (2014): Global Mindset as a combination of awareness and openness to the diversity of cultures and markets with an inclination and capability to integrate across the diversity . A global mindset is an ever developing and evolving process built upon cognitive feedback mechanisms	×	×	×	×
Story and Barbutto (2013)/Story et al. (2014): The combination of having high scores on cultural intelligence (cognitive, motivational, and metacognitive cultural intelligence) and global business orientation represents global mindset in our proposed framework. Thus, a global mindset is that of individuals who have a global business orientation and are adaptable to the local environment and culture	×	×	×	×
Mendenhall et al. (2012): Global Mindset measures the degree to which one is interested in and seeks to actively learn about other cultures and the people that live in them . It provides the basis upon which one can interact more effectively with people from other cultures	×	×	×	×
Osland et al. (2012): Global mindset is a cognitive structure composed of two constructs, cosmopolitanism (an enthusiastic appreciation of other cultures) and cognitive complexity (the ability to perceive situations as highly differentiated and to integrate these differentiated constructs)	×	×	×	×
Javidan and Bowen (2013): Global Mindset is an individual's capability to influence others unlike themselves. It consists of Global Intellectual Capital (Global Business Savvy, Cognitive Complexity, Cosmopolitan Outlook), Global Psychological Capital (Passion for Diversity, Quest for Adventure, Self-Assurance), and Global Social Capital (Intercultural Empathy, Interpersonal Impact, Diplomacy)	×	×	×	×
Number of definitions per indicated dimension	19 (76%)	22 (88%)	14 (56%)	10 (40%)

Note:

■ = Global mindset defined as a strategic construct.

■ = Global mindset defined as a cultural construct.

■ = Global mindset defined as an integrative construct.

studies. In an integrative perspective, Levy et al. (2007, p. 344) define global mindset ‘as a highly complex individual level cognitive structure characterized by an openness to and articulation of multiple cultural and strategic realities on both global and local levels, and the cognitive ability to mediate and integrate across this multiplicity’.

In Table 1, we have indicated which of the identified studies classify a global mindset as cultural or strategic or from an integrative perspective (cultural and strategic), following the systematization developed by Levy et al. (2007) in their systematic literature review. Nine studies (36%) have discussed global mindset from a mainly strategic perspective, whereas six (24%) have acknowledged the construct as mainly cultural. The remaining 10 studies (40%) address the construct using an integrative perspective. As we can also see from Table 1, the percentage of definitions referring to an integrative perspective has significantly increased since Levy et al. (2007) postulated that global mindset is a construct integrating cultural and strategic realities.

In the third part of our results, we look at the level analysis is applied at. While many authors consider global mindset to be an individual-level construct (e.g. Mendenhall, Stevens, Bird, Oddou, & Osland, 2012; Story & Barbuto, 2011), two studies refer to the concept of an organizational global mindset (e.g. Begley & Boyd, 2003; Paul, 2000). The definition of organizational global mindset given by Begley and Boyd (2003) is highly congruent with the definition of individual global mindset by Maznevski and Lane (2003). This suggests that Begley and Boyd (2003) are starting from the premise that an organizational global mindset is the sum of the individual global mindsets in an organization. The definition by Paul (2000) challenges this argument by decoupling the organizational global mindset from the individual employees and transferring it to the truly organizational level. Paul (2000) assumes that an organizational global mindset is a function of the interaction of all individual global mindsets in the company and the structural characteristics of the organization (e.g. systems of global knowledge sharing, etc.) and therefore goes beyond the simple assumption that an organizational mindset is the sum of the individual global mindsets in an organization.

Based on these results, we define global mindset as follows:

A global mindset is defined as the capacity to function effectively within environments that are characterized by high cultural and business complexity. In order to function effectively within cross-cultural environments that are also characterized by high strategic business complexity, it is vital to possess – in addition to cognitive and motivational prerequisites – a specific attribute (mindset) characterized particularly by openness and cosmopolitanism.

Results for cultural intelligence

In Table 2, an overview of the seven identified definitions and conceptualizations of cultural intelligence is given. The illustration is structured in the same way as the results for global mindset presented in Table 1.

Table 2. Systematization of existing definitions and conceptualizations of cultural intelligence.

	Personal attribute	Cognitive knowledge and skills	Motivation	Resources for adapting behavior
Earley (2002)/Earley and Ang (2003): Cultural intelligence is a person's capability to adapt effectively to new cultural environments. It comprises a metacognitive , cognitive , motivational , and a behavioral dimension		×	×	×
Thomas and Inkson (2003): Cultural intelligence involves understanding the fundamentals of intercultural interaction, developing a mindful approach to intercultural interactions, and finally building adaptive skills and a repertoire of behavior so that one is effective in different intercultural situations. It comprises knowledge , mindfulness , behavior and skills		×	×	×
Earley and Mosakowski (2004): Cultural intelligence is a seemingly natural ability to interpret someone's unfamiliar and ambiguous gestures in just the way that person's compatriots would. The three components of cultural intelligence are: the cognitive , the physical , the emotional/motivational		×	×	×
Earley, Ang, and Tan (2006): Cultural intelligence is a person's capability for successful adaptation to new cultural settings that is for unfamiliar settings attributable to cultural contexts. Elements of cultural intelligence are cultural strategic thinking , motivation , and behavior		×	×	×
Thomas (2006): Cultural intelligence is the ability to interact effectively with people who are culturally different. Constituent elements of CQ are knowledge , mindfulness , and behavior		×		
Thomas et al. (2008)/Thomas et al. (2015): Cultural intelligence is a system of interacting knowledge and skills, linked by cultural metacognition , that allows people to adapt to, select and shape the cultural aspects of their environment. Domains of cultural intelligence are cultural knowledge , skills , and metacognition		×		
Moon (2010): Organizational CQ (cultural capability), defined as an organization's capacity to reconfigure its capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings. It consists of processes capabilities , positions capabilities , and paths capabilities		×		×
Number of definitions per indicated dimension	0 (0%)	7 (100%)	4 (57%)	6 (86%)

Notes:
■ = Cultural intelligence defined as a strategic construct.
■ = Cultural intelligence defined as a cultural construct.
■ = Cultural intelligence defined as an integrative construct.

The most striking result for cultural intelligence is that none of the seven definitions identified the dimension *personal attributes* within the construct. Thomas and Inkson (2003) as well as Thomas (2006) have, admittedly, integrated a construct they term mindfulness into their frameworks of cultural intelligence. However, even though there is some debate within the literature on whether mindfulness is a personality trait or a cognitive ability (e.g. Anicha, Ode, Moeller, & Robinson, 2012; Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000), Sternberg (2000) adduces good reasons for why mindfulness is more a cognitive ability than a personality trait. Mindfulness is not an easy concept to define, but can be best understood as the process of drawing novel distinctions. This makes us more aware of the context and perspective of our actions than when we rely upon distinctions and categories drawn in the past (Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000). Weick and Sutcliffe (2001, p. 32) define mindfulness as ‘a rich awareness of discriminatory detail’, as being simultaneously aware of the context and not losing sight of the ‘big picture’. Hence, mindfulness resembles the dimension of metacognitive cultural intelligence addressed by Earley and Ang (2003).

Furthermore, only four out of the seven studies refer to the motivational component within the construct, whereas all studies identify a cognitive dimension. Six studies also identified resources for adapting behavior as a component of cultural intelligence, indicating that the cognitive and behavioral dimensions of cross-cultural competencies are of central importance for cultural intelligence.

Interestingly, the research on cultural intelligence mainly has its origins in two streams of research that emerged separately (Earley & Ang, 2003; Thomas & Inkson, 2003). Even though both conceptualizations made little reference to each other, both identified cognitive and behavioral dimensions as key components of cultural intelligence.

In terms of the level analysis is applied at, six out of the seven definitions and conceptualizations consider cultural intelligence as an individual construct. Only Moon (2010) has transferred the construct to the organizational level.

Based on these insights, we define cultural intelligence as follows:

Cultural intelligence is defined as the capacity to function effectively within environments that are characterized by high cultural complexity. In order to function effectively within cross-cultural environments, in particular, certain cognitive, motivational, and behavioral characteristics are necessary.

Discussion

Bücker and Poutsma (2010b, p. 264) define global management competencies, including cultural intelligence and global mindset, as ‘the ability to monitor, integrate and direct the knowledge, skills, and motivations, together forming behavioral repertoires, which are the building blocks of our behavior in an environment of business and cultural complexity’. When Earley and colleagues (2007) compared the two concepts of cultural intelligence and global mindset, they found that

cultural intelligence goes beyond global mindset's attention to drafting policies tailored to a cultural setting by also focusing on the behavioral ability to interact interpersonally. This indicates that a behavioral component is lacking in the global mindset construct. This is borne out by our systematic literature review: only 40% of the definitions are indicative of a behavioral component of the global mindset construct, whereas 86% of the conceptualizations of cultural intelligence integrate a behavioral perspective.

For cultural intelligence, only 57 % of the identified definitions include a motivational component. This opens up room for discussion on whether motivation should be included in the cultural intelligence construct or not. Thomas et al. (2015), for instance, consider cultural intelligence to be a purely cognitive construct and argue, therefore, that motivation is external to cultural intelligence since motivation is concerned with the willingness – rather than the ability – to behave in a particular way. However, we decided to include the motivational component in our definition of cultural intelligence as we follow the argumentation of Earley and Ang (2003). Researchers claiming that motivation is a component of intelligence argue that cognition will not be activated if there is no willingness to engage in situations requiring intelligent behavior (e.g. Ackerman, 1996; Ceci, 1996).

Regarding the overriding principles of cultural and strategic complexities, we argue that cultural intelligence does not properly constitute a global management competency in the sense outlined above as it does not take the environment of strategic and business complexities that Bücker and Poutsma (2010b) identified as a characteristic for global management competencies into account. Cultural intelligence with its cognitive, metacognitive, motivational, and behavioral components (Earley & Ang, 2003) does not relate to the business context and its complexity but rather stays at a purely cross-cultural level. Therefore, we argue that cultural intelligence is a useful general framework of cross-cultural competency for intercultural settings, while the global mindset construct provides a cross-cultural framing which is particularly tailored to the complex context of international business. This indicates that cultural intelligence is a useful construct when investigating intercultural interactions that may be marked by high cultural complexity, but that the concept does not incorporate business complexity to a significant degree. In contrast, global mindset seems to be the relevant cross-cultural competency for individuals facing high levels of both cultural and strategic business complexities (e.g. Levy et al., 2007).

Rhinesmith (1992, p. 63) describes a mindset as 'a predisposition to see the world in a particular way that sets boundaries and provides explanations for why things are the way they are, while establishing guidance for ways in which we should behave'. Following this argument, a mindset is like a pair of glasses filtering an individual's worldview and consequently exerting influence on that individual's subsequent behavior. In summary, it can be concluded that a mindset is a mental template that individuals impose on an information environment to give it form and meaning. Such a predisposition or mental template constitutes a personal

attribute according to our definition at the beginning of this paper. The findings of our literature review support this notion, as 76% of the studies about global mindset refer to the dimension of personal attributes, whereas none of the studies on cultural intelligence include personal attributes as a component. Therefore, the cultural intelligence construct does not include a specific view of the world, but focuses rather on cognitive, motivational, and behavioral elements.

Accordingly, global mindset is a competency that is relevant within environments of high cultural and strategic complexities. In order to make well-founded decisions within such environments, a specific personal worldview or attribute is needed in order to guide the decision process. To cite an example of a stream of research that has investigated the importance of personal attributes, we refer to studies examining the influence of a global mindset on the decision to internationalize. Kyvik, Saris, Bonet, and Felício (2013), for instance, found that there is a strong causal relationship between the global mindset of CEOs and their firms' internationalization behavior. An explanation for this is that a higher openness toward engaging in building cross-border relationships will be reflected positively in the way CEOs perceive and explore international business opportunities (Kyvik et al., 2013). This example shows that personal attributes are a critical dimension of a global mindset.

From the discussion above, we conclude that whereas cultural intelligence is a sufficient cross-cultural competency in solely culturally complex environments, a global mindset is necessary when it comes to situations characterized by high cultural and strategic complexities. In order to structure these findings within a theoretical framework, we refer to the St. Gallen Management Model that subdivides business management into three levels. The model offers a reference framework for considering, diagnosing, and solving management problems (Bleicher, 2011). We will apply its three-level management concept to the findings of our systematic literature review on global mindset and cultural intelligence (cf. Figure 1).

The model differentiates between the three levels operative, strategic, and normative management. The level of normative management addresses the general goal of a company, including principles and norms. Decisions made at the normative level usually have effects on the viability of a company. Strategic management, in contrast, is concerned with the development and exploitation of success potentials in line with the policy decisions specified by normative management. Therefore, determining management programs, structures, and systems is the central activity of strategic management. Operative management is concerned with implementing the standards and specifications outlined by normative and strategic management, for instance, by applying and monitoring processes, which directly relate to performance (Bleicher, 2011).

Based on the analysis and discussion above, we contend that cultural intelligence is a sufficient cross-cultural competency for employees within the operative management who mainly apply predetermined processes and do not have to consider business complexities in order to make normative or strategic decisions.

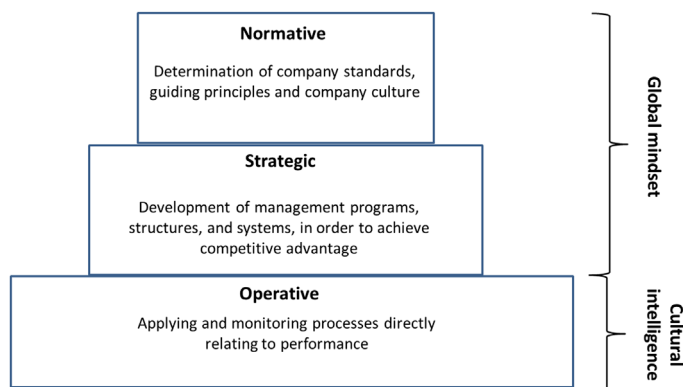


Figure 1. St. Gallen Management Model (Bleicher, 2011) and associated cross-cultural competencies.

Learning-driven international assignments designed for employees who do not (yet) operate within strategic management, for instance, are typically sited within operative management. In addition, many demand-driven international assignments, which include communication, knowledge transfer, and problem-solving abroad (cf. Stahl, Chua, Caligiuri, Cerdin, & Taniguchi, 2009), are primarily operative in nature.

In contrast, when referring to strategic or normative decision-making, we hold the opinion that a global mindset is necessary since it puts less emphasis on actual behavior and more on personal attributes as guiding principles for decision-making. The number of employees involved in strategic or normative international decision-making is naturally relatively small with only top management members, business unit managers, and heads of departments being concerned. According to Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989), a global mindset is particularly necessary for strategic decisions in transnational companies, where such international positions can be found as global integration and local responsiveness are both high (cf. theoretical background of this paper). Possessing a global mindset enables individuals to recognize cross-border best practices and assess their potential for application in diverse cultural and institutional contexts. Therefore, individuals with a global mindset do not see business practices as isolated elements in a specific context but rather as an integrated part of a business system.

Cultural intelligence, in contrast, means that one can assess whether a specific practice or behavior will ‘work’ against the backdrop of the specific cultural and institutional conditions that can be found in a particular country, and whether the practice needs adaption to the country-specific context. Hence, cultural intelligence can be limited to specific cultural contexts (in the extreme case even only to one specific country). A global mindset goes beyond this and allows people to identify promising practices at transnational level and evaluate whether adopting these practices company-wide is advisable in light of the main global contextual influencing factors.

Following from the discussion above, a certain degree of cultural intelligence is not a sufficient but a necessary precondition for acquiring a global mindset as it will be impossible to assess practices on a global basis without knowledge about different cultural contexts.

Implications

From the findings and discussion in this paper, we can draw significant implications for research and practice. Scholars can use the findings of this paper as a basis for decision-making concerning the application of cultural intelligence or global mindset as the pertinent cross-cultural competency for their specific research question and samples. Having a highly developed global mindset is of no significant advantage for operative managers or students according to our framework. Rather, cultural intelligence is a sufficient predictor of success for international assignments and international business travel at the operative level. Therefore, researchers need to carefully consider the sample and research question of their studies before deciding which cross-cultural competency to examine.

When selecting employees that are internationally mobile or face high levels of cultural diversity in their work environment, international human resource managers should test for cognitive, motivational, and behavioral capacities related to cultural intelligence, rather than assessing personal attributes such as cosmopolitanism and inherent values which appear to be of less relevance in the operative management context. Cross-cultural training (e.g. Ramsey & Lorenz, 2016) and international experience (e.g. Engle & Crowne, 2014; Wood & St. Peters, 2014) can be used to foster cognitive components such as cross-cultural knowledge as well as motivational and behavioral aspects of cultural intelligence. For CEOs, heads of business units, or other employees on the strategic or normative management level, greater attention should be directed to the personal attributes of openness and cosmopolitanism as prerequisites for successful functioning and better decision-making in culturally and strategically complex environments.

A further conclusion pointing to the need for additional research is that considerable uncertainty still prevails over the constituents of an *organizational* global mindset or *organizational* cultural intelligence. Studies on these constructs are rare and inconsistent (e.g. Begley & Boyd, 2003; Moon, 2010; Paul, 2000) and it remains unclear how individual cross-cultural competencies relate to the organizational constructs. Our definitions outlined in the results part of this paper comprise both the individual and the organizational perspectives, as we consider both perspectives to be valid levels on which global management competencies can emerge. We would welcome future research conceptualizing cultural intelligence and a global mindset at the organizational level.

In the literature, there is dissent over whether cultural intelligence should be treated as a type of intelligence, mainly focusing on cognitive psychology (e.g. Thomas et al., 2015), or as a cross-cultural competency, comprising cognitive,

motivational, and behavioral components (e.g. Ang et al., 2007). In this paper, we follow Earley and Ang (2002) in advocating that cultural intelligence comprises cognitive, motivational, and behavioral aspects based on the arguments we supply in the discussion. However, it is vital that researchers balance pros and cons regarding which approach to choose for their respective studies. The aims of studies conducted will determine the most suitable approaches.

Additionally, further research could apply our framework to other cross-cultural competencies, such as intercultural sensitivity, that we have not investigated here. In the long run, a typology of different cross-cultural competencies and their respective scope of application could be helpful to guide future research.

Limitations

Our study has limitations which need to be acknowledged. First, as stated in the methods section of our review, the extensive literature on global mindset draws on a wide range of heterogeneous and somewhat contradictory approaches and conceptualizations. The way we selected and categorized the studies to be included could be complemented by other ways of classifying existing body of research, e.g. by excluding studies that are published in non-ranked journals. We believe, however, that the procedure we selected for this systematic review was justified in regard to answering our research questions and that our methods resulted in the identification of a relatively complete set of definitions and conceptualizations. By justifying our process for the systematic literature review and precisely sticking to the criteria outlined above, we reduced the likelihood of excluding any study containing information that would have significantly altered our conclusions.

Second, our analysis regarding the motivational dimension is somewhat biased, as motivation has only recently come to be considered as a relevant component of cross-cultural competencies. This goes a long way toward explaining why the percentages of studies examined that refer to a motivational dimension are not very high for either term (56% for global mindset and 57% for cultural intelligence). More recent conceptualizations of global mindset make significantly more reference to motivational aspects.

Conclusion

This study identifies the dimensions and components of the two cross-cultural competencies global mindset and cultural intelligence. With global mindset having a focus on personal attributes as well as cognitive knowledge and skills and cultural intelligence mainly referring to the behavioral and cognitive dimensions, we conclude that both competencies are of different utility for differing target samples. We contend that global mindset is especially needed for tasks at the normative and strategic levels of business management as outlined in the St. Gallen management

model, whereas cultural intelligence is a sufficient cross-cultural competency for employees working in operative management in a given foreign country.

Cultural intelligence, therefore, is an enabler for effective coping within a specific cultural context, whereas a global mindset provides the necessary capabilities to effectively assess business practices concerning their cross-border applicability and utility for a company internationally. While a global mindset requires a transnational or cross-border appreciation of relevant influencing factors, cultural intelligence can – in the most extreme case – consist of capabilities which are deployed in only a single cultural context.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

References

- Ackerman, P. L. (1996). A theory of adult intellectual development: Process, personality, interests, and knowledge. *Intelligence*, 22, 227–257. doi:10.1016/S0160-2896(96)90016-1
- Ananthram, S., & Nankervis, A. R. (2014). Outcomes and benefits of a managerial global mind-set: An exploratory study with senior executives in North America. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 56, 193–209. doi:10.1002/tie.21611
- Ananthram, S., Pearson, C., & Chatterjee, S. (2010). Do organizational reform measures impact on global mindset intensity of managers? Empirical evidence from Indian and Chinese service industry managers. *Journal of Chinese Economic and Foreign Trade Studies*, 3, 146–168. doi:10.1108/17544401011052285
- Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., & Tay, C. (2007). Cultural intelligence: Its measurement, effects on cultural judgement, decision-making, cultural adaptation, and task performance. *Management and Organization Review*, 3, 335–371. doi:10.1111/j.1740-8784.2007.00082.x
- Anicha, C. L., Ode, S., Moeller, S. K., & Robinson, M. D. (2012). Toward a cognitive view of trait mindfulness: Distinct cognitive skills predict its observing and nonreactivity facets. *Journal of Personality*, 80, 255–285. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6494.2011.00722.x
- Arora, A., Jaju, A., Kefalas, A. G., & Perenich, T. (2004). An exploratory analysis of global managerial mindsets: A case of U.S. textile and apparel industry. *Journal of International Management*, 10, 393–411. doi:10.1016/j.intman.2004.05.001
- Ashkenas, R., Ulrich, D., Jick, J., & Kerr, S. (2002). *The boundaryless organization: Breaking the chains of organizational structure*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bartlett, C. A., & Ghoshal, S. (1989). *Managing across borders: The transnational solution*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Review Press.
- Beechler, S., & Javidan, M. (2007). Leading with a global mindset. In M. Javidan, R. M. Steers, & M. A. Hitt (Eds.), *The global mindset: Advances in international management* (Vol. 19, pp. 131–169). Oxford: Elsevier.
- Begley, T. M., & Boyd, D. P. (2003). The need for a corporate global mind-set. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 44, 25–32.
- Bird, A., Stevens, M., Mendenhall, M. J., & Oddou, G. (2010). Defining the content domain of intercultural competence for global leaders. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25, 810–828. doi:10.1108/02683941011089107

- Bleicher, K. (2011). *Das Konzept integriertes management*. Frankfurt: Campus Verlag.
- Bowen, D. E., & Inkpen, A. C. (2009). Exploring the role of “global mindset” in leading change in international contexts. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 45, 239–260. doi:10.1177/0021886309334149
- Bücker, J., Furrer, O., Poutsma, E., & Buyens, D. (2014). The impact of cultural intelligence on communication effectiveness, job satisfaction and anxiety for Chinese host country managers working for foreign multinationals. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25, 2068–2087. doi:10.1080/09585192.2013.870293
- Bücker, J., & Poutsma, E. (2010a). Global management competencies: A theoretical foundation. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25, 829–844. doi:10.1108/02683941011089116
- Bücker, J., & Poutsma, E. (2010b). How to assess global management competencies: An investigation of existing instruments. *Management Revue*, 21, 263–291. doi:10.1688/1861-990
- Buckley, P. J., & Casson, M. (2001). Strategic complexity in international business. In A. M. Rugman & T. L. Brewer (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of international business* (pp. 90–124). Oxford: Oxford Press.
- Ceci, S. J. (1996). *On intelligence: A bioecological treatise on intellectual development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Chen, G., Kirkman, B. L., Kim, K., Farh, C. C., & Tangirala, S. (2010). When does cross-cultural motivation enhance expatriate effectiveness? A multilevel investigation of the moderating roles of subsidiary support and cultural distance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53, 1110–1130. doi:10.5465/AMJ.2010.54533217
- Clapp-Smith, R., Luthans, F., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). The role of psychological capital in global mindset development. In M. Javidan, R. M. Steers, & M. A. Hitt (Eds.), *The global mindset: Advances in international management* (Vol. 19, pp. 105–130). Oxford: Elsevier.
- Cohen, S. (2010). Effective global leadership requires a global mindset. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 42, 3–10. doi:10.1108/03090591311327303
- den Dekker, W., Jansen, P. G., & Vinkenburgh, C. J. (2005). *Dimensions of an individual global mindset*. Serie 01 Research Memoranda, 0014. Amsterdam: VU University.
- Earley, P. C. (2002). Redefining interactions across cultures and organizations: Moving forward with cultural intelligence. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 24, 271–299. doi:10.1016/S0191-3085(02)24008-3
- Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Earley, P. C., Ang, S., & Tan, J. S. (2006). *Developing cultural intelligence at work*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Earley, P. C., & Mosakowski, E. (2004). Cultural intelligence. *Harvard Business Review*, 82, 139–146.
- Earley, P., Murnieks, C., & Mosakowski, E. (2007). Cultural intelligence and the global mindset. In M. Javidan, R. M. Steers, & M. A. Hitt (Eds.), *The global mindset: Advances in international management* (Vol. 19, pp. 75–103). Oxford: Elsevier.
- Edström, A. & Galbraith, J. R. (1977). Transfer of managers as a coordination and control strategy in multinational organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22, 248–263.
- Engle, R. L., & Crowne, K. A. (2014). The impact of international experience on cultural intelligence: An application of contact theory in a structured short-term programme. *Human Resource Development International*, 17, 30–46. doi:10.1080/13678868.2013.856206
- Evans, P., Pucik, V., & Barsoux, J.-L. (2002). *The global challenge: Frameworks for human resource management*. Boston, MA: McGraw Hill.

- Fitzsimmons, S. R. (2013). Multicultural employees: A framework for understanding how they contribute to organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 38, 525–549. doi:10.5465/amr.2011.0234
- Gertsen, M. C. (1990). Intercultural competence and expatriates. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1, 341–362. doi:10.1080/09585199000000054
- Gupta, A. K., & Govindarajan, V. (2002). Cultivating a global mindset. *Academy of Management Executive*, 16, 116–126. doi:10.5465/AME.2002.6640211
- Harzing, A. (2000). An empirical analysis and extension of the Bartlett and Ghoshal typology of multinational companies. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 31, 101–120.
- Harzing, A. (2001). Of bears, bumble-bees, and spiders: The role of expatriates in controlling foreign subsidiaries. *Journal of World Business*, 36, 366–379.
- Javidan, M., & Bowen, D. (2013). The 'global mindset' of managers: What it is, why it matters, and how to develop it. *Organizational Dynamics*, 42, 145–155. doi:10.1016/j.orgdyn.2013.03.008
- Javidan, M., Hough, L., & Boullough, A. (2010). *Conceptualizing and measuring global mindset: Development of the global mindset inventory*. Technical Report. Glendale, AZ: Thunderbird Global Mindset Institute.
- Javidan, M., & Teagarden, M. B. (2011). Conceptualizing and measuring global mindset. *Advances in Global Leadership*, 6, 13–39. doi:10.1108/S1535-1203(2011)0000006005
- Johnson, J. P., Lenartowicz, T., & Apud, S. (2006). Cross-cultural competence in international business: Toward a definition and a model. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37, 525–543. doi:10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400205
- Kefalas, A. G., & Weatherly, E. W. (1998). Global Mindsets among college students in the United States and elsewhere: Are we growing a globally-minded workforce? Retrieved from <https://www.yumpu.com/en/document/view/19134779/global-mindsets-among-college-students-in-the-united-states-and->
- Kyvik, O., Saris, W., Bonet, E., & Felício, J. (2013). The internationalization of small firms: The relationship between the global mindset and firms' internationalization behavior. *Journal of International Entrepreneurship*, 11, 172–195. doi:10.1007/s10843-013-0105-1
- Langer, E. J., & Moldoveanu, M. (2000). The construct of mindfulness. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56, 1–9. doi:10.1111/0022-4537.00148
- Leung, K., Ang, S., & Tan, M. L. (2014). Intercultural competence. *The Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 1, 489–519. doi:10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091229
- Levy, O., Beechler, S., Taylor, S., & Boyacigiller, N. A. (2007). What do we talk about when we talk about 'global mindset'? Managerial cognition in multinational corporations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38, 231–258. doi:10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400265
- Lovvorn, A. S., & Chen, J.-S. (2011). Developing a global mindset: The relationship between an international assignment and cultural intelligence. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2, 275–183.
- Maznevski, M., & Lane, H. (2003). Shaping the global mindset: Designing educational experiences for effective global thinking and action. In N. Boyacigiller, R. M. Goodman, & M. Phillips (Eds.), *Crossing cultures – Insights from master teachers* (pp. 171–184). London: Routledge.
- Mendenhall, M., Stevens, M. J., Bird, A., Oddou, G. R., & Osland, J. (2012). *Specification of the content domain of the intercultural effectiveness scale*. Chesterfield: The Kazai Group.
- Moon, T. (2010). Organizational cultural intelligence: Dynamic capability perspective. *Group and Organization Management*, 35, 456–493. doi:10.1177/1059601110378295
- Nummela, N., Saarenketo, S., & Puumalainen, K. (2004). Global mindset – A prerequisite for successful internationalisation? *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 21, 51–64. doi:10.1111/j.1936-4490.2004.tb00322.x

- Osland, J. S., Bird, A., & Mendenhall, M. (2012). Developing global mindset and leadership capabilities. In G. K. Stahl, I. Björkman, & S. Morris (Eds.), *Handbook of research in international human resource management* (2nd ed., pp. 220–252). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Paul, H. (2000). Creating a mindset. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 42, 187–200. doi:[10.1002/1520-6874](https://doi.org/10.1002/1520-6874)
- Perlmutter, H. V. (1969). The tortuous evolution of the multinational corporation. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 4, 9–18.
- Pettigrew, M., & Roberts, H. (2006). *Systematic reviews in the social sciences: A practical guide*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Pucik, V., & Saba, T. (1998). Selecting and developing the global versus the expatriate manager: A review of the state-of-the-art. *Human Resource Planning*, 21, 40–54.
- Ramsey, J. R., & Lorenz, M. P. (2016). Exploring the impact of cross-cultural management education on cultural intelligence, student satisfaction, and commitment. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 15, 79–99. doi:[10.5465/amle.2014.0124](https://doi.org/10.5465/amle.2014.0124)
- Renkl, A., Mandl, H., & Gruber, H. (1996). Inert knowledge: Analyses and remedies. *Educational Psychologist*, 31, 115–121.
- Rhinesmith, S. H. (1992). Global mindsets for global managers. *Training and Development*, 46, 63–68.
- Rhinesmith, S. H. (1995). Open door to a global mindset. *Training and Development*, 49, 35–43.
- Rüegg-Stürm, J. (2003). *Das neue St. Galler management-modell*. Bern: Haupt.
- Smith, D. N. (2012). Facilitating the development of a global mindset through a cultural experience. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 6, 110–115. doi:[10.1002/jls.21243](https://doi.org/10.1002/jls.21243)
- Srinivas, K. M. (1995). Globalization of business and the third world: Challenge of expanding the mindsets. *Journal of Management Development*, 14, 26–49. doi:[10.1108/02621719510078957](https://doi.org/10.1108/02621719510078957)
- Stahl, G. K., Chua, C. H., Caligiuri, P., Cerdin, J., & Taniguchi, M. (2009). Predictors of turnover intentions in learning-driven and demand-driven international assignments: The role of repatriation concerns, satisfaction with company support, and perceived career advancement opportunities. *Human Resource Management*, 48, 89–109. doi:[10.1002/hrm.20268](https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20268)
- Sternberg, R. J. (2000). Images of mindfulness. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56, 11–26. doi:[10.1111/0022-4537.00149](https://doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00149)
- Story, J. S. T., & Barbuto, J. E. (2011). Global mindset: A construct clarification and framework. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 18, 377–384. doi:[10.1177/1548051811404421](https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051811404421)
- Story, J. S. T., Barbuto, J. E., Luthans, F., & Bovaird, J. A. (2014). Meeting the challenges of effective international HRM: Analysis of the antecedents of global mindset. *Human Resource Management*, 53, 131–155. doi:[10.1002/hrm.21568](https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21568)
- Thomas, D. C. (2006). Domain and development of cultural intelligence: The importance of mindfulness. *Group & Organization Management*, 31, 78–99. doi:[10.1177/1059601105275266](https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601105275266)
- Thomas, D. C. (2010). Cultural Intelligence and all that jazz: A cognitive revolution in international management research? In T. Devinney, T. Pedersen, & L. Thanayo (Eds.), *The past, present, and future of international business management. Advances in international management* (pp. 169–187). Bingley: Emerald.
- Thomas, D. C., Elron, E., Stahl, G., Ekelund, B. Z., Ravlin, E. C., Cerdin, J., ... Lazarova, M. B. (2008). Cultural intelligence: Domain and assessment. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 8, 123–143. doi:[10.1177/1470595808091787](https://doi.org/10.1177/1470595808091787)
- Thomas, D. C., & Inkson, K. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: People skills for global business*. San Francisco, CA: Barrett-Kohler.

- Thomas, D. C., Liao, Y., Aycan, Z., Cerdin, J., Pekerti, A. A., Ravlin, E. C., ... van de Vijver, F. (2015). Cultural intelligence: A theory-based, short form measure. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 46, 1099–1118. doi:[10.1057/jibs.2014.67](https://doi.org/10.1057/jibs.2014.67)
- Weick, K. E., & Sutcliffe, K. M. (2001). *Managing the unexpected*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Wood, E. D., & St. Peters, H. Y. (2014). Short-term cross-cultural study tours: impact on cultural intelligence. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25, 558–570. doi:[10.1080/09585192.2013.796315](https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.796315)