

LEADERSHIP IN THE GLOBAL CONTEXT: BIBLIOMETRIC AND THEMATIC PATTERNS OF AN EVOLVING FIELD

Authors: Pooja B. Vijayakumar, Michael J. Morley, Noreen Heraty, Mark E. Mendenhall and Joyce S. Osland

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we systematically review the extant global leadership literature in order to identify important bibliometric and thematic patterns in evidence in this evolving field of scholarship. Conceptualizing the phenomenon to include leaders/managers/supervisors who hold global, expatriate, or international positions, we draw on insights accumulated from a total of 327 published articles in key management and organizational behavior journals listed in Scopus. Our analysis proceeds in two distinct but overlapping phases. Our bibliometric analysis first identifies the most cited articles, most published first authors, countries of first authors, and frequent publishing journals in this field. This illustrates the diversity and innovation that characterizes scholarship in the field. Our thematic content analysis, generated through Nvivo 11, isolates two dominant themes that represent the wellspring for the body of literature namely global leader development and global leader effectiveness. These themes of development and effectiveness are further explicated through some seven core lenses namely cultural, cognitive, political, social/relational, experiential learning, personality and training. These lenses are underpinned by a suite of theoretical perspectives encompassing individual, system and contextual considerations. In combination, these sets of analyses serve to bring systematics to the field and serve as a point of departure for future inquiry.

Keywords: Global leadership, systematic review, bibliometric, qualitative, content analysis cultural, Nvivo 11

Globalization in all its guises has brought with it a significant number of opportunities, along with several challenges, for organizations. One specific on-going challenge in this regard

relates to the development of leadership capabilities required for transnational organizational effectiveness. The World Economic Forum (2013) has recognized global leadership as one of the world's 10 most urgent issues and considered the global leadership vacuum to be one of the biggest challenges today. The global leadership field of study is multifaceted and founded upon a range of contributions from allied research streams of research such as expatriation, intercultural communication, global management and comparative leadership (Osland, 2008). Although some previous studies have equated global leaders with expatriates (e.g., Kohonen, 2005), and many scholars consider expatriation to be a valuable means of developing global leadership competencies (Black, Morrison, & Gregersen, 1999; Jokinen, 2005), they are considered to be distinct from each other. Global leaders are associated with being broad, open, with global state of mind whereas expatriate managers are defined by their location and by the leadership position in the host country (Mendenhall, Reiche, Bird, & Osland, 2012). For the purpose of this paper here, we consider global leaders to include leaders/managers/supervisors holding global or expatriate or international positions.

The practice-led demand for global leaders has been mirrored by a significant upward trend in academic scholarship since the early 1980s. In recent years increased focus has been given to the global leadership domain to provide a better understanding of how the field has evolved, and so prevent conceptual pitfalls and encourage progress of the field (e.g., Bird & Mendenhall, 2016; Mendenhall et al., 2012). Mendenhall, Li, and Osland (2016) called attention to both cultural intelligence and transformational leadership as commonly employed theoretical lenses to explain the relationship between global mindset and/or global leadership competencies, while boundary spanning capability in global team members has been found to be one of the emergent themes in the global leadership domain (Zander, Mockaitis, & Butler, 2012). Commenting on developments in the field to date, Maznevski, Stahl and Mendenhall (2013) argued that research on global leadership has focused significantly on individual

competencies, with perhaps insufficient attention being paid to delimiting the field itself. As a result, they suggest that there is a growing disconnect between global leaders and researchers with respect to a shared understanding of the field. Osland, Bird and Mendenhall (2012) have similarly noted the prominence of content-oriented research in this space and cautioned against the dearth of diverse theories and methodologies in studies focusing on leadership in the global context.

Given the emergence and growth of global leadership in practice and in scientific research over 25 years, a detailed review is now apposite in order to bring systemization to this corpus of work through documenting its evolution and assembling its bricolage. Such a review will serve to landscape the anatomy of the field to-date and chart a course for future research through the identification of a number of significant research opportunities. Of note while reviews of the field have now begun to emerge (e.g., Mendenhall et al., 2018), a large scale systematic review such as the one here has not been attempted. This paper traces the trends in the literature through to 2016 as published in the range of international management and human resource management journals listed by Bird and Mendenhall (2016) (see Table 1).

Recent advances in information technology has made indexing and searching for scholarly work more systematic and replicable and scholars are using bibliometric analyses as an analytic technique to identify trends and clusters in research literatures (e.g., Doh & Lucea, 2013). Bibliometric analyses are different than traditional research reviews wherein software tools help sort research into distinct categories/clusters using information available in the bibliographic records (Schneider, 2006). In addition, bibliometric and text mining analyses are free from subjective biases unlike traditional literature review methods where researchers have the liberty to choose articles at their discretion (Nerur, Rasheed, & Natarajan, 2008; Raghuram, Tuertscher, & Garud, 2010). Therefore, using bibliometric and

text mining analyses we trace the evolution of the global leadership literature. We identified global leadership development and global leadership effectiveness as the two dominant themes in the literature, and a content analyses on these two themes isolated seven distinct lenses that shape the discourse, namely - cultural, cognitive, experiential, relational/social, political, personality trait and training. We further linked these lenses with key corresponding theoretical frameworks.

In the next section, we discuss the steps taken to collect and classify our data.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY- DATA COLLECTION AND CLASSIFICATION

The literature for the analyses was gathered using Scopus, the world's largest abstract and citation database of peer reviewed literature (scientific journals, books, and conference proceedings). The keywords used in Scopus to retrieve the literature were "global leader", "global leadership", "expatriate manager", "international manager", "global manager" and "expatriate supervisor". In Scopus, the singular form of words retrieves singular, plural, and possessive forms of most words. These keywords were carefully chosen based on the multifaced nature of the field, which is comprised of contributions from research streams such as expatriation, intercultural communication, global management and comparative leadership (Osland, 2008).

The keyword search using Scopus resulted in 24,439 articles, 6799 conference papers, 4163 book chapters and 3128 review papers. The next step involved screening only journal articles and review papers related to 'business/management', 'psychology' and 'social science' from the literature. This process resulted in 9738 business/management articles, 7670 social science articles and 837 psychology articles. To preserve the quality of the study, the articles were then retrieved from journals with a distinct focus on the study of management and organizational behavior in international contexts listed by Bird and

Mendenhall (2016) (Table 1). Although this sampling technique provides incomplete representation of the literature on leadership in the global context, we reasoned that this would allow us to consider studies that have had the greatest impact and garnered a great deal of scholarly attention.

It is important to note here that both manual and computer aided methods (through Scopus) were used to sort the papers to ensure the process is reliable and valid. Subsequently through content analysis, the articles were further shortlisted to focus on leadership in the global context. The content analysis procedure involved further verification by a three-member co-author team to select articles that matched the focus of the study. When the content in the abstract was not sufficient to reach a decision, the co-authors then referred to the whole manuscript in order to sort articles. This process resulted in the final list of 327 articles that were considered relevant for the analyses. We then exported title, abstract, keywords, authors, publication year, country of first author, and journal or source title of the finalized articles to an Excel sheet for further bibliometric data analyses.

We utilized the Nvivo pro 11 software to identify key themes or patterns in the literature (using abstract, title and keywords combined). Many researchers have used Nvivo for qualitative data analyses (e.g., Collings, Morley, & Gunnigle, 2008; Leonidou, Katsikeas, & Coudounaris, 2010; Sinkovics & Alfoldi, 2012). In the current study we first explored the literature using queries. More specifically, we used word frequency query to identify recurring themes and concepts in the literature. Second, we used text search query to code the most frequently used themes and concepts creating thematic nodes accordingly. It is important to note here that the thematic nodes were manually cross-checked to remove any duplicate coding and to confirm their accuracy.

LANDSCAPING THE LITERATURE ON GLOBAL LEADERSHIP

In this section, we discuss the pattern of the literature with a focus on the number of articles published per year, number of citations per year, frequency of first author publication, first author country and leadership types. We also identified different patterns in the literature with respect to keywords global leadership or global leader, international manager, expatriate manager and global manager. Figure 1 shows the number of articles published per year. The evolution in the global leadership literature seem uneven when compared to the expatriate research pattern found by (Dabic, González-Loureiro, & Harvey, 2013). In the expatriate literature, the number of articles published increased with time (in years). However, we see the opposite trajectory with respect to the number of global leadership citations when compared to number of publications (see Figure 2). Also, papers published between the years 1998 and 2003 have a higher number of citations when compared to papers published between the years 2003 and 2016 (Figure 2). This would to be expected, since there is a lag time between citing a paper and when the paper that cites a previous paper is published.

Furthermore, between the years 1972-1978, 1980-1982, 1984-1986, 1993 and 1988-1989 (as shown in Figure 1) there were no articles published in these journals. In a study conducted by Dabic et al. (2013) on the expatriation literature, they found that the number of papers increased by an average of 19-20 per year between 2000 and 2007, and during the global financial crisis in the year 2008, the number of papers published increased by an average of 44-45 each year. However, in our analyses, although we did see an increase in the number of publications between the years 1996-2001, unlike the trajectory seen in the expatriate literature there was a dip in the number of publications in 2002-2006, 2006-2009, and 2009-2012. The years 2009, 2012, 2013, 2014 and 2016 have shown considerable increase in the number of publications. It is important to note here that the first article in the specific management journals (journals with distinct focus in the international context) was published in 1971 (as shown in Figure 1).

The text search of keywords “international manager”, “global leadership or global leader”, “expatriate manager” and “global manager” reveal interesting patterns as shown in Figure 3. We used the matrix coding query to help us cross-tabulate keywords against time (in years). Therefore, in Figure 3 we see that initial research on leadership in the global context started with the study of international managers, which was then followed by expatriate managers, global managers and global leaders. The focus on global leadership or global leader in the selected journals only began in the early 1990s.

The published first author’s country is depicted in Figure 4. USA followed by Australia and Canada were the top providers of articles in the field. However, it is very clear that USA dominates the field with the highest number first author publications. In the expatriate domain, the USA was the topmost contributor and emerging Asian economies like People’s Republic of China and Taiwan were ranked as the 3rd and 6th highest contributors respectively (Dabic et al., 2013). However, in this study, People’s Republic of China and Taiwan were not among the top contributors.

Table 2 shows the number of articles published in each journal. *Advances in Global Leadership* (21.8 percent) is the primary outlet that published most of the papers followed by *International Journal of Human Resource Management* (15.5 percent), *Journal of World Business* (11.2 percent), *Human Resource Management* (6.7 percent), *Organizational Dynamics* (4.8 percent), *Journal of International Business Studies* (3.6 percent), and *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* (3.3 percent). The majority of these journals belong to international management research stream and this shows that scholars in leadership in the global context are publishing more in international business and human resource management journals.

Table 3 and 4 lists the top publishers and top cited articles in the literature. The top most cited articles were published in *Journal of World Business* followed by *Leadership*

Quarterly and Journal of Applied Psychology. It is important to note here that the first two articles in Table 4 discuss global leadership attributes and implicit leadership theories across the globe. Also, the third and fourth article discuss the psychological contract adjustment and performance in expatriate managers. Table 5 lists the different types of leadership used in the literature. The most popular type of leader/leadership studied in the literature was transformational leadership followed by charismatic leadership and cross-cultural leadership. This is in sync with the previous research conducted by Mendenhall, Li, and Osland (2016), where transformational leadership was shown to be commonly used to study global leadership competencies. Overall, based on the patterns emerging from our bibliometric, we can say that research to date in global leadership is derived mainly from a U.S. standpoint (as shown in Figure 4) which is in line with the pattern observed in the expatriate research. Since leadership in the global context is a nascent and growing field, it is crucial to hear voices from emerging economies and discuss diverse and complex range of issues.

To further analyze the content of this literature we used the word frequency tool to identify and discuss key themes in the next section.

KEY THEMES, LENSES, AND THEORIES IN THE LITERATURE

The Nvivo pro 11 software was used to perform the content analysis and generate different themes and isolate theories from the global leadership literature. The combination of article title, keywords and abstract of articles was used for the analysis.

The first part of the analysis involved using Word frequency query in Nvivo pro 11 to identify possible themes by examining the most frequently used words. Figure 5 shows the most frequent words of the literature in varying font sizes. Frequently occurring words have larger font size. The second part of the analysis involved content analyses using the text search query in Nvivo pro 11. For the content analysis, themes generated through frequently

occurring words from the word frequency query were used in the text search query in order to further explore the concepts and to examine the presence and relationship of such words.

As part of the first step, major themes were generated using the word frequency tool in Nvivo 11 - development (Word Count (WC) = 386; Weighted Percentage (WP) = 1.06), effectiveness (WC = 249; WP = .68), intelligence (WC = 52; WP = .14), global mindset (WC = 81; WP = .22), teams (WC = 81; WP = .22), women (WC = 136; WP = .37) or female (WC = 80; WP = .22), competency (WC = 143; WP = .39) and training (WC = 118; WP = .32). Global leadership development and global leadership effectiveness were found to be the two dominant themes in the literature. By performing content analysis on these two dominant themes, we found that these two themes have been explicated through seven particular lenses, namely - cultural, cognitive, experiential, relational/social, political, personality trait and training (see Figure 6). These lenses provide a framework that aid in the evaluation and comprehension of the global leadership literature. In a further step, we were able to link these lenses with key corresponding theories (see Table 6) which helped in improving our understanding of the literature and in tracing the evolution of the field. In the next sections, we discuss these lenses and theories in detail.

Development and Effectiveness of Leaders in a Global Context

Leaders functioning in a global context have to maintain a complex role combinations of empowering followers, building reward systems, setting up structures and formulating control (Kets De Vries & Florent-Treacy, 2002) in an ever changing context due to technology, economic crises, etc. (Crabtree, 2001). Brownell (2006) identified distinctive competency clusters that facilitated development in global leaders. They are: intercultural, social, creativity/resourcefulness, self-knowledge, positive outlook, responsiveness and decision making. These competencies were influenced by task complexity, strength of

organizational culture, environmental uncertainty, and degree of cultural diversity. According to Conner (2000), global leaders have to be business savvy, know how to use their personal experience, bring global perspective, have strong character, know how to motivate people and act as entrepreneurs. Therefore, cultural, cognitive, experiential, relational/social, political, personality trait and training lens are seen to contribute to the development and effectiveness in leaders in the global context. These lenses help us in understanding these complex roles and how they have evolved over time.

The Cultural Lens of Global Leadership

Contributions in the literature that offer a cultural lens focus on the influence of culture and environment/society on an individual's worldview or outlook. In the initial years researchers emphasized the importance of understanding national cultural differences. A lack of global knowledge was considered detrimental to the development of a global leader (e.g., Lobel, 1990). Additionally, it was important for organizations in the 1990s to be catalysts for cultural change and improve leadership effectiveness to meet global standards (Yeung & Ready, 1995). In later years, researchers identified several factors such as building cultural self-awareness, cultural values and understanding cultural dynamics or norms and adaptability in developing leadership effectiveness in global context to be critical determinants of leadership (Caligiuri, 2013; Conger, 2014; Deal, Leslie, Dalton, & Ernst, 2003; Harvey, Reiche, & Moeller, 2011; Hoffman & Shipper, 2012; Kiely, 2001; Lücke, Kostova, & Roth, 2014; Puck, Mohr, & Rygl, 2008; Sanchez-Runde, Nardon, & Steers, 2011; Wernsing & Clapp-Smith, 2013). Leader-culture fit (Burns, Nieminen, Kotrba, & Denison, 2014), effective cross-cultural communication (Griffith, 2002; Seak & Enderwick, 2008; Wang, Feng, Freeman, Fan, & Zhu, 2014), adequate cultural knowledge of the host country

(Harvey et al., 2000; Paik & Sohn, 2004) and cross-functional abilities (Seak et al., 2008) also emerged as conduits to leaders performing efficiently in the global context.

Leadership development and effectiveness in a global context is also dependent on the manner in which delegation (when leaders assign subordinates the responsibility of taking decisions) is performed across cultures (Chevrier & Viegas-Pires, 2013). Rønning, Espedal, and Jordahl, (2013) discussed two models of leadership— one rooted in instrumentality and the other in appropriateness. The logic of instrumentality assumed leadership practices to be universal across national and institutional borders whereas the logic of appropriateness assumed differences between cross-national cultural and institutional borders. Applying the logic of appropriateness in leadership was considered a better option since the logic of instrumentality ignored diversity and complexity in MNEs and their environments. Societal culture has further been shown to impact coaching behaviors. Ye, Wang, Wendt, Wu, & Euwema, (2016) found that coaching behaviors in male leadership were more influenced by societal culture than were female leadership coaching behaviors.

Globalization resulted in organizations became more diverse and global teams/multinational teams were utilized as the managing mechanism for a competitive, complex and culturally diverse workforce (Zander et al., 2012). With respect to appropriate leadership style, transformational leadership was considered to be important in the initial stages of global virtual team formation (Zander et al., 2012), whereas transactional leadership was more salient when the team matured and entered the mid-stage of completing work assignments (Davis & Bryant, 2003). Some researchers emphasized the importance of global leadership in managing teams with members belonging to different demographics or nationalities (e.g., Peterson & Hunt, 1997). For example, in corporate team meetings, low power negotiators from some cultures may be behaviorally attuned to and influenced by the culture of high-power negotiators. In such cases global leaders need to be attuned to the

potential adjustment in cooperation by individuals in low power contexts (Kopelman, Hardin, Myers, & Tost, 2016). Furthermore, in recent years scholars have focused on the global identity and nationality of leaders managing global teams. Here multicultural team leaders with high global identity achieved team innovation by using cultural diversity (Lisak, Erez, Sui, & Lee, 2016), bicultural managers excelled as boundary spanners in multicultural/global teams (Brannen & Thomas, 2010), while leaders belonging to same nationality profited from the local know-how of the employees from underrepresented nationalities (Tröster & Van Knippenberg, 2012).

The construct of cultural intelligence, defined as “a person’s capability to adapt effectively to new cultural contexts” (Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 26)), and identified as a critical facilitator of effective leadership functioning in the global context (e.g., Lisak & Erez, 2015), began to appear in the literature from the year 2000. Schyns and Meindl (2006) argued that cultural intelligence assisted global leaders in regulating emotional interactions and displays in unfamiliar cultures, while Elenkov and Manev (2009) noted its critical role in innovation among expatriate leaders. Maldonado and Vera (2014) found that MNEs could manage a crisis (for example, high degree of cultural distance between stakeholders) more effectively with the help of global leaders with high cultural intelligence. Furthermore, Ramsey et al. (2015) associated elevated levels of cultural intelligence with transformational leadership where cultural intelligence improved global leaders’ understanding of cross cultural differences. In sum, cultural intelligence is presented as playing a crucial role in developing leaders for global functioning across national and institutional borders.

As we delved through this literature, we were able to identify a range of theories that underpin the discussions within this cultural lens (see Table 6), namely agency theory, expectancy theory, ASD (Adaptation-Selection- Development) theory, career theory, cross-cultural capital theory/ cross-cultural/cultural theory, culturally endorsed implicit theories of

leadership (CLTs)/ implicit leadership theories, followership theory, institutional theory, neoinstitutional theory, resourced-based theory, and transformational leadership theory.

The Cognitive Lens of Global Leadership

A second major lens in the literature relates to providing cognitive understandings of global leaders' reasoning, judgment, memory and processes that are used to interpret and negotiate given situations. Focusing on effective leadership in global organizations that is sensitive towards diversity, Hoojiberg, Hunt, and Dodge (1997) proposed an integrative framework called the Leaderplex model that brought together key cognitive, social, and behavioral variables. It was only in the 2000s that researchers emphasized the importance of cognitive ability in global leaders when Black and Gregerson (2000) highlighted the importance of training programs in radically remapping mental maps (cognitive maps). In addition, cognitive ability accelerated the knowledge gained from training (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2014) and also helped in greater sensemaking, sensegiving and improved global leadership expertise (Herman & Zaccaro, 2014). In recent years, Lucke, Kostova, and Roth (2014) proposed a new concept called cognitive connectionist (how culture affects the way people think and make sense of their environment) with respect to multiculturalism, which in turn helped better understand global managers' capabilities and development. Overall, research from a cognitive lens varied from improving sensitivity in leaders and knowledge gained from training to the concept of cognitive connectionist in understanding multiculturalism. In terms of the theories utilised within this cognitive lens, we identified social cognitive theory, optimal distinctiveness theory, global mindset theory, and the theory of mindset switching (see Table 6). However, global mindset has received considerable traction within this cognitive lens, and is thus worth elaborating here.

Global mindset has been defined as “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” (Maznevski & Lane, 2004, p. 172). Kedia and Mukherji (1999) argued that global mindset helped global managers to integrate the global businesses, regional/country pressures and worldwide functions while Harvey, Novicevic, and Kiessling (2002) noted that the selection practice of global HRM systems needed to adapt according to the global mindset development. Returning expatriates with overseas market knowledge, intercultural skills, and foreign language ability could help globalize mindsets (Harvey, Novicevic, Buckley, & Fung, 2005; Mendenhall & Stahl, 2000), and younger managers were more likely to develop global mindset when compared to older managers as they were more willing to change or were considered less rigid (Arora, Jaju, Kefalas, & Perenich, 2004).

Other factors such as individualism/ collectivism balance; egalitarianism; caution, diffidence, dependence and non-violence; consensus building; regionalism; multiculturalism; particularism and tolerance; deference to authority (Kwantes & Chung-Yan, 2012) and mindfulness (the ability to clearly express one’s thoughts and feelings) (Chandwani, Agrawal, & Kedia, 2016) have been shown to contribute to the development of a global mindset. Two constructs from social sciences – cosmopolitanism (identified by Levy, Peiperl, & Jonsen, 2016 as personal ability to reflect, listen and advance into other cultures) and cognitive complexity (described by Levy et al., 2007 as cognitive capabilities) have been shown to facilitate the global mindset cognitive process of ‘activation and switching’ (a process where decision-making is necessary for global leader effectiveness) (Clapp-Smith & Lester, 2014). According to Lester, Virick, and Clapp-Smith, (2016) cosmopolitanism increased in perception of uniqueness (for example, appreciating the uniqueness of employees) whereas high cognitive complexity increased the positive association between

perception of belongingness and uniqueness in global leaders. In sum, research on global mindset initially focused on integrating global businesses and other factors that led to the development of global mindset. It is only in very recent years that research has focused on the two dimensions of global mindset - cosmopolitanism and cognitive complexity.

The Experiential Learning Lens of Global Leadership

The experiential learning lens focuses on learning through observation and experience. Although training has been successful in preparing leaders to function effectively in the global context, some scholars viewed training to be inadequate (Seak & Enderwick, 2008). Many researchers felt the international assignment played a more important role in developing global leaders (e.g., Caligiuri & Colakoglu, 2007; Cassiday, 2005; Hall, Zhu, & Yan, 2001). International assignments exposed individuals to challenges that were different from the domestic environment, which in turn stimulated a cycle of exploration, experimentation with new behaviors and reflection of new skill set. Global assignments helped individuals experience new roles, varied responsibilities and participate in diverse teams (Gerrard, 2011), and expanded leaders' strategic thinking through global work experience (Dragoni et al., 2014). They also helped systematically build, update and disseminate knowledge based on the experience (Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998). According to Björkman and Mäkelä (2013), an individual's willingness to accept on-the-job challenging global leadership activities was positively associated with previous experience of working/studying abroad and cross-functional experience. Early international experiences may also help increase the pool of effective global managers (Tarique & Weisbord, 2013).

In recent years, however, more prominence has been given to the link between international experience and cultural intelligence/global mindset. Previous studies have highlighted the importance of experiential learning in developing cultural intelligence and

vice versa. Li (2009) proposed a model that addressed the relationship between modes of experiential learning and facets of cultural intelligence where learning style was hypothesized to moderate the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence. Short-term cross-cultural study tours have shown to be positively related to enhanced metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ and motivational CQ (Wood & St. Peters, 2014). The study suggested that corporations could use short-term cross-cultural study tours as the first stage of global leadership development as these tours helped improve cultural intelligence through the experiential learning approach. Alon et al. (2016) studied the business cultural intelligence quotient across five diverse countries. The factors that led to the development of cultural intelligence included the number of countries individuals lived in for more than six months, the level of education attained and the number of languages spoken. In addition, the study found cultural intelligence to vary across countries, which meant that some countries may have a higher requirement for cross-cultural business interactions. In some cases, cultural intelligence in global leaders helped translate international experience into effective experiential learning in culturally diverse contexts (Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009).

International business travel also aided the development of global mindset among global leaders (Pucik, 2006). More specifically, short-term international travel and assignments were positively associated with improvements in global mindset (Johnston, 2014). Although global mindset could be developed by building dynamic global intellectual capital and enhancing global psychological capital through firsthand experiences (Javidan & Bowen, 2013), in some cases the completion of an international assignment was only marginally related to global mindset (e.g., Story, Barbuto, Luthans, & Bovaird, 2014).

Hence, experiential learning helps leaders in a global context to develop new skill sets and expand strategic thinking through experimentation, exploration, and experience. Additionally, international experience plays a vital role in the development of cultural

intelligence and global mindset, which in turn improve effectiveness in global leaders. Theories such as elite theory, experiential learning theory, cross-cultural capital theory, human capital theory and penrose effect theory (see Table 6) were utilized to support these relationships.

The Training Lens of Global Leadership

Training focuses on teaching and learning methods required to acquire skills and knowledge, and it has been highlighted since the 1990s in the current literature. Training also plays a crucial role in developing and improving effectiveness of leaders in the global context (e.g., Deshpande & Viswesvaran, 1992). Lobel (1990) highlighted the centrality of cross-cultural training programs in the development of generalizable skills that are valid for any intercultural setting, including team building activities with diverse individuals. The level of training required for expatriate managers was dependent on the cultural distance between host and home country (Gerstner & Day, 1994; Harvey & Buckley, 1997), the individual's proficiency in cross-cultural communication and cultural sensitivity (Harvey et al., 1997). Cross-cultural training reduced expatriate managers' adjustment time and improved cultural proficiency, which in turn made them more effective and productive in the assignment (Eschbach, Parker, & Stoeberl, 2001).

Selmer, Torbiörn, and De Leon (1998) suggested sequential cross-cultural training for expatriate business managers unlike predeparture and post arrival training, sequential cross-cultural training is implemented consistently at various phases, before and during expatriate assignment. Expatriate managers who received sequential training were more satisfied with their assignment than those who did not receive any training (Selmer, 2002). However, training is effective as long as individuals possess a strong learning orientation. Porter and Tansky (1999) introduced the concept of "learning orientation" that helped in

selecting and training expatriate managers. Based on this concept, individuals with stronger learning orientation adapted and continued whereas individuals with weaker learning orientation withdrew themselves from situations that could lead to low judgement of performance (i.e., performance becomes a judgment of how good they are).

Apart from cross-cultural/ sequential training programs, there are other strategies and training programs that help in developing leaders in global context. They include in-country, real-time training, global mindset training, and CD-ROM/internet-based training (Mendenhall & Stahl, 2000). The TRW company included development of market-driven strategies in their training program ((Neary & O'Grady, 2000), while Holzmüller & Stöttinger (2001) discussed cultural assimilator training programs that could help in the interaction between home and host cultural groups. Language training helped expatriates increase intercultural communication (Peltokorpi, 2007), training programs and tools such as Ecotonos (simulation game tool) (Bücker & Korzilius, 2015), and programs such as Ford's Global Leadership Summit and Compass Program (Gundling, Grant, & Everhart, 2014) have shown to be successful in developing leaders in the global context.

Bennett, (2014) argued that trainers should design training programs based on the complex cultural identity of global leader. Lenartowicz, Johnson, and Konopaske (2014) highlighted a number of characteristics of effective cultural learning programs as follows: they start with a cultural experience (tacit knowledge) and end with increased tacit knowledge, in between are multiple sequential stages where there is continuous interaction between tacit and explicit type of knowledge. The process does not end after one cycle but instead continues until the desired level of competency is reached. In recent times researchers have found that business schools (Guillotin & Mangematin, 2015) and corporate-sponsored international volunteerism programs (Caligiuri & Thoroughgood, 2015) provide an important role in the training of global leaders.

It is clear from the literature here that while earlier research on training focused on designing cross-cultural training programs to help with adjustment in expatriate managers, research that is more recent has considered new training programs and tools and emphasized the importance of cultural identity and cultural experiences in the training global leaders.

The Personality Trait Lens of Global Leadership

Personality characteristics influence individuals to behave in certain ways and help them accomplish goals (e.g., Buss, 1989). Initial research on personality traits focused on the expatriate manager's assignment and found extroversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability to be negatively related to expatriate's desire to terminate their assignment (Caligiuri, 2000). Highly extroverted leaders were found to be most effective at global leadership activities (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009)). Also, personality traits such as control, ability, independence, openness, and social ability shared significant relationship with overseas performance (Cheng & Lin, 2009). Cultural empathy, open-mindedness, and social initiative was positively associated with transformational leadership which in turn led to expatriate manager's higher performance in intercultural contexts (van Woerkom & de Reuver, 2009).

Analyzing data from 420 global leaders, Caligiuri and Tarique (2012) found a combined effect of personality characteristics (such as extraversion, openness to experience, and lower neuroticism) and cross-cultural experiences (organization-initiated cross-cultural work experiences and non-work cross-cultural experiences) as predictors of dynamic cross-cultural competencies (tolerance of ambiguity, cultural flexibility, and reduced ethnocentrism). Components of practical wisdom, such as being logical and analytical, sensitive and intuitive, clear and articulate, creative, practical, empathetic and ethical helped build global managerial KSAs (knowledge, skill and abilities) (Pauleen, Rooney, & Holden,

2010). Self-efficacy successfully predicted the development of cultural intelligence capacities (MacNab & Worthley, 2012). Traits such as conscientiousness and openness were found to be positively related to cross-cultural competencies and they were influenced by institutional differences between home and host countries (Wang, Freeman, & Zhu, 2013).

In sum, the research on personality traits has evolved from solely focusing on the retention of expatriates in international assignments to the development of competencies in global leaders. Additionally, while researchers have leveraged considerable attention to studying the Big Five personality traits (for example, extraversion, openness to experience, neuroticism, conscientiousness) recent years have witnessed a shift towards a consideration of other traits such as self-efficacy and practical wisdom.

The Social /Relational Lens of Global Leadership

The social or relational lens focuses on the network of relationships among individuals that result in productive benefits. Networking and social knowledge were necessary to adapt to local conditions (Harvey, Speier, & Novicevic, 1999); improve expatriate manager performance (Liu & Shaffer, 2005); have access to capabilities of overseas subsidiaries, customers and suppliers (Harvey, Novicevic, & Speier, 2000); and acquire both explicit and tacit forms of local knowledge (Li & Scullion, 2010). Hitt, Keats, and Yucel (2003) further noted that it was important for global leaders to build internal social capital (by forming effective relationships among members and organizations units based on trust), and external social capital (building trust among alliance partners). However, according to Mäkelä and Suutari (2009), internal and external strong and weak ties carried both significant benefits as well as risks. Although internal and external networks helped in quicker access to information and in providing support on professional and personal matters, they were also seen to affect retention and weaken the possibility for successful repatriation.

With respect to interpersonal relationships, Maley and Kramar (2010) found that the future career of inpatriate managers was dependent on the relationship they shared with their supervisor, while the interpersonal relationship they enjoyed with followers could be improved when leaders possessed high psychological capital (Story, Youssef, Luthans, Barbuto, & Bovaird, 2013). In recent years, Jaeger, Kim, and Butt (2016) have explored the concept of groupvergence based on socialization, social identity and network concepts. Groupvergence is a phenomenon where managers form clusters based on the exposure/non-exposure and socialization in global managerial values which in turn helps in spanning boundaries and in having influence on organizational functioning and effectiveness.

In sum, research using the social capital/ relational lens addressed helping leaders to adapt to local conditions, providing accessibility to overseas subsidiaries, forming effective relationships within and outside organizations, and groupvergence. Theories associated with social capital/relational lens appear in Table 6 and include such notables as social exchange theory, social capital theory, network theory and relational theory.

The Political Lens of Global Leadership

The political lens is based on the ability to use formal and informal power inter/intra organizationally to accomplish certain tasks (Harvey & Richey, 2001). Chen and Van Velsor (1996) highlighted the importance of understanding the political aspects of global leadership (power inequality and conflict) as leaders engaged in negotiation, created consensus, and built alliances. Political skills helped global managers coordinate activities between two organizations (Harvey & Richey, 2001) and played a crucial role in the development of global leaders (Harvey & Novicevic, 2004). More specifically, Harvey and Novicevic (2002) discussed dimensions of the political competence (indicated by self-confidence, social astuteness, and ability of adapting to social settings, to gain confidence of others, to be trusted

and have influence on others) construct that helped expatriate managers to be effective in global assignments. They were - self and social awareness, interpersonal influence and control, genuineness and sincerity, and established social capital inside and outside the organization. With the help of a theoretical frame of political influence theory, Harvey and Novicevic (2004) explained how global leaders acquired political skill and political capital through global assignments (both expatriation and inpatriation). According to the study, expatriate managers required specific political skill to lead diverse groups of individuals in foreign organizations, which is often a composite mix of expatriates and local nationals.

We further include the politics of differentiating women and male leaders in the political lens here. Female international managers faced difficulties in breaking the glass-ceiling, lacked mentors, were excluded from male influence networks, had difficulties in choosing between male and female managerial style, faced issues creating opportunities for male trailing spouses, encountered challenges in balancing international career and personal relationships (child rearing), and overt (for example, salary scales and educational qualification) and covert biases (for example, men receiving more opportunities for promotion) associated with overseas assignments (Linehan, 2002).

Fischlmayr (2002) found stereotypical beliefs and conservative attitudes among the key reasons why companies did not send women abroad. They also found women to behave according to stereotypical expectations and underestimate their positions, play passive roles and project weak self-confidence, which resulted in reduced participation of female managers in the international arena. Linehan and Scullion (2002) also discussed the difficulties female international managers experienced in re-entry process. In the repatriation process, female international managers often failed to receive credit for their achievements from home-country management. They also could not find a suitable position to return to in their home organization and faced issues relating to social adjustment and missed promotional

opportunities while working abroad. However, some studies have shown that American firms were more proactive in using female managers for overseas expatriate positions (e.g., Vance & Paik, 2001). In recent years, studies have shown that women still faced issues such as lack of corporate support and government policies, and societal/family issues which prevented them from taking up managerial international assignments (Hutchings, Lirio, & Metcalfe, 2012; Hutchings, Metcalfe, & Cooper, 2010). Adler and Osland (2016) also highlight the need to conduct research studies focusing on the role of women leaders as global leaders.

In sum, political skills help global leaders coordinate activities between organizations, engage in negotiations and influence/lead diverse group of individuals in foreign organizations. Also, politics within the workings of the organization may have prevented female global leaders from reaching their potential when compared to male global leaders. Based on these relationships, political capital and political influence theories were found to be the key theories associated with the political lens (see Table 6).

In sum then, we have demonstrated that development and effectiveness in leaders working in global leadership can be viewed through the seven lenses - cultural, cognitive, experiential, personality trait, political, relational/social and training. With respect to the cultural lens, it is important for leaders in the global context to build cultural self-awareness, cultural sensibilities and understand cultural dynamics and norms of the host country. The cultural lens largely focused on the concept of cultural intelligence; therefore, it is important for global leaders to have the ability to adapt effectively to new cultural context. Implicit leadership theory was the most commonly used theory in the cultural lens where transformational/ charismatic leadership qualities was universally endorsed across cultures (see Table 6).

The cognitive lens highlights the necessity for global leaders' capacity to perceive a given situation that will help integrate the global businesses, regional/country pressures and

worldwide functions. The concept of global mindset has been largely discussed in the cognitive lens and this mindset may help global leaders in their decision-making (Clapp-Smith & Lester, 2014). Through the lens of experiential learning, the paper highlights the importance of learning in global leaders through participation in international assignments. In fact, international experience significantly increased cultural intelligence and global mindset in global leaders (Pucik, 2006; Wood et al., 2014). The personality trait lens advocates the centrality of extraversion (e.g., Caligiuri et al., 2009) and openness to experiences (e.g., Caligiuri et al., 2012) which can significantly impact the development of global leadership competencies (Wang et al., 2013).

With respect to the political lens, political skills help global leader to effectively coordinate activities between organizations (Harvey et al., 2001) and lead diverse groups of individuals in foreign organizations (Harvey et al., 2004), and read the political business landscape. The social/relational lens highlights the importance of building effective relationships among members and organizations units based on trust which in turn may aid in spanning boundaries and having a positive influence on organizational functioning (Jaeger et al., 2016). Finally, the training lens emphasizes the importance of cross-cultural/sequential/global mindset training, online tools and other learning methods that may help global leaders in acquiring skills and knowledge (e.g., Lenartowicz et al., 2014). While all seven lenses are clearly distinguishable in the literature on global leadership, considerably more emphasis has been placed on the cultural and social/relational lens. The ability of a global leader to be culturally sensitive and to form meaningful relationships with members or organizational units that help span boundaries is deemed particularly critical. This is also evident from the theories that have been used by scholars in this field as shown in Table 6.

Amongst all of the various theories listed within the lenses, scholars in the field have emphasized the importance of social capital theory. Social capital is defined as “the sum of

actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit. Social capital thus comprises both the network and the assets that may be mobilized through that network” (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 243). Using this definition of social capital, previous researchers have focused on studying cohesiveness within groups (bonding) and between-group linkages (bridging) (Nahapiet et al., 1998). However, social capital in global leaders not only focuses on building effective relationships or networks but also highlights the importance of spanning boundaries and bridging the gap between headquarters and subsidiary organizations.

CONCLUSION

Global leaders play a critical role in motivating, managing and transacting business in both domestic and international markets, and scholars have also emphasized the importance of studying these individuals, which is evident from recent contributions to the field. Our review shows how much the literature on global leadership has evolved in recent decades. The focus of our bibliometric and thematic review was to provide an in-depth understanding of the key trends, themes and patterns that characterize this evolving field of study. We list the most cited articles, most published first authors, countries of first authors, and frequent publishing journals. Based on these results we conclude that the number of articles published in recent years were less when compared to the year 2014 (as shown in Figure 1). Also, a greater number of publications by first authors were published in the United States, which shows that the literature is dominated by the U.S. perspective. This may be due to possible relationship between openness of an economy and scientific production in the field as seen in the expatriate literature (e.g., Dabic et al., 2013). However, unlike the expatriate literature, Asian economies (e.g., People’s Republic of China or Taiwan) were not top providers of

articles in the global leadership domain. This could be due to the field being relatively new and the global leadership domain still lacks research on certain concepts like global change and global leader cognition (Osland, Ehret, & Ruiz, 2017). Therefore, future researchers need to have a wider approach to provide a more diverse viewpoint to expand the field towards newer concepts and broadening of the topic.

Furthermore, by using word frequency query tool in Nvivo pro 11 software, we traced the evolution of the field, which is dominated by two key themes, namely development, and effectiveness. Using the content analysis method, the themes were further divided into different lenses, which formed the building blocks of global leadership development and effectiveness. Cultural and social/relational lenses were the most prominent lens in the literature and future studies may focus on studying these themes in more detail. Overall, the present study brings to light the important themes, theories and lenses in the global leadership literature. This may give scholars and practitioners a better understanding of the field and thereby help future studies to focus on areas that need further improvement.

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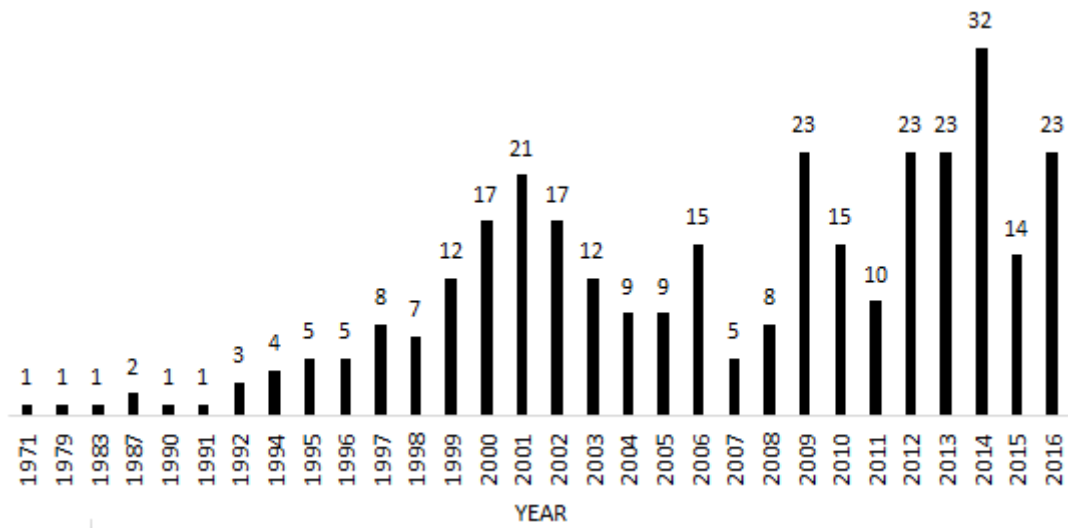


Figure1. Evolution of Global leadership literature

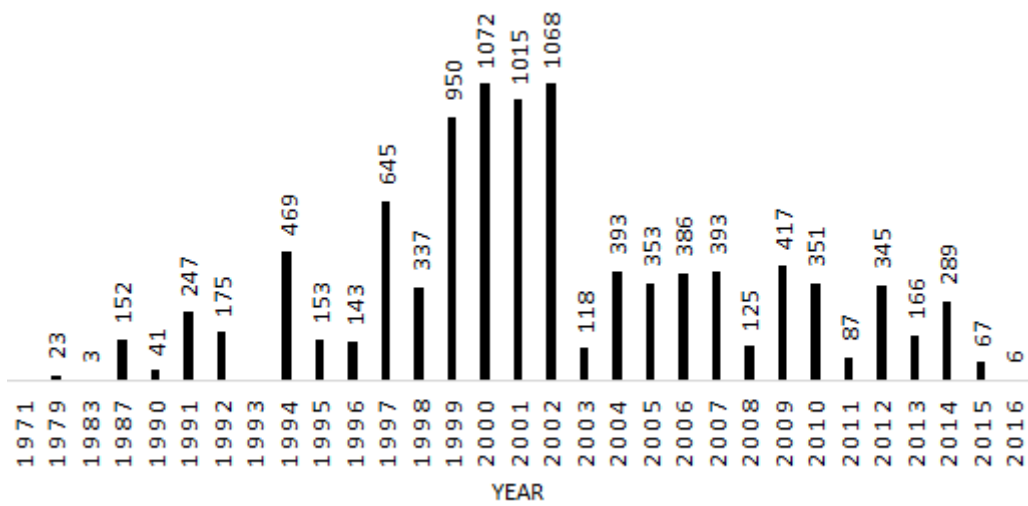


Figure 2. Total number of citations per year

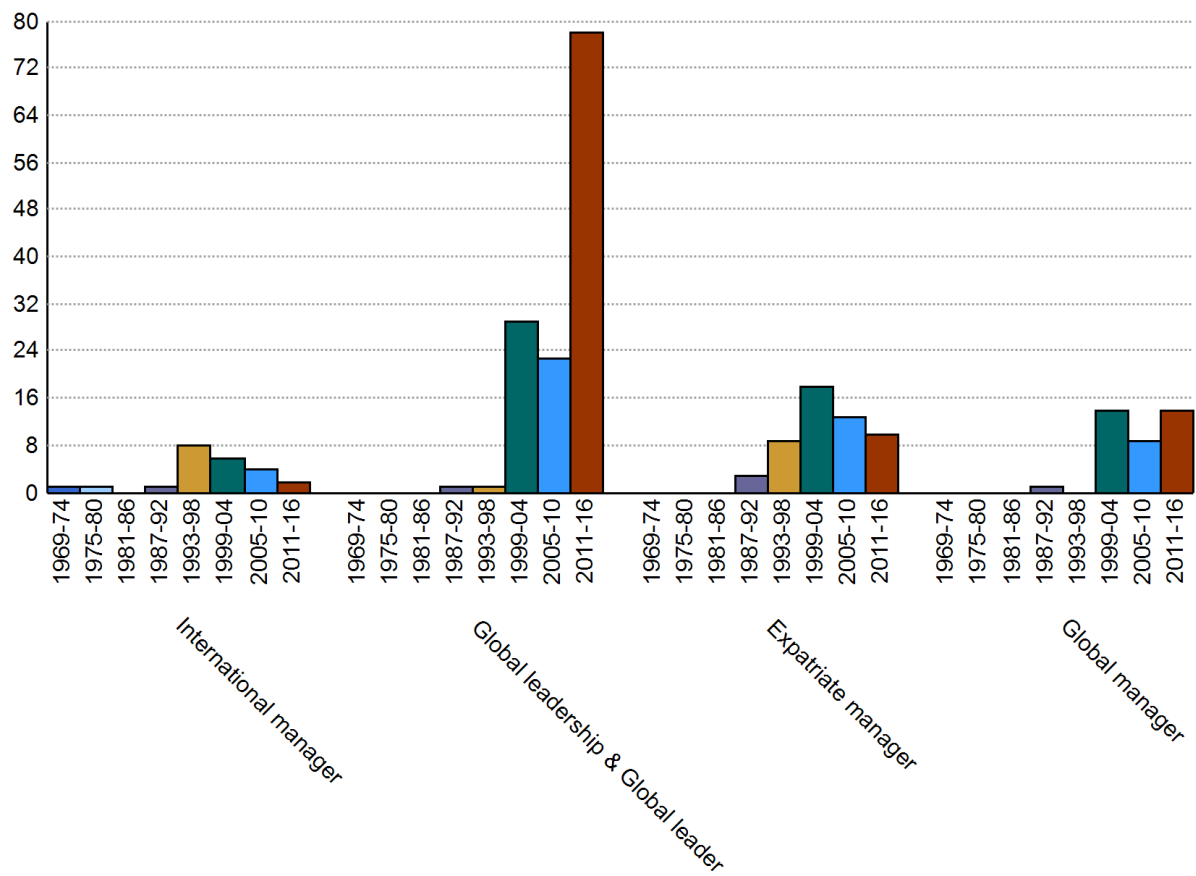


Figure 3. Patterns in Global leadership literature using keywords

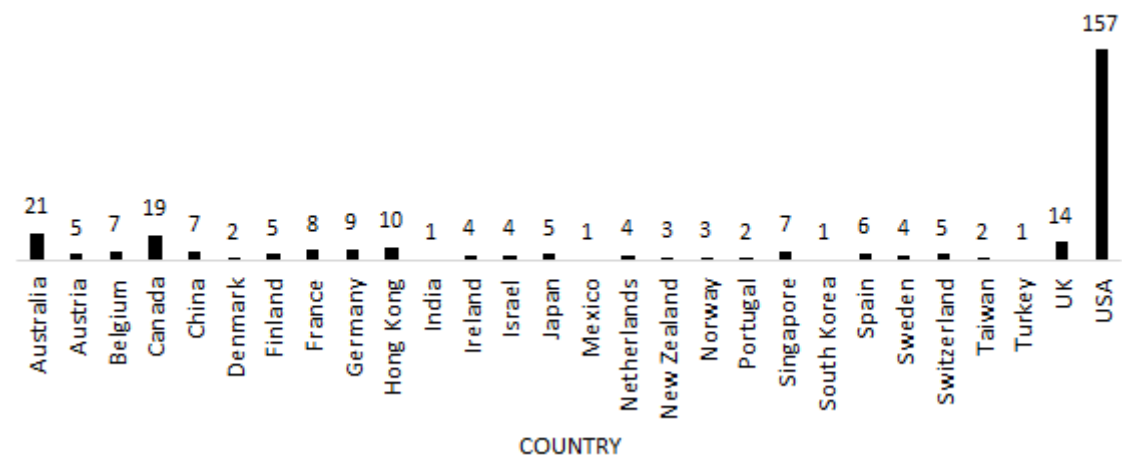


Figure 4. Countries of published first authors



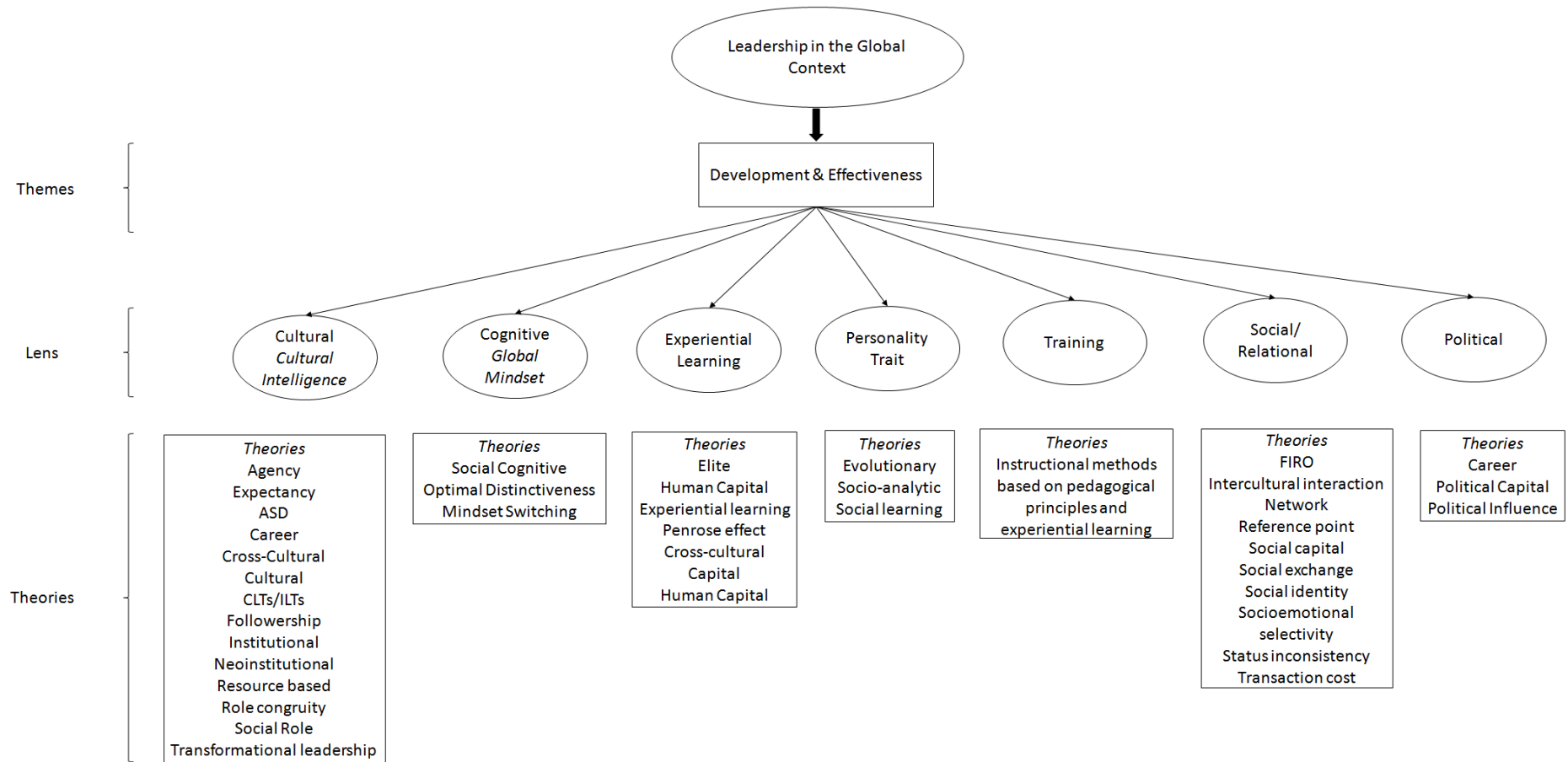


Figure 6. Representation of themes, lens and corresponding theories

Journal	Founding Date
Psychological Bulletin	1904
Journal of Applied Psychology	1917
Human Relations	1947
Personnel Psychology	1948
Administrative Science Quarterly	1956
Academy of Management Journal	1958
Journal of International Business Studies	1959
Thunderbird International Business Review	1959
Management International Review	1960
Journal of Management Studies	1963
(Columbia) Journal of World Business	1965
Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources	1966
Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology	1970
International Studies of Management & Organization	1971
Organizational Dynamics	1972
International Journal of Intercultural Relations	1972
Journal of Management	1975
Academy of Management Review	1976
Journal of Organizational Behavior	1979
Strategic Management Journal	1980
Asia Pacific Journal of Management	1983
International Journal of Human Resource Management	1990
Leadership Quarterly	1990
Human Resource Management	1961
Organization Science	1990
British Journal of Management	1990
International Business Review	1992
Cross-Cultural Management: An International Journal	1994
Journal of International Management	1995
Advances in Global Leadership	1999
International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management	2001
European Journal of International Management	2006
Journal of Global Mobility	2013

Table 1. List of journals from Bird and Mendenhall (2016)

Journal	Count	Percentage
Advances in Global Leadership	72	21.8
International Journal of Human Resource Management	51	15.5
Journal of World Business	37	11.2
Human Resource Management	22	6.7
Organizational Dynamics	16	4.8
Journal of International Business Studies	12	3.6
International Journal of Intercultural Relations	11	3.3
Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal	10	3.0
Leadership Quarterly	10	3.0
European Journal of International Management	9	2.7
International Business Review	9	2.7
International Journal of Cross Cultural Management	9	2.7
Thunderbird International Business Review	9	2.7
Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources	7	2.1
Journal of Applied Psychology	7	2.1
Journal of International Management	7	2.1
Management International Review	6	1.8
Asia Pacific Journal of Management	3	.9
Personnel Psychology	3	.9
The International Journal of Human Resource Management	3	.9
Academy of Management Journal	2	.6
Human Relations	2	.6
Journal of Management	2	.6
Journal of Organizational Behavior	2	.6
British Journal of Management	1	.3
International Studies of Management and Organization	1	.3
Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology	1	.3
Journal of Global Mobility	1	.3
Organization Science	1	.3
Strategic Management Journal	1	.3

Table 2. Scopus – Journals publishing articles related to leadership in global context in

descending order of publication numbers

Author	No. of Articles
Harvey M. G	18
Selmer J.	10
Adler N. J.	8
Caligiuri P. M.	7
Osland J. S.	6
Linehan M.	4
Mendenhall M. E.	4
Black J. S.	3
Cappellen T.	3
Hutchings K.	3
Javidan M.	3
Morrison A. J.	3
Stahl G. K.	3
Wang Y.	3

Table 3. Top 14 most published first authors

Author	Journal	Citation
(House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002)	JWB	484
(Den Hartog et al., 1999)	LQ	467
(Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994)	JAP	330
(Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001)	PP	278
(Javidan & House, 2001)	OD	252
(Black & Gregersen, 1991)	HR	247
(Stahl, Miller, & Tung, 2002)	JWB	244
(Caligiuri, 2000)	PP	244
(Waldman, 2006)	JIBS	213
(Levy, Beechler, Taylor, & Boyacigiller, 2007)	JIBS	211

Table 4. Top 10 most cited articles

Note. JWB – Journal of World Business; LQ – Leadership Quarterly; JAP – Journal of Applied Psychology; OD- Organizational Dynamics; HR- Human Relations; PP- Personnel Psychology; JIBS- Journal of International Business Studies

Types of Leaders/Leadership	Authors	Journal
Alliance leadership	(Isabella & Spekman, 2001)	Advances in Global leadership
Autocratic leaders	(Ramsey, Rutti, Lorenz, Barakat, & Sant'anna, 2015)	Journal of World Business
Charismatic leadership	(Kiely, 2001); (Rodriguez & Griffin, 2009); (Paris, Howell, Dorfman, & Hanges, 2009); (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012); (Wanasika, Howell, Littrell, & Dorfman, 2011); (Den Hartog et al., 1999)	Advances in Global leadership, Journal of World Business, Journal of International Business Studies, Leadership Quarterly
Collective global leadership	(Paunova & Lee, 2016)	Advances in Global leadership
Competency-based leadership	(Muratbekova-Touron, 2009); (Brownell, 2006)	International Journal of Human Resource Management, Human Resource Management
Cosmopolitan leaders	(Levy, Peiperl, & Jonsen, 2016); (Selmer, 2001)	Advances in Global leadership, International Journal of Cross Cultural Management
Cross-cultural leadership	(Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009); (Chevrier & Viegas-Pires, 2013); (Youssef & Luthans, 2012); (Scandura & Dorfman, 2004); (Gerstner & Day, 1994); (Caligiuri, Joshi, & Lazarova, 1999); (Van Emmerik, Euwema, & Wendt, 2008)	Journal of World Business, Leadership Quarterly, International Journal of Human Resource Management, International Journal of Cross Cultural Management
Diversity leadership	(Chen & Van Velsor, 1996)	Leadership Quarterly
Emergent leader	(Lisak & Erez, 2015)	Journal of World Business
Executive leadership	(Dorfman et al., 2012)	Journal of World Business
Global team leadership/Team leadership	(Zander et al., 2012)	Journal of World Business
Global-market leadership	(Tian & Slocum, 2015)	Journal of World Business
Humane oriented leadership	(Paris et al., 2009); (Wanasika et al., 2011)	Journal of International Business Studies, Journal of World Business
Humanistic leadership	(Steers, Sanchez-Runde, & Nardon, 2012)	Journal of World Business
Implicit leadership	(House et al., 2002); (Den Hartog et al., 1999)	Journal of World Business, Leadership Quarterly
Individualistic leaders	(Kiely, 2001)	Advances in Global leadership

Issue leadership	(Baik, 2003)	Advances in Global leadership
Paternalistic leadership	(Wanasika et al., 2011)	Journal of World Business
People-oriented leadership	(Zander et al., 2012)	Journal of World Business
Positive leadership/Positive global leadership	(Youssef & Luthans, 2012)	Journal of World Business
Responsible global leadership	(Stahl, Miska, Puffer, & McCarthy, 2016)	Advances in Global leadership
Servant leadership	(Steers et al., 2012); (Liden et al., 2015)	Journal of World Business, Leadership Quarterly
Shared leadership	(Toegel & Jonsen, 2016)	Advances in Global leadership
Strategic leadership	(Hitt, Keats, & Yucel, 2003); (Steers et al., 2012)	Advances in Global leadership, Journal of World Business
Transactional leadership	(Flatten, Adams, & Brettel, 2015)	Journal of World Business
Transformational leadership	(Schyns & Meindl, 2006); (Rodriguez & Griffin, 2009); (Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999); (Elenkov & Manev, 2009); (Ramsey et al., 2015); (Steers et al., 2012); (Takahashi, Ishikawa, & Kanai, 2012); (Den Hartog et al., 1999); (Liden et al., 2015); (Flatten et al., 2015); (van Woerkom & de Reuver, 2009)	AGL, Journal of International Business Studies, Journal of World Business, Leadership Quarterly, International Journal of Human Resource Management
Value based leadership	(Dorfman et al., 2012)	Journal of World Business
Virtuous leadership	(Ko & Rea, 2016)	Advances in Global leadership
Visionary-transformational leadership	(Elenkov & Manev, 2009)	Journal of World Business

Table 5. Types of Leader/Leadership discussed in the literature

Dominant Lens	Theoretical frame	Exemplar Paper	Summary Contribution
Cultural	Agency theory Expectancy theory	(Harvey, Speier, & Novecevic, 2001)	Agency theory was utilised to handle issues relating to information asymmetry between the parent and subsidiary location while expectancy theory was employed to examine the assignee's motivation. Together they explicated conditions under which specific strategic staffing choices might be most effective across cultures.

ASD (Adaptation- Selection- Development) theory	(Wang, 2012)	Summarizing the recent progress of leadership research in China, the paper used ASD theory to explicate mechanism to enhance organizational effectiveness in global leadership.
Career theory	(Peltonen, 1998)	Career theory was used to discuss the ways in which expatriates could interpret their own development and movement across expatriate career cycle. The study emphasized the influence of the organizational environment on the expatriate experience and addressed dimensions of individual learning and change in cross-cultural settings.
Cross-cultural theory	(Ye, Wang, Wendt, Wu, & Euwema, 2016)	Cross-cultural theory was used to study the impact of collectivistic values on the practice of managerial coaching. Leaders in collectivistic cultures were reported to exhibit more coaching behaviour than those in individualistic cultures.
Cultural theory	(Suutari, 1996)	The paper reported on variation in manager-subordinate interactions of Finnish expatriates from four European countries where, based on cultural theory explanations, the national origin of managers was expected to influence leadership behavior. Results indicated that variation in the average managerial style within countries should be kept in mind while discussing variation in managerial style across countries.
	(Camiah & Hollinshead, 2003)	Cultural theory was employed to emphasize the cultural differences between eastern and western management and organization. Addressing the critical issue of relationship building between young Russian managers and their expatriate counterparts from western countries, the study highlighted the importance of managers developing both 'learn' and 'unlearn' modes of thinking and perception to be effective international actors.
Culturally endorsed implicit theories of leadership (CLTs)/Implicit leadership theories (ILTs)	(Den Hartog et al., 1999)	Implicit leadership theory was used to study the perceptions and values of leaders at various positions in the hierarchy. Focusing on 62 cultures that formed part of the GLOBE research program , the research reported that attributes of charismatic/ transformational leadership were universally endorsed across cultures.

	(House et al., 2002)	Implicit leadership theory was utilised to propose a GLOBE conceptual model wherein attributes and entities that differentiate between cultures are predictive both of practices of organizations and of leader attributes and behaviors that are effective and frequently used in that culture.
	(Kono, Ehrhart, Ehrhart, & Schultze, 2012)	Employing implicit leadership theories (ILTs), the paper investigated potential cultural differences in the variability and mean levels of ILT dimensions in Japan and the US. The results showed that Japanese participants had lower variability in their ILTs and the US participants had higher mean scores than Japanese participants regarding mean levels of ILTs.
Followership theory	(Tolstikov-Mast, 2016)	Followership theory was used to explore the global leader-follower partnership where global leaders and global followers were engaged in partnership process called global leadership. The paper reported that followers and global followers possessed unique characteristics that are influenced by their specific cultural environments.
Institutional theory	(Rønning, Espedal, & Jordahl, 2013)	Using institutional theory, the study explored two models of leadership in the global context – leadership rooted in instrumentality and leadership rooted in appropriateness. The authors concluded that the logic of instrumentality in leadership was more viable and suitable when compared to the logic of instrumentality that ignored both the diversity and complexity of MNEs and their environment.
	(Tsui-Auch & Möllering, 2010)	Institutional theory was used to study the consequences of international managers’ perceived vulnerability and the process of trust building in unfavorable environments. It was found that perceived vulnerability was shaped by the institutional, technological, and market conditions of the local environment.
Neoinstitutional theory Agency theory	(Muratbekova-Touron, 2009)	A framework combining agency and neo-institutional theories was employed to evaluate a competency-based leadership model of a French MNC and explain the introduction of specific organizational practices. Here, the competency-based leadership model was found to help reduce agency cost and increase both internal and external organizational legitimacy.
Resourced based theory	(Harvey & Richey, 2001)	Resource-based theory was utilised across the supply chain to help visualize the skills required by global supply chain managers operating in global market place, and to formulate a competency-based approach for the selection of global supply chain managers.
Role congruity theory Social role theory	(Ye et al., 2016)	Role congruity and social role theory were employed to understand dimensions of gender differences in managerial coaching across cultures. Female leaders were found to engage in more coaching behaviors than did male leaders, while male leaders’ coaching behaviors were more heavily influenced by societal culture than were female leaders coaching behaviors.

Cognitive	Transformational leadership theory	(Ramsey, Rutti, Lorenz, Barakat, & Sant'anna, 2015)	Extending transformational leadership theory, the study examined the influence of cultural intelligence on transformational leadership. The paper proposed that global leaders with high level of cultural intelligence would have high level of transformational leadership arising from their ability to better understand and adjust to other cultures.
	Social cognitive theory	(Wernsing & Clapp-Smith, 2013)	Social cognitive theory was used to explicate multiple modes of learning and behavioural changes rising from a confluence of interactions related to environment, personal aspects, and behaviour. Specifically, social cognitive explanations were found to be positively associated with the development of intercultural competencies in global leaders.
	Optimal Distinctiveness theory	(Lester, Virick, & Clapp-Smith, 2016)	Optimal distinctiveness theory was utilised to explain how global mindset could foster inclusiveness among workers that transcends political boundaries and diversity dimensions. Creativity and psychological safety were the two individual-level outcomes of inclusiveness that were discussed.
	Theory of mindset switching	(Clapp-Smith & Lester, 2014)	The theory of mindset activation was used to explain the process by which managers/global leaders became cognitively more aware of how they solved issues. The study proposed a model to help capture the dualities of global leadership. And identified antecedents to appropriate mindset activation and mindset switching.
Experiential learning & Training	Elite theory Human capital theory	(Schmid & Wurster, 2015)	Using elite and human capital theories, the authors argued that international work experience was not only beneficial, but also detrimental to manager's ascent to the top. The study found that once a certain threshold of international work experience is exceeded, being away from home tended to disrupt a manager's long-term career advancement.
	Experiential learning theory	(Li, 2009)	Experiential learning theory helped explain the development of cultural intelligence in global leaders. A model was proposed that outlined the relationship between experiential learning and facets of cultural intelligence, and recognized the importance of international experience in the development of global leadership.
		(Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009)	Using experiential learning theory, the paper proposed that cultural intelligence is essential to translate international experience into effective experiential learning for global leaders.
		(Yamazaki & Kayes, 2007)	Experiential learning theory was employed to illustrate the learning styles of Japanese expatriate managers and their adaptation to working conditions in the US. As managers spent increased time in the US, the more concrete and more active were their learning styles in evidence.

		(Yamazaki, 2010)	Experiential learning was used to explain the adaptation of expatriate managers to their host culture, through an analysis of fit change between 12 learning skills and skills demand. Adaptation was found to be positively associated with length of overseas assignment tenure and job satisfaction.
	Penrose effect theory	(Goerzen & Beamish, 2007)	Penrose effect theory was applied to understand how managers in host countries utilised experiential learning to good effect. The study demonstrated that, subsidiaries with excess expatriate managers were more likely to experience inferior performance when host country experience is low.
	Cross-cultural capital theory Human capital	(Harvey, Novicevic, & Garrison, 2005)	Cross-cultural capital and human capital theories combined to help understand the formation and functioning of global virtual teams. Accumulated cross-cultural capital allowed virtual team members to interpret information and respond according to the multitude of cultures whereas human capital helped in the training and development of globally competent managers which in turn positively affected the performance of the organization.
Personality trait	Evolutionary theory	(Caligiuri, 2000)	Using the evolutionary theory of personality, the paper tested the relationship between the Big Five personality characteristics and criteria for expatriate success. The results demonstrated that extroversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability were negatively related to expatriate's desire to terminate their assignment, while conscientiousness was positively related to supervisor-rated performance.
	Institutional theory Socio-analytic theory	(Wang, Freeman, & Zhu, 2013)	Institutional and socio-analytic theory were used to investigate the influence of personality traits on cross-cultural competence among Chinese expatriate managers. While conscientiousness and openness traits contributed effectively to cross-cultural competence, their influences were limited by institutional differences between home and host countries.
	Social learning theory	(Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009)	Social learning theory was used to predict effectiveness in global leadership activities. Highly extroverted leaders were found to be most effective on global leadership activities and had with a greater number of high contact cross-cultural leadership development experiences.
Social/ Relational	FIRO (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation) theory	(Jenster & Steiler, 2011)	FIRO theory was employed to study the impact of three sets of leadership behaviour on virtual team motivation and cohesiveness. Virtual team members identified behaviors of inclusion, control and support in their team leader as positively associated with the team's perceived motivation and cohesiveness.

Intercultural interaction learning theory	(Nardon & Steers, 2008)	Intercultural interaction learning theory helped explain the importance of intercultural interactions in managers working in global environment. Interacting with others helped in learning more about oneself, discovering new things, and finding creative solutions to resolve new and old issues.
Network theory	(Harvey & Richey, 2001)	Focusing on ability of organizations to effectively compete in global marketplace, network theory helped global supply managers with high network IQs to effectively recognize, understand and manage different operating units and inter-organizational relations.
Reference point theory	(Harvey, Griffith, Kiessling, & Moeller, 2011)	Reference point theory helped global managers make efficient decisions by matching global environment conditions with certain reference points. The study focused on the development of a multi-level model to examine the influence of group, organizational and society points of reference on managerial global decision-making process.
	(Harvey, Reiche, & Moeller, 2011)	Reference point theory was used to study the relationship between inpatriate managers and headquarter organization, and to analyse the adjustment of inpatriate manager and parent organization to the new global organizational conditions. This in turn helped in understanding the effects of assignment longevity in managers.
Social capital theory	(Van Dyne & Ang, 2006)	Social capital theory was used to explain how global leaders used social capital to span structural holes. It further considered local, corporate, and personal factors that influenced the relationship between spanning behaviour and reputational effectiveness. The study highlighted that global leaders have more to offer than just their accumulated human capital.
	(Hitt, Keats, & Yucel, 2003)	Social capital theory identified the importance of building effective relationships among members and units of a global organisation. The study focused on how social capital could be used by global leaders to renew knowledge stocks and stimulate innovation.
	(Liu & Shaffer, 2005)	Social capital theory was used to develop and test a model of expatriate adjustment and job performance. Aspects of social capital including host country national's network density and cultural empathy, and depth of relationship, were found to be strong predictors of expatriate performance but relatively weak predictors of adjustment.

	(Mäkelä & Suutari, 2009)	Social capital theory helped explain how multiple international relocation assignments affected global managers' social capital. The research highlighted that global careers could carry both significant social capital related benefits (improved ability to span geographical and cultural boundaries) as well as potential risks (isolation from the home organizations could lead to repatriation issues).
	(Moeller, Maley, Harvey, & Kiessling, 2016)	Social capital theory helped conceptualize how organizational support helped alleviate inpatriate's difficulty in building social capital at HQ. The research concluded that social capital was influential in facilitating inpatriate managers pursue their boundary-spanning role across HQs and subsidiaries.
	(Harvey, Novicevic, & Garrison, 2005)	Social capital theory helped understand the specificities of social capital in a global virtual team environment. The authors found that the building of social capital is particularly challenging in global virtual teams given the transitory nature of virtual teams.
	(Harvey & Novicevic, 2004)	Social capital theory helped explain the boundary spanning role of global leaders. The study highlighted the importance for global leaders to build personal relationships and bridge gap between headquarters and subsidiary organizations.
	(Espedal, Gooderham, & Stensaker, 2013)	Social theory was used to identify aspects of global leadership programmes that promoted social capital development. The study highlighted that social capital accumulation facilitated increased knowledge sharing across multinational enterprises.
Social exchange theory	(Takeuchi, Wang, Marinova, & Yao, 2009)	Social exchange theory was employed to examine the relationship between POS (perceived organizational support), work and general adjustment and job performance. Work and general adjustment were positively related to perceived organizational support, while higher affective commitment was positively related to work and general adjustment which in turn resulted in better job performance.
	(Björkman & Mäkelä, 2013)	Social exchange theory was utilised to investigate the willingness of individuals to undertake global leadership development activities. Willingness to accept on the job challenges was positively related to identification with corporate values and acknowledgement of the effectiveness of developmental assignments.
Social identity theory	(Freeman & Lindsay, 2012)	Social identity theory was combined with acculturation theory to explore the means through which expatriate managers managed ethnic diversity in the host country. It proposed that having a sense of self for a group was positively associated with improved leadership effectiveness.

	(Soo & Denisi, 2007)	Social identity theory was used to model the role of host country nationals (HCNs) in the adjustment of expatriate managers. Attributes of expatriates and HCNs helped increase national identity salience and outgroup categorization of expatriates by the HCNs.	
	(Sutton, Zander, & Stamm, 2013)	Social identity theory was used to study dominant stereotypes in global leadership and their influence on interpersonal relations. The paper highlighted the necessity for global leaders to handle negative stereotype and invoke supportive stereotypes to influence or manage groups of people.	
Socioemotional selectivity theory	(Wechtler, Koveshnikov, & Dejoux, 2015)	Socioemotional selectivity theory was used to provide an understanding of the relationship between age, expatriation experience, emotional intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment. Age helped in the regulation and utilization of emotions on general living adjustment and in the regulation of emotions on interactional adjustment among expatriate managers.	
Status inconsistency theory	(Moeller et al., 2016)	Status inconsistency theory helped in the acceptance of various categories or ranks of people translating social capital into high-potential boundary-spanning role. The goal of the paper was to alleviate in-patriate's difficulties in building social capital at HQ.	
Transaction cost theory	(Luo, 1999)	Transaction cost theory together with a socio-psychological perspective was used to present an integrated conceptual framework of international joint venture negotiations. The study focused on the prominent issue of contract negotiations during international joint venture (IJV) formation and this may help international managers to draw practical lessons that will help improve their IJV negotiations processes and outcomes.	
Political	Career theory	(Linehan & Scullion, 2002)	Career theory was used to study the difficulties experienced by Western Europe senior female international manager's re-entry to home organizations and home countries. The study reported that home based mentors and access to networks while working in the host country, were critical in the successful repatriation of international managers.
	Political capital theory	(Harvey, Novicevic, & Garrison, 2005)	Political capital theory was used to highlight the importance of political skill in global virtual team members during global assignment. Accumulation of political capital in team members helped reduce the level of conflict and dysfunctional consequences between global virtual team and its communicating parties/entities within the global environment.
		(Novicevic & Harvey, 2004)	Political capital theory was employed to examine the influence of political skill of corporate HRM on firm reputation and competitiveness. The study showed that level of HRM's political skill affected the extent to which leadership development is mapped onto intellectual capital base and reputation of the organization.

Political influence theory	(Harvey & Novicevic, 2004)	Using political influence theory, the paper explored the benefit of political skills in the development of global leaders. Specifically, political skill were found to be critical in resolving conflicts between influential actors in HQ and subsidiaries, and in strategic management staffing, managerial career mobility and managerial compensation.
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Table 6. List of theories