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Introduction: New Perspectives on Expatriate Adjustment and Its Relationship to Global Leadership Development

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It has been argued by many scholars and business observers that people—not plans, systems, or strategies—are the key to obtaining a global competitive advantage for a company in any given industry (see, for example, Bennis, 1989a; Pfeffer, 1994). Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall, and Stroh (1999) summarized this view when they wrote, “People formulate and implement strategy. . . . The strategy of a company is a function of its strategy makers. For example, whether they recognize or miss global threats or opportunities is a function of their experience and perspective. How they structure an organization for global reach and results depends on how they see the world of organizations, markets, competitors” (pp. 1–2).

It has also been argued by organizational scholars that leadership is critical to organizational productivity (Bennis, 1989a; McFarland, Senn, & Childress, 1993; Yukl, 1998), and recent findings suggest there is a positive relationship between a multinational corporation’s (MNC) ability to develop global leadership and the MNC’s return on assets (Stroh & Caligiuri, 1997). Thus, one of the key concerns of many current North American CEOs is the development of future leaders who have global leadership abilities (Black et al., 1999; Stroh & Caligiuri, 1996, 1997).

Adler (1998, 140) notes that the word "lead" is derived from the Latin verb "agere," which means "set into motion," and was combined with the Anglo-Saxon word "laedere," which meant "people on a journey." Thus, leadership involves setting ideas, people, organizations, and societies in motion, on a journey. The concept of global leadership, then, requires that this definition be extended into the international, rather than be limited to the local or domestic context. Which naturally leads to the following question: What "skill sets" or competencies make up the repertoire of a global leader?

WHAT IS GLOBAL LEADERSHIP?

The delineation of global leadership competencies is a new area of research in the field of international management, and therefore relatively few scholars have been actively at work attempting to isolate these competencies and their attendant characteristics; however, the work that has been done has yielded a worthwhile "snapshot" of what those competencies might be. A more comprehensive and specific list of the competencies that scholars have generated from exploratory research is given in the following list:¹

Global Business Savvy	Global Organizational Savvy
Integrity/Managing Cross-Cultural Ethics	Thinking Agility
Managing Uncertainty	Maturity
Balancing Global versus Localization Tensions	Expertise in Negotiation Processes
Inquisitiveness/Curiosity/Self-Learning	Conflict Management
Change Agency	Community Building/Networking
Creating Learning Systems	Stakeholder Orientation
Motivating Employees	Improvisation
Entrepreneurial Spirit	Establishing Close Personal Relationships
Commitment	Courage

These competencies are not listed in any particular order, and at this stage in the field's progression it would be unwise to state that some are valid while others are not, or that some are more important than others. Future research will no doubt further refine them (and their relative valences), but for now this is the best delineation of global leadership competencies that scholars can offer.

The list of competencies raises an intriguing question: How does one acquire or develop these competencies associated with global leadership? Many senior executives believe that "an international assignment is the single most powerful experience in shaping the perspective and capabilities of effective global leaders" (Black et al., 1999, 1). Companies such as Ford, Philip Morris, GE, Gillette, and Colgate-Palmolive are beginning to pay more careful attention to the overseas experiences of their future leaders. Perhaps the most telling statement on this focus of MNCs is that of Jack Welch, CEO of General Electric: "The next CEO of GE will not be like me. I spent my entire career in the U.S." (Black et al., 1999, 1).

RELATIONSHIP OF EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT TO GLOBAL LEADERSHIP

One way to ascertain the validity of the intuition of CEOs and senior executives regarding the efficacy of international assignments for the development of global leaders is to review the competencies that are necessary to achieve success in an international assignment, and to then see if these skills overlap with global leadership competencies. If one must develop certain skills to be successful on an international assignment, and if those skills are the same as—or at least closely linked to—global leadership competencies, then there is preliminary evidence that an effective way to develop global leaders is to send them abroad.

The list of global leadership competencies has already been reviewed and reported. The following list is of the determinants of expatriate adjustment from the research literature:

Self-Efficacy	Spouse Adjustment
Resilience	Family Adjustment
Behavioral Flexibility	Social/Logistical Support
Curiosity	Culture Novelty
Extroversion	Organization Culture Novelty
Broad Category Width	Role Conflict
Flexible Attributions	Role Novelty
Open-Mindedness	Role Discretion
High Tolerance for Ambiguity	Goal Orientation
Empathy/Respect for Others	Technical Competence
Nonverbal Communication	Reinforcement Substitution
Relationship Skills	Stress Reduction Program
Willingness to Communicate	

The field of expatriate adjustment is much more developed than the field of global leadership, and the majority of scholars in this field would agree that each of the variables listed has been empirically or theoretically demonstrated to positively influence expatriate adjustment (for an overview of this literature, see Black et al., 1999; Stahl, 1998b).

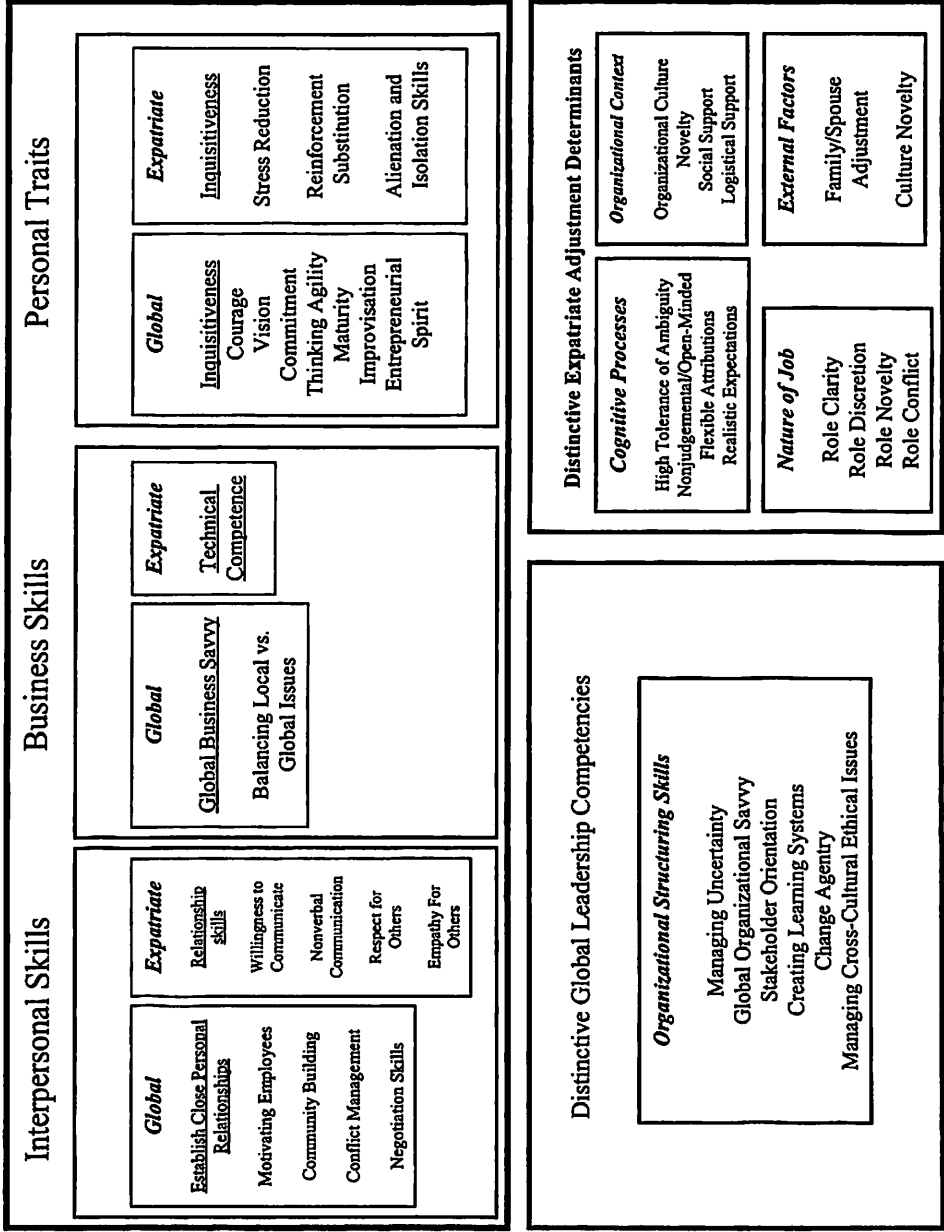
In Figure 1.1 the list of global leadership competencies and the list of determinants of expatriate adjustment are compared. In order to gain a clearer perspective of the overlap (or lack of overlap) between global leadership competencies and determinants of expatriate adjustment, I have placed each global leadership competency and each determinant of expatriate adjustment into one of eight dimensional categories: "interpersonal skills," "business skills," "personal traits," "organizational structuring skills," "cognitive processes," "nature of the job," "organizational context," and "external factors."

Figure 1.1 obviously reflects a high degree of overlap between the determinants of expatriate adjustment and the global leadership competencies for the categories of "interpersonal skills," "business skills," and "personal traits." The overlaps in these three categories are not perfect, and as yet no research exists that delineates the exact nature of these interrelationships. The strongest overlaps are indicated by underlining.

It can, of course, be argued that competencies/skills influence other competencies/skills outside of their assigned dimensional category; for example, "courage" (which resides in the "personal traits" category) quite likely has an influence upon "willingness to communicate" (which resides in the "interpersonal skills" category). Also, a competency/skill that resides in a category with no overlap (such as "managing cross-cultural ethics") may have a significant positive relationship with a competency/skill in one of the categories with internal overlap between competencies/skills (such as "respect for others").

The purpose of this chapter is not to delineate with high levels of specificity each relationship that can potentially be derived between global leadership competencies and the determinants of expatriate adjustment; rather, it is to bring into view the overall conceptual overlaps that exist in order to show that some of the skills necessary for expatriate adjustment are likely linked to particular global leadership competencies. It is likely that some of the determinants of expatriate adjustment influence the ability of an individual to effectively deploy particular global leadership competencies that may be prerequisite skills or conditions for the development of given global leadership competencies as well. Much research, both theoretical and empirical, needs to be done in the

Figure 1.1
Global Leadership Competencies and Determinants of Expatriate Adjustment Compared



future to delineate all the relationships in their specificity, but the cursory review reported in Figure 1.1 seems to indicate that such relationships likely exist and should be investigated.

Thus, it seems clear that the intuition of the senior executives was correct: International assignments are efficacious venues for the development of global leaders. That is the good news. The bad news? Research over the past two decades indicates that though their intuition is correct, executives' ability to leverage the validity of their insight has usually been flawed (Black et al., 1999).

COUNTERINTUITIVE ASSUMPTIONS

Implementing a structure that will leverage an insight is often more difficult than obtaining the insight itself. From many executives' view, if an international assignment can assist in the development of global leaders, the resultant approach should be to simply send "fast-trackers" to Tokyo, Paris, or Frankfurt for awhile so that they can "become internationalized." And this is generally what companies do. The research literature clearly shows that such fast-trackers are usually sent overseas with little or no training for their new assignments. They are expected to "sink or swim" cross-culturally (Black et al., 1999; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985).

The sink-or-swim approach makes sense to most executives because to them it does not seem to be a sink-or-swim approach. In the minds of executives, it makes perfect sense to take someone who has performed well in one place (New York) and send them to a foreign location (Tokyo) in order to gain international skills and at the same time perform well at the subsidiary. The assumption is that since the best and the brightest people are being sent overseas, they should only need a little training, and once overseas, they should be able to figure out for themselves what they need to do to in order to be successful.

This approach would be akin to the Joint Chiefs of Staff agreeing, "In order to develop our younger officers, let's just send them into battle without training and see how they do. Those that survive will be our future generals, and those that don't, won't." In this strategy, some fast-trackers will survive their battle experience due to luck, random fortuity on the field of battle, and the amount of wisdom possessed by their junior officers and troops. Conversely, other fast-trackers will suffer from unlucky decisions, random vagaries on the field of battle, and inexperienced junior officers' and troops' behavior. These and other factors will cause some high-potential officers to fail in their assignments. In the latter scenario an officer with the potential to be an excellent general

would forever be overlooked for advancement to the top echelons of the military.

International assignments are often touted by HR executives as being strategically used by their companies for global leadership development purposes (Wirth, 1992); however, most expatriates wind up providing control, coordination, technology transfer, or "fire fighting" services (all of which are important functions) without any formal development of their global leadership competencies. Executives pride themselves on their logic and acumen, but in the case of developing global leaders, the research literature resoundingly reveals a serious "blind spot" in their management of human resources. This blind spot is well summarized by Black et al. (1999), when they state, "Most U.S. firms make global assignments primarily on the basis of the needs of a given position and their inability to fill it with a host-country employee. In the day-to-day reality of the decision-makers responsible for global assignments, succession planning and managerial development are often irrelevant. Succession planning becomes replacement planning, and what is urgent drives out what is important" (pp. 9–10).

It is beyond the scope of this chapter to comprehensively review the dynamics that tend to cause poor decision making regarding international assignments. Suffice it to say that it is not simply a North American phenomenon, for research indicates that Japanese and European companies make the same types of strategic mistakes in their attempts to develop global leaders through international assignments (Black et al., 1999; Stahl, 1998b). The next important question in the discussion of global leadership development thus becomes this: How should one structure an expatriate experience to induce the development of global leadership competencies?

UNDERSTANDING THE PROCESS OF EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT/GLOBAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

The mistake that most companies make in structuring international assignments is that they do not take into account the reality of the process of expatriate adjustment. Ignorance of international issues—especially of expatriate adjustment and global leadership competencies—abounds throughout most organizations. And this is to be expected. After all, most executives have never been trained in this area of expertise, either at work or in graduate or undergraduate business schools.

Developing global competencies does not involve acquiring knowledge and adding it into one's existing worldview. Expatriate adjustment is not a linear accumulation of knowledge. To adjust to a

new culture requires learning and internalizing new worldviews—new cognitive “software systems”—that must run simultaneously with one’s own, traditional, cultural software system. Then, these separate software systems must be integrated into a new, more complex software system, one that sees more deeply into the complexities of the reality of the context in which the expatriate finds himself or herself.

In short, the expatriate adjustment process is one of human transformation. Expatriates do not return from overseas—whether successful or unsuccessful in their work assignments—the same people as they were before they left. Though they are still recognizable as being essentially the same individuals to those who knew them before their sojourn, knowingly or unknowingly, for better or for worse, they have undergone a transformation, and they return to their home country with new ways of seeing and thinking about the world around them.

This is the first understanding that executives must hold strongly in their minds: Global leadership development involves fundamentally changing people, not simply adding new nuggets of information to their current levels of thinking or into their current portfolios of managerial expertise. It involves throwing away old managerial skill portfolios and replacing them with new ones. This is not an easy process to engage in; in fact, it is in many ways one of the most challenging, exciting, painful, and frustrating experiences one can have in life. Being an expatriate requires walking into an entirely new world, which, in turn, requires one to become a new person in order to excel.

The research findings in the field of expatriation reflect the obvious: Not all people are suited for this type of journey, and not all people can handle the experience (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Individuals who often seem the most talented due to their professional skills often struggle overseas, and return home not as global leaders but to one degree or another as frustrated managers who are glad to be back on their home turf. Riding out one’s stay overseas and returning home may not constitute outright failure, but neither is it indicative of having developed global leadership competencies.

How many expatriates do not excel in developing a global mindset and global leadership competencies while overseas, but who could have done so with the proper support and training? We do not know. The fact remains that simply sending someone overseas does not ensure that they will automatically develop global leadership competencies. The following broad guidelines are offered in order to facilitate global leadership development during an international assignment.

SELECTING FUTURE GLOBAL LEADERS

The entire process of global leadership development begins with the selection of "high-potentials" or fast-trackers who senior management feel have the potential to become the future leaders of the company. Increasingly, these people are being required by their organizations to spend some time overseas in order to develop an affinity for international business operations. However, the expatriate literature reveals that past performance in a domestic setting is not a good predictor of excellent performance overseas (Black et al., 1999; Miller, 1973). The following lesson from the Bible is instructive in this regard.

When the prophet Samuel was instructed by God to select a new King of Israel, he was told to go to the house of Jesse the Bethlehemite, and was informed that from one of Jesse's sons God had prepared a new King of Israel. Samuel went, and upon interviewing Eliab, the oldest, Samuel said to himself that surely this was the man whom he should select. But before he could do so, the voice of God said to Samuel, "Look not on his countenance, or on the height of his stature; because I have refused him: for the Lord seeth not as man seeth; for man looketh on the outward appearance, but the Lord looketh on the heart." After interviewing all of Jesse's sons, Samuel could not find one that seemed right to him. He asked Jesse if these were all of his sons. Jesse then fetched his youngest son, David, from his shepherd's job, and it was then that God told Samuel, "Arise, anoint him: for this is he."

North American high-potentials are usually noticed because they have achieved something significant compared to their peers. They generally manifest a "propensity for risk-taking, a passion or commitment to seeing the organization succeed, courage to go against the grain, and a keen mind" (Spreitzer et al., 1997). They are usually hard drivers, self-motivated, assertive, and outwardly passionate and self-confident. And this is where the trouble often begins.

Research clearly shows that for the past three decades the primary criterion for sending someone overseas was based on their "track record," their actual or perceived performance (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Gertsen, 1990; Marx, 1996; Miller, 1973; Tung, 1982; Windham International & National Foreign Trade Council, 1994; Wirth, 1992). It is counterintuitive, but the types of traits, attributes, and management styles that produce an excellent track record in North America will be "out of synch" with many other business cultures around the world. The exact traits that produce outstanding results in the United States do not produce productivity in the Far East, the Middle East, Scandinavia, and many other parts of

the world. In many global contexts, the very strengths of many North American high-potentials actually become liabilities (Ruben, 1989).

Thus, in order to enhance global leadership development, executives have essentially two options: send high-potentials overseas with the understanding that they will have to learn to adjust, modify, or change the very traits and styles that have brought them success in the United States, or expand their view of who is a high-potential. Perhaps other committed and bright managers who do not stand out quite as much as the high-potentials may actually have an existing skill set that might be more amenable to being successful in global business contexts. While it is likely that either selection approach is acceptable, both approaches require senior executives to be in touch with the following truth: Technical expertise and culture-specific leadership styles are not the entire universe of criteria upon which to evaluate global leadership potential.

While it is still too early to weight the global leadership competencies in terms of their comparative importance, some scholars have suggested that the competency of inquisitiveness/curiosity is a critical one, and thus one to look for when selecting or developing global leaders. In the Black et al. (1999) model of global leadership the role of inquisitiveness is central to all of the other global leadership competencies, and is held to be the core trait that acts as a type of psychological glue to hold all the other competencies together. Morrison (in press), in summarizing the role of this competency, states that inquisitiveness

- Produces action that is associated with learning, and learning is essential for keeping global competencies fresh.
- Prompts the individual to ask the types of questions required to understand global market opportunities and organizational resources.
- Motivates one to be eager to learn about employee conditions, new cultures, and values, and to connect with people and make difficult ethical decisions.
- Accelerates learning and promotes rapid decision making in environments where data are of questionable value.
- Forces an individual to ask questions about industry conditions, competitors, customer values, and microeconomics. Familiarity with these drivers is essential in differentiating between the activities, products, and services that should be globally standardized and those activities that should be turned over to local managers to run.

Spreitzer et al. (1997) note that individuals who are likely to succeed as international executives manifest this inquisitiveness

competency and that it motivates them to learn and to enjoy the very process of learning. Such people "proactively seek formal and informal experiences to learn about themselves, the work environment, the organization, the external environment, and how these elements interact" (p. 25). Interestingly, Dalton & Wilson (1998) and Stahl (1998b) also found that inquisitiveness was one of the most important determinants of expatriate success. It is just such criteria as that of inquisitiveness that executives overlook when making selection decisions for overseas assignments. Like Samuel in the Bible, senior executives must be wise in how they evaluate their managerial cadre in order to tease out their best future global leaders before sending them on overseas assignments.

TRAINING AND DEVELOPING FUTURE GLOBAL LEADERS

Once high-potentials have been selected and sent overseas, they will need help—no matter how impressive their intellect or illustrious their past domestic performance. And even if they already rate highly on all of the dimensions of adjustment and global leadership already discussed, they will still be walking in cold to a culture they know nothing about. They will need education and guidance in order to develop new accurate and efficient cultural "software." How is this best accomplished?

Traditionally, when companies have offered cross-cultural training to their expatriates it occurs right before they leave, and is not very rigorous (Black et al., 1999; Black & Mendenhall, 1989; Mendenhall, Dunbar, & Oddou, 1987). Indeed, it cannot be rigorous because as yet the expatriate has no real-world experience in the new culture with which to reference what he or she has learned in the training program. At best, predeparture programs can have an inoculative effect; that is, they can give the expatriate enough knowledge to not make a complete fool of himself or herself upon arrival. However, in order to be successful overseas one must develop a working knowledge of the subtleties of the host culture's business and social norms, and the underlying values that sustain those norms. To accomplish this requires an entirely different philosophy of training.

Before describing what kind of training is necessary to develop global leaders, it will first be necessary to describe why traditional training by itself is ineffective in helping expatriates to learn about, and be effective in, their new, host culture.²

TRADITIONAL VERSUS REAL-TIME TRAINING

Once overseas, expatriates will inevitably experience unique cross-cultural encounters for which they were not prepared by their predeparture training. Black et al. (1999) observe that most companies prepare their expatriates with predeparture training programs that are relatively low in rigor, programmatic in format, and with content that assumes that "one size fits all." Such training cannot foresee all of the future cross-cultural encounters of expatriates, and even if trainers could see into the future they would not be able to adequately prepare the expatriates anyway. This is due to the fact that the skills necessary to deal with global situations can often only be learned while dealing with those global situations. Thus, training needs to take place in real time, while the expatriate is in the actual situation that he or she needs training for. Expatriates need immediate guidance in response to the questions and frustrations that arise from confusing cross-cultural experiences, so that they can effectively manage and learn from those experiences.

I have suggested elsewhere (Mendenhall, 1999; Mendenhall & Macomber, 1997; Mendenhall, Macomber, Gregersen, & Cutright, 1998) that in order to provide expatriates with this kind of real-time training, new approaches to training will have to be developed. One potentially useful approach is that of personal coaching. Personal coaching "essentially involves the personal counseling of managers by external consultants or advisors; in other words, the counseling in real-time of managers by experts" (Mendenhall & Stahl, in press). How would this training process work for expatriates?

Upon arrival in the host country an expatriate cohort would be assigned a coach—someone who has "expert knowledge" of the host culture's social and business norms, and who has had experience living and working in that culture. Ideally, the coach would still be living in the host culture, though long-distance coaching via telephone and e-mail could still be done. Whenever the expatriate runs into a cross-culturally "messy" situation, he or she would have immediate access to an expert who could help the expatriate understand what happened and craft a strategy to ameliorate the situation. Thus, appropriate behavior can be deployed immediately by the expatriate in order to correct a problem or deal with a potential problem. As it currently stands, most expatriates must wait for a training program or seek help from other expatriates in order to deal with problems, with the latter case often resulting in a "blind leading the blind" scenario.

Obviously, personal coaching can be fruitfully combined with traditional training programs, but without personal coaching—or some-

thing akin to it—traditional training is not able to meet all of the training and development needs of potential global leaders while they are overseas. Personal coaching is a potentially powerful method by which global leaders can become continual learners overseas rather than frustrated expatriates. It makes no sense to force expatriates to learn on their own when the knowledge they need is available from experts.

LEVERAGING GLOBAL LEADERS

After an extended overseas assignment, if successful, managers come home with many of the skills of global leadership (Oddou & Mendenhall, 1988). However, most do not find themselves in situations upon return to use these global competencies that they have worked so hard to acquire (Black et al., 1999). It is common for expatriates to return home to positions that have nothing to do with international business, and that are less challenging than the jobs they held overseas. No wonder many of these expatriates leave the firms that sent them overseas within a year or two of returning home for companies who have need of their hard-won international expertise (Black et al., 1999).

While it seems ridiculous not to leverage their global skills, repatriating expatriates is not an easy task. Only one person can be a CEO at a time, and the number of vice presidencies and other strategic positions are limited as well. A company cannot play musical chairs with its high-level positions every time an expatriate comes home. However, over time their global competencies will be needed, so the question arises: How can a firm keep a global leader satisfied in the present until he or she is ready in the future to move into a position that will require the skills learned overseas?

The first step in solving this problem is a simple one: This state of affairs must be admitted by senior management up front—both before departure and upon return. Companies alienate repatriates when they try and cover up the reality of the often haphazard nature of their succession planning. Executives should be up front with expatriates before they leave and upon return by stating that the position they have returned to is all that is available now, but that the individual will be slotted in the future into positions that will increasingly make use of their global competencies. Firms can go a long way toward retaining managers in whom they have invested a lot of money during their overseas assignments by being honest and nonmanipulative with their expatriates and repatriates.

The next step is to insert these repatriates into a company's "global cadre." Firms need to organize those of their people who have

been overseas into semiformal or formal cadres of global managers who meet from time to time in order to update their knowledge about global business issues. The cadre members can give presentations to each other on what is currently happening in their areas of expertise around the world. Experts can be brought in from outside the organization to update the skills of the cadre as well. The purpose of such an organization within the organization is to keep the global leaders involved with international issues, and to sustain the company's view of them as global assets to the company.

This cadre can also be used like a National Guard reserve unit within the company. Whenever a trouble spot erupts in the firm somewhere overseas, some of the members of this cadre can be used to either help put out the fire on a short-term project basis, or analyze the aftermath of the problem and then present reports to top management regarding how the company can better handle similar incidents in the future. Also, cadre members can be brought in as needed to assist top management with a variety of issues, such as global strategic planning, analysis of country markets, political risk analysis, and so forth.

Members of this cadre can also be integrated into the cross-cultural training process of new expatriates. They can act as trainers and mentors to those who are preparing to leave on overseas assignments. They can be assigned to help monitor current expatriates in terms of performance appraisal and support needs, and can assist in the personal coaching process discussed earlier. In addition, when short-term international business travel opportunities crop up (e.g., business negotiations, auditing, look-see visits, or appraising foreign subsidiaries), members of the global cadre should be called upon to lead the team that travels overseas. In order to maintain foreign language skills and cross-cultural business acumen, members of the global cadre can have bonuses built into their contracts if they attend seminars or other programs designed to keep their international skills honed. This would symbolize the company's perception of their value to the firm and act as a reward for possessing skills that others in the company do not possess.

There are probably a hundred different ways that companies can integrate repatriates into domestic subsidiaries upon their return to their home countries, but the key principle is to create an institutional cadre where global leaders can take pride in being a member. Repatriates who see themselves as part of an elite global cadre will be more likely to stay put in the organization that sent them overseas than to become frustrated and ultimately seek employment elsewhere.

CONCLUSION

More research needs to be conducted in order for us to understand exactly how expatriate adjustment also simultaneously aids in the development of global leadership competencies. No doubt some of the expatriate adjustment determinants influence global leadership development more powerfully than others. Despite the current lack of rigor in understanding regarding these relationships, there seems to be enough preliminary evidence to suggest that international assignments are prime avenues for the development of global leaders.

The skill set of global leaders is quite large, and when reading this list many readers may feel that a person must be a superman or superwoman in order to be a global leader. We currently do not know how many people possess these skills in totality, or if anyone does. It also may be that some of these skills are more important than others, or are subsumed within other skills. As the field delineates the terrain of this phenomenon, more clarity will develop regarding how global leadership competencies integrate with each other to produce effective leadership behaviors in a global setting.

It is also possible that certain determinants of expatriate adjustment may actually interfere with the development of some global leadership competencies. For example, high tolerance of ambiguity may sometimes influence expatriates to be too ethically situational in their decision making at times, when a better approach might be to adhere to fixed company standards. Thus, some variables of adjustment may vary in their efficacy depending on the specific cross-cultural context the expatriate encounters in the moment.

It is also possible that certain global leadership competencies may not always interact with each other in fruitful ways; for example, the ability to establish close interpersonal relationships may at times influence the manager to be biased toward a localization approach in his or her decision making instead of a balancing strategy between global headquarters and local issues. In some cases and situations the competencies may be paradoxical, and require the leader to be able to lead in a context of mutually opposite dimensions that are also simultaneously valid. We need to know more about how these competencies influence each other, and how global leaders can leverage them in the day-to-day dynamics of their work lives.

In summary, it behooves senior executives to carefully consider how international assignments are structured in order to ensure that potential global leaders are developed while overseas. To date,

the track record of companies has been poor in this regard. It is hoped that this chapter—and the others in this book—might serve to prod companies to more carefully consider how they treat their most valued human resources: potential global leaders.

NOTES

1. These competencies were derived from Adler and Bartholomew (1992); Black, Morrison, and Gregersen (1999); Brake (1997); Dalton (1998); Moran and Riesenberger (1994); Spreitzer, McCall, and Mahoney (1997); and Rhinesmith (1996). Most of the competencies listed by each of these authors overlap with each other, though they are given different labels by each author. Labels from all of the authors' writings are reflected in this list.

2. I have explained elsewhere in detail the theoretical rationale that supports the recommendations that I give in this chapter; the interested reader should consult Mendenhall (1999) and Mendenhall and Stahl (in press) for this information.