Global Leader or Cultural Outsider? The Divergent Effects of International Experiences on

Leadership Effectiveness vs. Leadership Selection

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ABSTRACT

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As globalization rises, international experiences are increasingly valued by individuals and organizations. It is commonly assumed that international experiences are conducive to leadership, yet little empirical research has tested this assumption. This omission is critical for several important reasons. First, international experiences are costly. Second, many repatriates actually report that international experiences had a *negative* impact on their leadership careers.

To understand the effects of international experiences on leadership, my dissertation theoretically distinguishes between leadership effectiveness and leadership selection. I theorize that international experiences can increase an individual's leadership effectiveness; I refer to this phenomenon as *the global leader effect*. At the same time, however, I theorize that international experiences can decrease an individual's likelihood of being selected as a leader by his/her national in-group members; I refer to this phenomenon as *the cultural outsider effect*. In other words, the same international experiences that make an individual a global leader may also render him/her a cultural outsider in the eyes of national in-group members.

Using different populations (e.g., MBA students, current employees, soccer managers) and mixed methods (e.g., field survey, archival panel, lab experiment), my dissertation explores the divergent effects of international experiences on leadership effectiveness vs. leadership selection—that is, the global leader effect vs. the cultural outsider effect.

To examine the global leader effect, I conducted four studies. Using MBA and field surveys, Studies 1 and 2 found that individuals with broader international experiences were rated as more competent communicators and more effective leaders. Study 3 established that communication competence is considered more important for leading multinational teams than for leading mono-national teams. Analyzing a 25-year archival panel of soccer managers, Study 4 not only replicated the global leader effect using an objective measure of leadership effectiveness (team performance), but also mitigated endogeneity concerns via instrumental variable analysis. Moreover, Study 4 demonstrated that the global leader effect was moderated by team national diversity: Soccer managers with broader international experiences were particularly effective when leading more (vs. less) multinational teams.

To examine the cultural outsider effect, I conducted a leader selection survey on a cohort of entering MBA students (Study 5) and a lab experiment (Study 6). Results revealed that the longer a person had lived abroad, the less likely he/she was selected as a leader by national in-group members because they perceived him/her as less similar to themselves. These studies suggest that the repatriation challenge is not simply a *personal* matter of the repatriates, but rather an *interpersonal* process that may require organization-based solutions.

By simultaneously identifying an upside of international experiences for leadership effectiveness but a downside for leadership selection, the present research offers important theoretical contributions and practical implications for leadership, culture, diversity, teams, human resources, and international management in an increasingly globalized world.

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To Adam Galinsky,

with gratitude and admiration

Chapter 1. Introduction and Research Overview

Due to the rise of globalization, individuals and organizations increasingly value international experiences, defined as experiences that physically occur outside of one's home country. As titles like *Get Ahead by Going Abroad* (Yeatman & Berdan, 2007) and *How Living Abroad Prepares You for Leadership* (Pelos, 2017) become popular, it is widely assumed that international experiences are conducive to individuals' leadership. Despite this widely-held assumption, it remains unclear whether this is indeed the case.

This omission is critical for several important reasons. First, international experiences are costly. Research has estimated that a fully loaded expatriate package costs from $300,000 to $1 million every year, "probably the single largest expenditure most companies make on any one individual except for the CEO" (Black & Gregersen, 1999, p. 53). Second, despite the costliness of international experiences, many repatriates actually report that international experiences had a negative impact on their leadership careers (Adler, 2001; Stahl, Miller, & Tung, 2002). For example, Benson and Pattie (2008, p. 1647) observed that repatriates were less likely to be promoted than their domestic peers who had not worked abroad.

Leadership Effectiveness vs. Leadership Selection

To resolve these puzzling findings and understand the effects of international experiences on leadership, my dissertation theoretically distinguishes between leadership effectiveness and leadership selection (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Whereas leadership effectiveness refers to a leader's performance in influencing and guiding others toward the achievement of common goals, leadership selection refers to whether a person is selected as a leader by others (Judge et al., 2002).

I theorize that international experiences can increase an individual's leadership effectiveness; I refer to this phenomenon as *the global leader effect*. At the same time, however, I theorize that international experiences can decrease an individual's likelihood of being selected as a leader by his/her national in-group members; I refer to this phenomenon as *the cultural outsider effect*. In other words, the same international experiences that make an individual a global leader may also ironically render him/her a cultural outsider.

International Experiences and Leadership Effectiveness

Most past studies relating international experiences to leadership have taken a macro-level, strategy perspective focusing on *firm* outcomes (Carpenter, Sanders, & Gregersen, 2001; Daily, Certo, & Dalton, 2000; Nielsen & Nielsen, 2013; Reuber & Fischer, 1997; Roth, 1995). For example, Reuber and Fischer (1997) found that firms with CEOs who had more international experiences were more likely to develop foreign strategic partners and undertake internationalization. Similarly, Roth (1995) found that CEO international experience was positively related to income growth among medium-sized firms with activities in multiple countries.

Importantly, these studies have adopted the resource-based view, which regards CEOs with international experiences as "a valuable, rare, and inimitable resource" that allows their firms to better realize "global inter- and intrafirm exchange and cooperation… and thereby improve firm performance" (Carpenter et al., 2001, pp. 496–497). In other words, these studies have centered on how *firms* may benefit from CEOs' international experiences as a strategic resource, but have not examined whether and how international experiences shape the *individual-level processes* related to leadership (cf. Dragoni, Oh, Tesluk, Moore, VanKatwyk, & Hazucha, 2014). This is a crucial void in the literature particularly because, as globalization

continues, international experiences are increasingly commonplace and thus less of a rare and inimitable resource for firms. For example, the percentage of executives with international experiences doubled between 1997 and 2005 (Hamori & Koyuncu, 2011) and the number of expatriates rose by 25% from 1998 to 2009 (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2010). Against this backdrop, it is important to move beyond the simplified view of international experiences as a strategic resource to examine how international experiences *themselves*—rather than their structural byproducts (e.g., foreign strategic partners)—affect the leadership of individuals in general (e.g., managers, employees, MBA students).

International Experiences and Leadership Selection

In contemporary organizations, it is widely believed that having international experiences is key to career advancement and leadership ascension. Jack Welch, the former chairman and CEO of General Electric, once remarked: "The Jack Welch of the future cannot be like me. I spent my entire career in the U.S. The next head of General Electric will be somebody who spent time in Bombay, in Hong Kong, in Buenos Aires. We have to send our best and brightest overseas and make sure they have the training that will allow them to be the *global leaders* who will make GE flourish in the future" (as cited in Maddux et al., 2014, p. 608). Consistent with this assertion, a study of the 100 largest publicly traded companies in Australia and Canada found that over 75% of board members believed that international experiences would be at least moderately important in CEO selection (Russell Reynolds, 2010).

Despite these widespread beliefs, the few empirical investigations into the effects of international experiences on leadership selection appear to indicate otherwise: 60% of the CEOs of the 500 largest European corporations and 76% of the CEOs of the 500 largest American corporations had *never* worked abroad; moreover, among those CEOs who had worked abroad,

the more international experiences they had amassed, the *longer* it had taken them to reach the top (Hamori & Koyuncu, 2011). In light of such counter-intuitive findings, it is important to systematically examine the effect of international experiences on leadership selection.

Research Overview

Using different populations (e.g., MBA students, current employees, soccer managers) and mixed methods (e.g., field survey, archival panel, lab experiment), my dissertation explored the divergent effects of international experiences on leadership effectiveness vs. leadership selection—that is, the global leader effect vs. the cultural outsider effect.

In Chapter 2, four studies examined the global leader effect, a mediator (communication competence), and a moderator (team national diversity). Using survey data, Study 1 found that MBA students with broader international experiences were rated as more competent communicators by their former colleagues. Study 2 involved a field survey in an Australian company. Consistent with Study 1, results revealed that employees with broader international experiences were rated as more effective leaders because of their greater communication competence. Study 3 established that communication competence is considered more important for leading multinational teams than for leading mono-national teams. Analyzing a 25-year archival panel of soccer managers, Study 4 not only replicated the global leader effect using an objective measure of leadership effectiveness (team performance), but also mitigated endogeneity concerns via instrumental variable analysis. Moreover, Study 4 demonstrated that the global leader effect was moderated by team national diversity: Soccer managers with broader international experiences were particularly effective when leading more (vs. less) multinational teams.

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In Chapter 3, two studies examined the cultural outsider effect and a mediator (perceived similarity). In these studies, I focused on a common type of leadership selection where selectors had "only limited information" about the leadership candidate (Judge et al., 2002, p. 767). In Study 5, a leader selection survey was administered to a new cohort of MBA students who had limited knowledge about one another. Results revealed that the longer a person had lived abroad, the less likely his/her national in-group members selected him/her as a leader because they perceived him/her as less similar to themselves. In Study 6, I conducted a lab experiment and randomly assigned participants to view the profile of a national in-group leadership candidate with either short or long international experiences. Conceptually replicating Study 5, participants in the *long international experience* condition were less likely to select the candidate for the leadership position because they perceived him as less similar to themselves.

Integrating the findings of Chapters 2 and 3, Chapter 4 synthesizes the divergent effects of international experiences on leadership effectiveness vs. leadership selection, and dissects the differential effects of the breadth vs. the depth of international experiences. By simultaneously identifying an upside of international experiences for leadership effectiveness but a downside for leadership selection, I contend that individuals and organizations should not only focus on the benefits of expatriation, but also beware of the challenges of repatriation. The dissertation closes by discussing its theoretical contributions and practical implications for leadership, culture, diversity, teams, human resources, and international management in an increasingly globalized world.

Chapter 2. The Global Leader Effect:

How and When International Experiences Foster Leadership Effectiveness

Leadership effectiveness, commonly defined as a leader's ability to influence and guide others toward achievement of goals (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002, p. 767), is vital to the success of individuals, groups, and organizations (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994). Importantly, as Sitkin and colleagues (2006) pointed out, leadership is "not based on position, nor is it solely a matter of hierarchical relationships—it is as much about leading one's superiors and one's peers as it is about leading one's direct reports. You can have an organization in which everyone is a leader and exhibits leadership behavior" (p. 27). Effective leaders "communicate a clear mission or sense of purpose" (Hogan et al., 1994, p. 499), motivate their followers, and ultimately improve the performance of their teams and organizations (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Given the critical importance of leadership effectiveness, this chapter explores a novel antecedent of individuals' leadership effectiveness: international experiences.

Theory and Hypotheses

To understand how and when international experiences affect leadership effectiveness, I build upon social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984) to theorize that international experiences can foster individuals' leadership effectiveness by enhancing their communication competence. To corroborate the mediating role of communication competence, I also use the "moderators as a test of theory" approach by examining the moderating role of team national diversity (MacKinnon, 2011, p. 679; Spencer, Zanna, & Fong, 2005). Specifically, I propose that because communication competence is particularly important for leading more (vs. less) multinational teams, individuals with substantial international experiences should be particularly effective when leading more (vs. less)

multinational teams. Below I unpack my theoretical model (Figure 1) step by step, beginning with the link between communication competence and leadership effectiveness.[1]

Insert Figure 1 about here

Communication Competence → Leadership Effectiveness

James Humes, the speechwriter for five U.S. presidents, once remarked: "The art of communication is the language of leadership." Building off this insight, I posit that communication competence is a critical driver of leadership effectiveness. Whereas leadership effectiveness is defined as a leader's ability to influence and guide others toward achievement of goals (Judge et al., 2002), communication competence is defined as the ability to express oneself and listen to others appropriately and effectively in a specific environment (Chen & Starosta, 1996; Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984). Research indicates that "many managers spend nearly 80 percent of their day engaged in some form of communication" (Brownell, 1990, p. 401), such as listening and talking to their subordinates, colleagues, supervisors, and other important stakeholders, articulating their visions and ideas, clarifying roles and expectations, and providing feedback (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; Hogan et al., 1994; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Indeed, many theories of effective leadership styles (e.g., charismatic leadership, transformational leadership) are based on the premise of communication competence (e.g., Menges, Kilduff, Kern, & Bruch, 2015).

International Experiences → Communication Competence

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[1] While this chapter formally examined communication competence as a key mechanism linking international experiences and leadership effectiveness, other potential mediators may also be at play (see the General Discussion section of this chapter).

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Having theoretically linked communication competence to leadership effectiveness, I next elaborate on how international experiences can enhance individuals' communication competence. According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), individuals learn and develop by interacting with their social environment: "The people with whom one regularly associates, either through preference or imposition, determine the types of competencies, attitudes…" (Bandura, 1997, pp. 92–93). Similarly, experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984; Kolb & Kolb, 2005) posits that individuals learn from processing new and diverse experiences. When individuals are immersed in their home culture, they tend to interact and communicate with people from similar cultural backgrounds who share similar attitudes and behaviors (Leung, Maddux, Galinsky, & Chiu, 2008). In contrast, when abroad, individuals have more opportunities to learn how to communicate with people from different backgrounds. As Ricks and colleagues (1990) remarked, international experiences "instill new ways of learning and responding to stimuli because of socio-cultural differences" (p. 220). A person who learns how to communicate with culturally different others is analogous to a musician who expands their repertoire by learning new music styles (Morris, Savani, Mor, & Cho, 2014).

I theorize that international experiences can develop individuals' communication competence in three inter-related ways: cognitively, meta-cognitively, and behaviorally. Cognitively, international experiences expose individuals to diverse worldviews, which can help them decode and encode information in future interpersonal communications (Reagans & McEvily, 2003). In particular, international experiences provide cultural learning, or the acquisition of language and understanding about the beliefs, customs, norms, and values of another culture (Lu, Hafenbrack, et al., 2017; Maddux et al., 2010). For example, all else being equal, a Chinese individual who works in the United States has more opportunities to obtain

proficiency in English and learn how to communicate with English speakers. Importantly, much of cultural learning is *implicit* (Savani, Morris, Fincher, Lu, & Kaufman, 2018): While certain cultural knowledge about communication can be learned explicitly from books and social media (e.g., bowing in Japan), many communication patterns (e.g., how far to stand from another person in a conversation) are implicit and contingent on a complex function of multiple cues (e.g., familiarity, relative age, status) that can resist explicit verbalization (Savani et al., 2018). Because cultural learning is a holistic process of adaptation that involves "thinking, feeling, perceiving, and behaving" (Kolb & Kolb, 2005, p. 194), being physically present in a foreign culture is important for developing communication competence.

Meta-cognitively, international experiences may lead individuals to reflect on the assumptions embedded in different cultures that underlie interpersonal interactions (Chua, Morris, & Mor, 2012). When individuals are immersed in their home culture, much of their communication is based on habits and routines. As a result, they are less likely to pay attention to the process of communication or to frame communication in different ways (Reagans & McEvily, 2003). In comparison, a foreign cultural environment is more likely to trigger meta-cognitive awareness and reflection (Adam, Obodaru, Lu, Maddux, & Galinsky, 2018; Leung et al., 2008), which can lead individuals to be more attentive to others' differential needs in interpersonal communications (Leung, Lee, & Chiu, 2013). Therefore, international experiences not only enable individuals to learn about cultural differences (i.e., cognitive), but also prompt them to examine the different assumptions and values that underlie these cultural differences (i.e., meta-cognitive).

Such cognitive and meta-cognitive changes may be accompanied by behavioral changes in interpersonal communication. When communicating with others, individuals with more

international experiences may be more likely to experiment with their communication repertoire so as to "frame their communication in a language that a contact can understand" (Reagans & McEvily, 2003, p. 248). They may also display more respect, patience, and sensitivity to others' feelings and needs (Ting-Toomey, 1999) and employ situationally appropriate words, vocal tones, body and hand gestures, and facial expressions (Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey, & Chua, 1988; Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009). Based on the above reasoning, I predict that on average, individuals with more international experiences may be higher on communication competence.

The Breadth vs. The Depth of International Experiences

Importantly, not all dimensions of international experiences are equally conducive to communication competence and thus leadership effectiveness. Here, I follow recent research to distinguish between the breadth and the depth of international experiences: Breadth refers to the number of foreign countries, whereas depth refers to the duration of time abroad (Adam et al., 2018; Cao, Galinsky, & Maddux, 2014; Godart et al., 2015; Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017).

I propose that compared to the depth of international experiences, breadth will be more conducive to developing communication competence and thus leadership effectiveness. Compared to someone who lived in only one foreign country for ten years (i.e., a deep international experience), a person who lived in three different foreign countries over those same ten years (i.e., a broad international experience) is likely to have a higher degree of exposure to *diverse* beliefs, norms, values, and communication frames (Cao et al., 2014; Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017; Ritter et al., 2012). As theorized earlier, these diversifying experiences can develop individuals to become more competent communicators in cognitive, meta-cognitive, and behavioral ways. As a board member of a large Canadian bank pointed out, "the real value to international experience is the learning experiences gained—using *different* leadership

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competencies, understanding *varying* workforce cultures, utilizing *a range of* communication skills…" (as cited in Russell Reynolds, 2010, p. 6). Overall, then, I predict that compared to the depth of international experiences, the breadth of international experiences will be a stronger predictor of communication competence and thus leadership effectiveness.

> *Hypothesis 1. Broad (more than deep) international experiences positively predict communication competence.*
>
> *Hypothesis 2. Broad (more than deep) international experiences positively predict leadership effectiveness.*
>
> *Hypothesis 3. Communication competence mediates the positive effect of broad international experiences on leadership effectiveness.*

Moderation by Team National Diversity: An Additional Test of the Communication Competence Mechanism

If broad international experiences indeed foster leadership effectiveness by increasing communication competence, it stands to reason that leaders with broad international experiences will be particularly effective in contexts where communication competence is of high importance. One such context is multinational teams, which are increasingly common due to the rise of globalization (Chiu & Kwan, 2016; Earley & Mosakowski, 2000; Homan, Buengeler, Eckhoff, van Ginkel, & Voelpel, 2015; Mortensen & Neeley, 2012).

Much research suggests that team national diversity can breed communication challenges (Galinsky et al., 2015; Milliken & Martins, 1996; Polzer, Milton, & Swann, 2002; Von Glinow, Shapiro, & Brett, 2004; Williams, & O'Reilly, 1998). Team members from different nations tend to have different beliefs, values, and communication styles (e.g., Adair, Buchan, Chen, & Liu,

2016; Sanchez-Burks et al., 2003), thus may have a particular need for leader's communication competence. Compared to other types of team diversity (e.g., racial diversity), team national diversity is particularly vulnerable to miscommunication due to language barriers and cultural differences. Relatedly, team national diversity produces salient ingroup-outgroup distinctions. According to the social identity perspective, individuals tend to use cultural similarities and dissimilarities to categorize themselves and others into in-group vs. out-group, and strive to protect and promote the positive distinctiveness of their cultural in-group (Chen, Brockner, & Katz, 1998; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). Relatedly, the "similarity-attraction" paradigm suggests that individuals are apt to like and trust in-group members more than out-group members (Byrne, 1971). Consequently, cultural cliques may emerge, creating communication problems and jeopardizing team performance (Galinsky et al., 2015). All of these theories suggest that multinational teams will face particularly severe communication challenges, and therefore will require leaders who are competent communicators.

Hypothesis 4. Communication competence is more important for leading more (vs. less) multinational teams.

Given the importance of communication competence in leading more (vs. less) multinational teams, I hypothesize that the positive effect of broad international experiences on leadership effectiveness will be stronger for more (vs. less) multinational teams. That is, while individuals with broader international experiences may be more effective leaders on average (Hypothesis 2), they may be particularly effective when leading teams that are more multinational.

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Cognitively, leaders with broader international experiences tend to be more knowledgeable about the different beliefs, customs, norms, and values of team members from different cultures (Leung et al., 2008; Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017). As the leader of the English Premier League soccer team Arsenal—a team currently of 11 nationalities—the legendary manager Arsène Wenger noted: "Being on time isn't the same for a Japanese man as it is for a Frenchman—when a Frenchman arrives five minutes late, he still thinks he is on time. In Japan, when it's five minutes before the set time he thinks he is too late…" (Cross, 2013).

Meta-cognitively, broad international experiences may shape leaders to be more *mindful* of the cultural differences among different team members and the aforementioned communication challenges faced by multinational teams. This point was echoed by the German soccer manager Jupp Heynckes, who managed teams abroad for eight years:

> "Particularly as a manager abroad, I have learned that communication, respect and sensitivity are crucial for the success of the team. With hard training and simply good preparation you cannot establish a top team. Intercultural dialogue is just as important as soccer talent... When I talk to a player, *I need to know* how his childhood was, what religion he has, if he misses his home, his culture, his family. It must be communicated over and over again to sensitively and respectfully deal with it as a team and integrate him into the team." (as cited in Maderer, Holtbrügge, & Tassilo, 2014)

Behaviorally, leaders with broader international experiences may be more adept at resolving communication challenges and facilitating teamwork in multinational teams. For example, they may repeat a strategy several times for the sake of non-native speakers on the team, insist that team members take turns to talk, or adjust their communication style to different team members. Moreover, leaders with broader international experiences may be more likely to engage in cultural brokerage, both by facilitating interactions among team members and by resolving cultural issues on behalf of other members (Jang, 2017).

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Overall, I propose that leaders with broader international experiences will be particularly effective when leading teams that are more multinational:

Hypothesis 5. Team national diversity positively moderates the relationship between the breadth of international experiences and leadership effectiveness, such that the positive effect of breadth on leadership effectiveness is stronger for more (vs. less) multinational teams.

Empirical Overview, Methodological Considerations, and Theoretical Contributions

I conducted four studies to test the different components of my theoretical model for how and when international experiences increase leadership effectiveness (Figure 1). In Study 1, a survey was administered to MBA students to investigate the link between broad international experiences and communication competence. In Study 2, I ran a field study in an Australian company to test the "how" question: whether communication competence mediates the link between broad international experiences and leadership effectiveness. To examine the "when" question, Study 3 tested whether communication competence is considered more important for leading multinational teams than for leading mono-national teams. Building off the importance of communication competence for leading multinational teams, Study 4 analyzed a 25-year archival panel of the English Premier League (EPL) to test whether soccer managers with broad international experiences were particularly effective when leading teams that were more (vs. less) multinational.

In testing my theoretical model, these studies also aimed to resolve several methodological limitations that have plagued past studies on international experiences, leadership effectiveness, and team diversity. First, since it is difficult or infeasible to randomly

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assign individuals to live abroad vs. domestically, past studies have mostly been correlational

and thus prone to endogeneity concerns of reverse causality and omitted variables biases (cf.

Godart et al., 2015). To mitigate endogeneity concerns, my EPL study used instrumental variable

analysis (Greene, 2011). Second, whereas past studies on leadership effectiveness and team

diversity were mostly conducted in the United States, my studies also featured contexts in other

countries (e.g., an Australian firm, the English Premier League). Third, prior studies on

leadership and teams have overly relied on student samples recruited just for the purpose of

research (see a review by Joshi & Lazarova, 2005, p. 288), raising concerns about

generalizability (Simons, Shoda, & Lindsay, 2017) and demand characteristics (Orne, 1962).

Relatedly, such temporary leaders and teams typically have neither a history nor a future of

collaboration, which can motivate substantively different behaviors than do real-world contexts

(Maderer et al., 2014). To address these shortcomings, my studies not only investigated real-

world settings, but also examined subjects who had interacted with one another for a meaningful

amount of time: In the first survey study, MBA subjects were rated by well-acquainted

colleagues from former jobs; in the Australian study, subjects were colleagues who had worked

together in the same firm for over three years on average; in the EPL study, soccer managers and

team players were typically contracted for at least one year and often for many years.

The current studies offer several important theoretical contributions. First, by identifying

a novel, experiential antecedent of leadership effectiveness (i.e., international experiences), I

expand the literature on leadership development (Avolio, 1999; Day, 2000). Second, whereas

past work has adopted a macro-level, resource-based view of international experiences as a

strategic resource for the firm (Carpenter et al., 2001; Daily et al., 2000; Nielsen & Nielsen,

2013; Roth, 1995), I examine the micro-level processes that underlie the link from international

experiences to leadership effectiveness: the mediating role of communication competence. Third, I examine the moderating role of team national diversity as an additional test of the link between international experiences and leadership effectiveness through communication competence. By revealing that individuals with broad international experiences are particularly effective when leading multinational teams, I also contribute to the literatures on diversity (e.g., Bell et al., 2011; Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt, & Jonsen, 2010; van Knippenberg et al., 2004), international management (Joshi & Lazarova, 2005), teams (e.g., Akinola, Page-Gould, Mehta & Lu, 2016), and leader-team fit (Homan & Greer, 2013; Joshi & Lazarova, 2005; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Finally, whereas the bulk of research on international experiences has treated it as a binary variable, I take a more nuanced approach that distinguishes between the breadth vs. the depth of international experiences (see also Godart et al., 2015; Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017).

Study 1: Broad International Experiences Predict Communication Competence

Study 1 explored the first part of my theoretical model: whether broad international experiences positively predict communication competence (Hypothesis 1). A cohort of MBA students self-reported their international experiences and were rated by well-acquainted colleagues on communication competence. Importantly, this design precludes self-report biases on communication competence, where individuals with more international experiences are simply more likely to *view* themselves as more competent communicators.

Method

Participants. Participants were 203 MBA students (34.5% female; M_{age} = 27.74 years, SD_{age} = 2.40) from a top U.S. business school. Among this nationally diverse sample, 37.9% considered the U.S. their home country.

Predictor variables: Breadth and depth of international experiences. As part of a class assignment, within the first week of their MBA program all students self-reported the number of foreign countries they had lived in (i.e., breadth; $M = 2.28$, $SD = 1.54$) and the number of months they had lived abroad (i.e., depth; converted into "years", $M = 3.71$, $SD = 5.00$; Cao et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015; Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017).

Outcome variables: Communication competence. As part of a different class assignment at a later date (within the first month of their MBA program), each student was rated by about four well-acquainted colleagues (superiors, subordinates, peers) from previous jobs on communication competence on a ten-item scale, which was presented in Table 1 (Ames, Maissen, & Brockner, 2012; 1 = "never", 7 = "always"; $\alpha = .85$). Example items included: "When making a point, X is concise, brief, and clear", "When someone else is speaking, X interrupts and/or shows impatience" (reverse-coded), "X is unable to communicate effectively in person with larger groups and audiences" (reverse-coded), "X does not produce well-written work and communications, including letters and email" (reverse-coded). Importantly, the colleagues were informed that their ratings would remain confidential and only aggregated feedback would be presented to the recipient.

Insert Table 1 about here

Control variables. Since personality traits might be related to both international experiences (Niehoff, Petersdotter, & Freund, 2017) and communication competence (Riggio, 1986), I measured Big Five personality traits as important control variables (Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003; Wei et al., 2017). Moreover, I also controlled for age, gender, and whether or

not a participant identified the U.S. as his/her home country.

Results

Regression analyses on communication competence. In support of Hypothesis 1, breadth itself positively and significantly predicted communication competence (Table 2 Model 1: $B = .05$, $SE = .02$, $p = .027$), whereas depth did not ($B = .006$, $SE = .006$, $p = .40$). The effect of breadth on communication competence remained significant when accounting for depth (Table 2 Model 2: $B = .05$, $SE = .02$, $p = .038$) and the control variables (Table 2 Model 3: $B = .05$, $SE = .02$, $p = .021$).

There was no significant quadratic relationship between (mean-centered) breadth and communication competence ($B = .006$, $SE = .009$, $p = .51$), nor between (mean-centered) depth and communication competence ($B = .0002$, $SE = .0009$, $p = .80$). The interaction term of (mean-centered) breadth and (mean-centered) depth was not significant either ($B = -.004$, $SE = .004$, $p = .28$).

Insert Table 2 about here

Discussion

As hypothesized, Study 1 provided evidence for the link between broad international experiences and communication competence: Individuals with broader international experiences were rated as more competent communicators by their colleagues. This effect remained robust after controlling for demographic characteristics and personality traits.

Study 2: Communication Competence Mediates the Effect of Broad International

Experiences on Leadership Effectiveness

Study 2 had three main objectives. First, I sought to replicate the link between broad international experiences and communication competence (Hypothesis 1) within an ongoing work setting and with another validated communication competence scale (Monge, Bachman, Dillard, & Eisenberg, 1982). Second, I examined the key link between broad international experiences and leadership effectiveness (Hypothesis 2). Third, I tested the mediating role of communication competence in explaining the link between broad international experiences and leadership effectiveness (Hypothesis 3).

Method

Participants. The field survey was conducted at an Australian company that specialized in construction and engineering. Its executive team helped us distribute the survey via email to all 133 full-time employees in two divisions (Information and Communication Technology, People and Culture). Participants were informed that all responses would remain confidential and no one from their company would be able to access individual responses. One hundred and twenty employees (49.2% female; M_{age} = 40.07 years, SD_{age} = 9.12) voluntarily participated in the survey (response rate = 90.2%); five participants started but did not finish the survey, yielding a final sample size of 115 employees.

Survey design. To preclude self-report biases, the company randomly assigned each employee to provide anonymous feedback for a well-acquainted colleague and to receive anonymous feedback from a different colleague (e.g., Employee A provided feedback for Employee B but received feedback from Employee F). Each participant provided feedback for their target colleague (e.g., on leadership effectiveness, communication competence) in the first

part of the survey, and then provided information about themselves (e.g., international experiences) in the second part.

Predictor variables: Breadth and depth of international experiences. Participants self-reported the number of foreign countries they had lived in (i.e., breadth; $M = 1.16$, $SD = 1.42$) and the number of months they had lived abroad (i.e., depth; converted into "years", $M = 4.57$ years, $SD = 7.36$).

Outcome variable: Leadership effectiveness. Each participant rated the leadership effectiveness of their target colleague by completing a six-item leadership effectiveness scale adapted from Giessner and van Knippenberg (2008). This measure has been used and validated in past studies (e.g., Brands, Menges, & Kilduff, 2015; Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015). Example items asked whether the target colleague "is a very good leader", "makes good decisions", and "helps our team, project, and/or organization to achieve success" (1 = "strongly disagree", 7 = "strongly agree"; $\alpha = .87$). The presentation order of the six items was randomized.

Mediator: Communication competence. Each participant also rated the communication competence of their target colleague by completing an eight-item communicator competence scale (Monge et al., 1982; see also Henderson, 2008; Madlock, 2008). Example items asked whether the target colleague "is a good listener", "expresses his/her ideas clearly", "is easy to talk to", and "writes in a way that is easy to understand" (1 = "strongly disagree", 7 = "strongly agree"; $\alpha = .88$). The presentation order of the eight items was randomized.

Importantly, the measures of leadership effectiveness and communication competence were counterbalanced across participants and separated by filler items. I performed a series of analyses to examine whether the leadership effectiveness measure and the communication competence measure represented two distinct constructs. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

with varimax rotation revealed that the six leadership effectiveness items and the eight communication competence items clearly loaded onto two separate factors (factor loadings shown in Table 3). Moreover, a two-factor confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) model not only fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 215.27$, $p < .001$, CFI = .94, TLI = .93, SRMR = .04), but also fit the data significantly better than a one-factor CFA model in which all 14 items indicated the same latent construct ($\chi^2 = 890.66$, $p < .001$, CFI = .67, TLI = .61, SRMR = .18; $\Delta\chi^2 = 675.39$, $p < .001$).

Insert Table 3 about here

Control variables. The company provided detailed employee data, which served as important control variables: age, gender, income brackets (in Australian dollars: 1 = "$50k ~$100k", 2 = "$100k ~$150k", 3 = "$150k ~$200k", 4 = "$200k ~$250k", 5 = "$250k+"), number of months worked with the rater (converted into "years"), number of months worked at the firm (converted into "years"), and division (1= People and Culture, 0 = Information and Communication Technology). Moreover, participants rated themselves on Big Five personality traits (Gosling et al., 2003), which could be related to both international experiences and leadership effectiveness (Judge et al., 2002; Niehoff et al., 2017; Zimmermann & Neyer, 2013).

Results

Regression analyses on leadership effectiveness. In support of Hypothesis 2, breadth itself positively and significantly predicted leadership effectiveness (Table 4 Model 1: $B = .28$, $SE = .09$, $p = .004$), whereas depth did not ($B = .01$, $SE = .02$, $p = .44$). The effect of breadth on leadership effectiveness remained significant when accounting for depth (Table 4 Model 2: $B = .34$, $SE = .11$, $p = .003$) and the control variables (Table 4 Model 3: $B = .35$, $SE = .11$, p

= .003).[2]

There was no significant quadratic relationship between (mean-centered) breadth and leadership effectiveness ($B = .01$, $SE = .05$, $p = .80$), nor between (mean-centered) depth and leadership effectiveness ($B = -.003$, $SE = .002$, $p = .11$). The interaction term of (mean-centered) breadth and (mean-centered) depth was not significant either ($B = .007$, $SE = .01$, $p = .52$).

Insert Table 4 about here

Regression analyses on communication competence. Consistent with Hypothesis 1 and the results of Study 1, breadth itself positively and significantly predicted communication competence (Table 5 Model 1: $B = .23$, $SE = .10$, $p = .017$), whereas depth did not ($B = .02$, $SE = .02$, $p = .37$). The effect of breadth on communication competence remained significant when accounting for depth (Table 5 Model 2: $B = .26$, $SE = .11$, $p = .024$) and the control variables (Table 5 Model 3: $B = .25$, $SE = .12$, $p = .044$).

There was no significant quadratic relationship between (mean-centered) breadth and communication competence ($B = .008$, $SE = .05$, $p = .89$), nor between (mean-centered) depth and communication competence ($B = -.003$, $SE = .002$, $p = .18$). The interaction term of (mean-centered) breadth and (mean-centered) depth was not significant either ($B = -.0008$, $SE = .01$, $p = .94$).

Insert Table 5 about here

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[2] Consistent with the leadership literature (Judge et al., 2002), extraversion also significantly and positively predicted leadership effectiveness (Table 4 Model 3).

Mediation by communication competence. In support of Hypothesis 3, a bootstrapping analysis with 5,000 iterations revealed that communication competence significantly mediated the effect of breadth on leadership effectiveness, as the 95% bias-corrected confidence interval for the indirect effect was [.0254, .2890], which did not include zero (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

Discussion

Replicating Study 1's finding with a different measure of communication competence within an ongoing work setting, Study 2 found that employees with broader international experiences were rated as more competent communicators by their colleagues (Hypothesis 1). Moreover, individuals with broader international experiences were rated as more effective leaders (Hypothesis 2). Finally, communication competence mediated the positive effect of broad international experiences on leadership effectiveness: Employees with broader international experiences had greater communication competence, which in turn rendered them more effective leaders in the eyes of their colleagues (Hypothesis 3).

Study 3: Communication Competence Is Particularly Important for

Leading Multinational Teams

I have theorized that communication competence is particularly important for leading multinational teams because they are particularly prone to communication challenges (Hypothesis 4). To test this hypothesis, Study 3 examined whether communication competence is indeed considered more important for leading multi-national than for leading mono-national teams.

Method

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Participants. Participants were 128 MBA students (25% female; M_{age} = 29.00 years, SD_{age} = 3.10) with extensive experience of working in both multinational teams (i.e., teams consisting of members from different countries) and mono-national teams (i.e., teams consisting of members from the same country).

Procedure. Each participant ranked the relative importance of five key leadership qualities (from 1 = "most important" to 5 = "least important") for effectively leading (1) multinational teams and (2) mono-national teams, respectively. Importantly, these two questions were counterbalanced across participants. Based on previous large-scale leadership surveys (e.g., Filipkowski & Donlon, 2014; Giles, 2016; IBM, 2010), I selected the following five key leadership qualities: analytic competence, communication competence, creativity, dedication, and integrity.

Results

In support of Hypothesis 4, a Wilcoxon signed-rank test demonstrated that leaders' communication competence was ranked as significantly more important for multinational teams (M_{rank} = 1.50, SD = .75) than for mono-national teams (M_{rank} = 2.17, SD = 1.21; Z = -4.95, p < .001). In contrast, the other four leadership qualities (i.e., analytic competence, creativity, dedication, integrity) were not ranked significantly differently for multinational vs. mono-national teams (all ps > .25).

Discussion

Study 3 provided evidence that communication competence is particularly important for effectively leading more (vs. less) multinational teams (Hypothesis 4). Thus, because leaders with broad international experiences tend to possess greater communication competence (as

shown in Studies 1 and 2), they may be particularly effective when leading more (vs. less) multinational teams (Hypothesis 5). I tested this moderation hypothesis in Study 4.

Study 4: Team National Diversity Moderates the Effect of Broad International Experiences on Leadership Effectiveness

Studies 1 and 2 provided evidence that individuals with broader international experiences are more effective leaders because of their greater communication competence (Hypotheses 1-3). Study 3 identified multinational teams as a context where communication competence is particularly important (Hypothesis 4). Building upon these findings, Study 4 examined a setting involving multinational teams—the English Premier League of soccer—to test whether team national diversity positively moderates the effect of broad international experiences on leadership effectiveness (Hypothesis 5). Based on the "moderators as a test of theory" approach (Mackinnon, 2011), I predicted that soccer managers with broad international experiences are particularly effective when leading more multinational teams (because, as Study 3 demonstrated, communication competence is particularly important for leading multinational teams).

In addition, Study 4 aimed to address two key methodological concerns. First, although Studies 1 and 2 used other-ratings of leadership effectiveness and thus precluded self-report biases, they might have suffered from biases due to raters' subjectivity. As Judge and colleagues (2002) critiqued: "Such [subjective] ratings, although they represent the predominant method of assessing leadership effectiveness, can be criticized as potentially contaminated. Because such ratings represent individuals' perceptions of leadership effectiveness rather than objectively measured performance outcomes (e.g., team performance), they may be influenced by raters' implicit leadership theories" (p. 767). Similarly, Hogan et al. (1994) suggested that leadership effectiveness should be measured "in terms of team, group, or organizational effectiveness" (p.

495). Thus, Study 4 used the performance of soccer teams in the English Premier League as an *objective* measure of leadership effectiveness.

Second, since it is difficult or infeasible to randomly assign individuals to live abroad vs. domestically, past studies on international experiences have mostly been correlational and thus prone to endogeneity problems (i.e., reverse causality, omitted variable biases). To mitigate endogeneity problems regarding the causal effect of international experiences on leadership effectiveness, Study 4 employed instrumental variable analysis (Greene, 2011), which allows us to make stronger causal inferences than in Study 2.

The English Premier League as Study Context

Established in 1992, the English Premier League (EPL) consists of 20 male soccer teams. In every season, which lasts from August to May, the teams compete for the EPL championship and avoid being one of the three bottom teams relegated to a lower league.

I chose a soccer league as the context to study the effect of international experiences on leadership effectiveness for several reasons. First, whereas past research has mostly relied on subjective measures of leadership effectiveness such as other-ratings (Judge et al., 2002), the EPL provides an *objective* measure of leadership effectiveness (i.e., team performance). Second, compared to teams that are artificially composed for the purpose of research, EPL teams have a high degree of realism, as EPL managers and players are typically contracted for at least a year and often for many years. Importantly, EPL managers are called "managers" rather than "coaches" because in addition to coaching responsibilities, they have a multitude of managerial responsibilities, including trading players and maintaining financial profits (Kelly, 2017). Like the leaders of many other businesses, EPL managers play an indispensable role in their teams' success or failure.

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I specifically chose the EPL rather than another sports league for a number of reasons. First, the EPL is one of the most multinational sports leagues in the world (Poli, Ravenel, & Besson, 2016). For example, in Season 2015-2016, foreign players accounted for over 65% of all players. Second, there is high variance in team national diversity, and as such, in the level of communication challenges. Third, there is high variance in the international work experiences of the managers, ranging from 0 month to 243 months in Season 2015-2016. Fourth, because the EPL is one of the most popular leagues in the world, detailed and reliable data are readily available for the variables of interest.

Method

Data collection. I collected panel data of all 25 seasons since the EPL's establishment in 1992. This dataset contained 142 unique soccer managers for a total of 47 unique teams. Manager demographics, team composition, and team performance data were sourced from and cross-validated on authoritative websites such as www.worldfootball.net, www.leaguemanagers.com, and www.statbunker.com (See Appendices A and B for data scraping scripts). Additionally, I procured team wage data as an important control variable from the British accounting firm Deloitte.

Predictor variables.

Breadth and depth of international work experiences. Because there were reliable data only on each soccer manager's work experiences (rather than all life experiences), I operationalized *foreign breadth* as the number of foreign countries in which a manager had worked before the start of a given season ($M = .58$, $SD = 1.14$), and *foreign depth* as the number of months a manager had worked abroad before the start of a given season (converted into

"years", $M = 1.83$ years, $SD = 4.40$).[3] As a comparison, I also measured *domestic depth*, or the number of months a manager had worked in their birth country before the start of a given season (converted into "years", $M = 9.51$ years, $SD = 7.15$). I used July as the "start" of a given season because most manager contracts start in July.

Team national diversity. To capture the *national diversity* of a team, I computed Blau's (1977) heterogeneity index: $(1 - \Sigma P_i^2)$, where P_i is the proportion of players from the ith country. A higher score on Blau's index indicates greater team national diversity ($M = .73$, $SD = .15$).

Outcome variable: Leadership effectiveness (as measured by team performance). In the EPL, a win $= 3$ points, a draw $= 1$ point, and a loss $= 0$ point. To assess objective leadership effectiveness, I tallied each team's total points in each season. Because the number of matches each team played changed from 42 matches to 38 matches after Season 1994-1995, the maximum points possible (i.e., if a team won every single match) changed from 126 to 114 accordingly.[4] To account for this difference, I divided a team's total points by the maximum points possible in a given season.[5] For example, in Season 2016-2017 during which each team played 38 matches, the champion Chelsea won 30 times, drew 3 times, and lost 5 times, so its performance score was $(30*3 + 3*1 + 5*0)/(38*3) \approx 0.82$.

Control variables. All managers in the EPL are male. Since elder managers might be more skilled and also have more coaching experiences abroad, I controlled for their age in a

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[3] By "foreign country", I mean a country that is different from a given manager's birth country. I chose birth country (instead of nationality by citizenship) because my instrumental variable of choice involved the GDP per capita of the birth country. Importantly, using nationality by citizenship (instead of birth country) produced substantively similar results.

[4] All results remained substantively unchanged when I only limited my sample to the 22 seasons after 1994-1995.

[5] All results remained substantively unchanged when I operationalized team performance as (1) the percentage of games won or (2) team rank. However, these measures are less precise.

given season (M_{age} = 49.89, SD_{age} = 7.77). In addition, I controlled for a manager's tenure at his team before the start of a given season, the number of teams managed before the start of a given season, and whether a manager was born in the U.K.[6] Since wealthier teams have more financial resources to recruit better managers and players, I also controlled for inflation-adjusted annualized wage costs of managers and players (in £10 million).

Importantly, in all regression models I also included (a) team fixed effects to control for any unobserved heterogeneity due to team-specific characteristics and (b) year fixed effects to control for any unobserved time-varying effects (e.g., trend, macroeconomic conditions).

Data Analysis

The following data analysis section consists of two parts: (1) fixed-effects OLS regression models, (2) fixed-effects instrumental variable regression models.

Fixed-effects OLS regression analyses. The unit of analysis is the team-year in my fixed-effects OLS regressions. To reduce multicollinearity, I mean-centered the key variables (i.e., foreign breadth, foreign depth, domestic depth, team national diversity). None of my models suffered from problems of multicollinearity, as all maximum variance inflation factor (VIF) values were below 10.

Insert Table 6 about here

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[6] In my analysis, I treated the four regions of the U.K. (England, Northern Ireland, Scotland, and Wales) as the same country for two reasons. First, the four regions have similar soccer cultures and feature teams from each other (e.g., Swansea City is Welsh but plays in the EPL). Second, my instrumental variable involves the GDP per capita of the birth country, but reliable data are available only for the U.K. rather than for *each* of its four regions.

Supporting Hypothesis 2 and replicating Study 2's finding, foreign breadth positively predicted the objective measure of leadership effectiveness (i.e., team performance) while accounting for all the control variables (Table 6 Model 1: $B = .016$, $SE = .005$, $p = .002$). In contrast, neither foreign depth ($B = .002$, $SE = .001$, $p = .14$) nor domestic depth ($B = -.001$, $SE = .001$, $p = .47$) was significantly predictive of team performance. Importantly, the positive effect of foreign breadth on team performance remained significant when accounting for foreign depth, domestic depth, and the control variables (Table 6 Model 2: $B = .032$, $SE = .009$, $p < .001$); on average, as a manager worked in one additional foreign country, the performance of his team increased by 0.032 unit, which is equivalent to winning an extra 3.65 points or an extra 1.22 games. In Season 2013-2014, the champion Manchester City and the runner-up Liverpool differed by merely 2 points.

Foreign breadth, foreign depth, and domestic depth had no significant quadratic effect on team performance (all ps > .10). The interaction term of (mean-centered) foreign breadth and (mean-centered) foreign depth was not significant either ($B = -.0003$, $SE = .0007$, $p = .60$).

Next, I entered team national diversity, which did not have a significant main effect on team performance (Table 6 Model 3: $B = -.008$, $SE = .06$, $p = .89$). Nevertheless, consistent with Study 3 and Hypothesis 4, team national diversity positively moderated the effect of foreign breadth on team performance (Table 6 Model 4: $B = .16$, $SE = .06$, $p = .009$), such that managers with broader international experiences were particularly effective when leading teams that were more multinational. To help interpret this significant interaction effect, I performed simple slope analyses (Aiken & West, 1991) and examined the effect of foreign breadth on team performance at three values of team national diversity (1 SD above the mean value, the mean value, and 1 SD below the mean value) when controlling for the other variables. For teams high on national

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diversity (1 *SD* above the mean value), foreign breadth positively and significantly predicted team performance ($\beta = 4.32$, $p < .001$); for teams moderate on national diversity (at the mean value), foreign breadth positively and significantly predicted team performance ($\beta = 1.93$, $p = .05$); for teams low on national diversity (1 *SD* below the mean value), foreign breadth did not significantly predict team performance ($\beta = .22$, $p = .82$). For a graphical illustration, see Figure 2.

Insert Figure 2 about here

Robustness checks. As a robustness check, I repeated each of the above analyses with cluster- and heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors (Wooldridge, 2013), which yielded similar results (Table 7). Moreover, to examine whether the observed effects were driven by outliers, I calculated Cook's distance statistics for each regression model (Godart et al., 2015). All results remained substantively unchanged when I excluded three outliers that had a Cook's distance statistics higher than the threshold (computed by $4/N$, where $N =$ the number of observations).

Insert Table 7 about here

Instrumental variable analysis. Although the results of Study 2 and the above fixed-effects OLS regressions provided consistent evidence for the link between broad international experiences and leadership effectiveness, these results are correlational and thus prone to endogeneity problems of reverse causality and omitted variables. In terms of reverse causality, one alternative explanation is that individuals who were more effective leaders to start with were

more inclined to go abroad (rather than the other way around). In terms of omitted variables, there might be unobserved variables (e.g., agreeableness) that affect both an individual's proclivity to go abroad (Niehoff et al., 2017) and leadership effectiveness (Judge et al., 2002). Such issues can be interpreted as bias associated with the error term u of the regression equation examining the effect of international experiences on leadership effectiveness (Bascle, 2008). A standard econometric strategy to resolve both reverse causality and omitted variables problems (and incidentally, measurement errors) is to conduct instrumental variable analysis (Bascle, 2008). A suitable instrumental variable must strongly predict the endogenous variable (international experiences), but cannot correlate with the error term u (Bascle, 2008; Godart et al., 2015). In Stage 1 of a two-stage instrumental variable regression, a *predicted probability* of the endogenous event (i.e., working abroad as a soccer manager) is first computed as a function of the instrumental variable plus other theoretically relevant control variables. In Stage 2, this predicted probability is added as a control variable to predict the ultimate outcome variable of interest (i.e., team performance) without the instrumental variable. Greene (2011, pp. 259–296) shows that "the inclusion of this predicted probability in Stage 2 absorbs the biases associated with reverse causality and omitted variables, effectively yielding conditions that are as good as 'random assignment' for examining the relationships between all predictor variables and the outcome variable in Stage 2 of the regression" (Godart et al., 2015, p. 205). Thus, instrumental variable regressions are sometimes described as "quasi-experimental research designs" that enable causal inferences from archival data (Angrist, Imbens, & Rubin, 1996).

GDP24 as an instrument. Following prior management studies (e.g., Godart et al., 2015), my instrument of choice was the gross domestic product (GDP) per capita of the birth country of a soccer manager at the age of 24 (henceforth "GDP24"). Its unit was constant Year

2010 U.S. dollars in quantities of $2 million (*World Bank*, 2016). I chose GDP24 for three key reasons. First, I did not use GDP per capita *at birth* because of the shortage of reliable GDP data before Year 1950 (e.g., the Norwegian manager Egil Olsen who managed Wimbledon for Season 1999-2000 was born in 1942). Second, GDP data before Year 1950 tend to be abnormal because of the Second World War. Third, because the youngest soccer managers start their career only in their twenties, the economic condition of that age range is likely to have a greater influence on their choice of working abroad vs. domestically than the economic condition at their birth age (e.g., Roy Hodgson, the former head coach of England, started working as a soccer manager at the age of 24).

GDP24 was a suitable instrument for both theoretical and empirical reasons. Theoretically, since individuals cannot choose their birth country, they are "randomly assigned" to different levels of GDP24. Therefore, the random variations in GDP24 can be considered to have an *exogenous* influence on the extent to which individuals will pursue broad international experiences. Moreover, it is unlikely for GDP24 of a manager's birth country to *directly* affect a soccer team's performance. Similarly, it is implausible for a soccer team's performance to affect its manager's birth country GDP24. Importantly, I by no means suggest that GDP24 is the *only* determinant of international experiences; instead, my instrumental variable analysis attempts to show that the *part* of international experiences that had been exogenously caused by the random factor GDP24 had a positive effect on leadership effectiveness. In other words, an individual might become a more effective manager *partly* because the (random) economic condition of his birth country led him to seek international experiences.

Empirically, GDP24 satisfied the statistical criteria of a suitable instrumental variable. First, it was significantly predictive of the breadth of a soccer manager's international

experiences (β = -2.49, p = .01). That is, managers from a country that was less wealthy tended to have broader international experiences. This result is consistent with past studies documenting that individuals from less wealthy countries are more likely to seek educational and work opportunities abroad (Agrawal, Kapur, McHale, & Oettl, 2011; *The Economist*, 2016). For example, upon completing a financially attractive two-year contract in a foreign country, a soccer manager from a less wealthy country might be more likely to seek a similarly lucrative managing position in another foreign country than to return to his home country (because of its less desirable economic conditions). Second, GDP24 was verified as a strong instrument by the weak instrument test (Staiger & Stock, 1997) of my instrumental variable regressions, as the *F* statistics were above the suggested threshold value of 10 (Murray, 2006). Third, the Wu-Hausman test for endogeneity showed that the coefficients of the OLS models significantly differed from those of the instrumental variable models (all ps < .05), suggesting that OLS estimates could be biased due to endogeneity issues and thus the instrumental variable models would indeed be preferred.

Results of instrumental variable analysis. Consistent with the results of the fixed-effects OLS regressions, fixed-effects instrumental variable regressions revealed that foreign breadth had a positive effect on team performance—whether when just controlling for team and year fixed effects (B = .046, SE = .015, p = .002; weak instrument test $F[1, 425]$ = 53.99, p < .001; Wu-Hausman test $F[1, 424]$ = 6.54, p = .011) or when further controlling for the other relevant variables (B = .102, SE = .040, p = .012; weak instrument test $F[1, 380]$ = 11.14, p < .001; Wu-Hausman test $F[1, 379]$ = 8.73, p = .003). In other words, the *part* of foreign breadth that was caused by experiencing a "random" level of GDP24 had a positive effect on a manager's leadership effectiveness (as measured by team performance).

Discussion

Using team performance as an objective measure of leadership effectiveness, Study 4 replicated the positive effect of broad international experiences on leadership effectiveness (Hypothesis 2). Moreover, instrumental variable analysis mitigated endogeneity concerns.[7] Furthermore, Study 4 revealed that managers with broader international experiences were particularly effective when leading teams that were more (vs. less) multinational (Hypothesis 5). In light of the "moderators as a test of theory" approach (MacKinnon, 2011), this moderation result provides indirect support for the importance of communication competence when leading multinational teams (Hypothesis 4).

General Discussion

Across four complementary studies using different populations (MBA students, current employees, soccer managers), mixed methods (e.g., field survey, archival panel), and both subjective and objective measures of leadership effectiveness, I examined how and when international experiences increase leadership effectiveness. Using survey data, Study 1 found that MBA students with broader international experiences were rated as more competent communicators by their former colleagues (Hypothesis 1). Using a field survey, Study 2 revealed that employees with broader international experiences were rated as more effective leaders because of their greater communication competence (Hypotheses 2 and 3). Study 3 established that communication competence is considered more important for leading multinational teams than for leading mono-national teams (Hypothesis 4). Using archival data and instrumental variable analysis, Study 4 provided evidence that soccer managers with broader international

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[7] I are careful not to draw any causal inference for the moderating effect of team national diversity, because doing so would require the identification of another valid instrumental variable (in addition to GDP24).

experiences were more effective leaders (as measured by objective team performance). Moreover, Study 4 found that leaders with broader international experiences were particularly effective when leading teams that were more (vs. less) multinational (Hypothesis 5). Overall, this research uncovered a reliable main effect of broad international experiences on leadership effectiveness while providing evidence for the proposed mechanism of communication competence through both mediation (by communication competence) and moderation (by team national diversity).

Theoretical Contributions

The current work makes a number of important theoretical contributions. First, I tested the widely-held yet under-examined assumption that international experiences increase individuals' leadership effectiveness. Whereas past research has mostly adopted a resource-based view of international experiences as a strategic resource for the firm (Carpenter et al., 2001; Daily et al., 2000; Roth, 1995), the present research advances a micro perspective for how and when international experiences can foster individuals' leadership effectiveness. In contrast to past studies on leaders' international experiences that were at the macro level and thus agnostic about individual-level mechanisms, I identified communication competence as an individual-level mechanism underlying the link between international experiences and leadership effectiveness.

Second, I extend the literature on the consequences of international experiences (Adam et al., 2018; Cao et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015; Leung et al., 2008; Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017; Maddux & Galinsky, 2009; Tadmor et al., 2012). Whereas past studies have mostly focused on *personal* outcomes such as individuals' creative performance (Godart et al., 2015; Maddux et al., 2010), humor (Lu, Martin, Usova, & Galinsky, in press), and self-concept clarity (Adam et al.,

2018), the current research illuminated the effect of international experiences on an *interpersonal* outcome (i.e., leadership effectiveness). Moreover, I advance knowledge on the differential effects of the breadth vs. the depth of international experiences (Adam et al., 2018; Cao et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015; Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017) by demonstrating that breadth but not depth positively predicted communication competence and leadership effectiveness. This finding provides evidence for my theoretical perspective that broad international experiences shape individuals by exposing them to diversifying experiences and diverse people (Ritter et al., 2012), thereby supporting social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984).

Third, by identifying a novel, experiential antecedent of leadership effectiveness (Dragoni et al., 2014), I add insights to the literature on leadership development. Given the vital importance of leadership for organizations, researchers have long sought ways to develop effective leaders (Avolio, 1999; Day, 2000; Dragoni et al., 2014). The present research points to international experiences as an alternative to traditional leadership training programs, which often yield limited or unsatisfactory outcomes (Deloitte, 2017; Seibert, Sargent, Kraimer, & Kiazad, 2017). By theorizing how international experiences can produce cognitive, meta-cognitive, and behavioral changes in individuals (Bandura, 1977; Kolb, 1984; Kolb & Kolb, 2005), this chapter lends support to the idea that leadership effectiveness can be cultivated through challenging and developmental experiences (DeRue & Wellman, 2009).

Fourth, I contribute to the literatures on teams and diversity by advancing knowledge on team national diversity—a type of team diversity that is increasingly prevalent worldwide. In my EPL study, team national diversity did not have a significant main effect on team performance. One possible explanation for this result is that team national diversity functioned like a double-

edged sword such that its benefits and costs offset each other (Galinsky et al., 2015; Stahl et al., 2010). Because multinational teams are prone to communication challenges, I predicted and found evidence that communication competence is particularly important for leading more multinational teams. Thus, I further tested the moderating effect of team national diversity, and revealed that leaders with broad international experiences were particularly effective when leading multinational teams. This finding not only augments the literatures on diversity, teams, and international management, but also underscores the importance of leader-team cultural fit (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005).

Overall, my theoretical model and empirical findings integrate and augment the literatures on culture, diversity, communication, leadership, teams, and globalization (Gelfand, Leslie, & Fehr, 2008; Hong & Cheon, 2017).

Practical Implications

Due to the unprecedented rise of globalization, individuals and organizations increasingly value and invest in international experiences. However, international experiences are expensive (Black & Gregersen, 1999). Against this backdrop, the present research lends support to organizational programs that invest in employees' international experiences—provided that employees are truly exposed to diversifying experiences abroad, and that organizations are mindful of the difficulties associated with repatriation.

The current studies consistently found that the breadth (but not the depth) of international experiences predicted communication competence and leadership effectiveness. This finding offers important insights for both organizations and individuals. When structuring international assignments, organizations should consider exposing their employees to a broad set of foreign postings (e.g., global rotation programs) compared to one lengthy foreign posting (Suutari &

Mäkelä, 2007). Similarly, individuals might consider pursuing international educational programs (e.g., global MBA) that allow them to engage with different cultures.

Just as international experiences are increasingly prevalent across the globe, so are nationally diverse teams and organizations. I provide evidence that multinational teams may perform better when led by leaders with broad international experiences, thus highlighting the importance of leader-team cultural fit. Walter Mazzarri, a well-respected Italian manager who had led domestic soccer teams (e.g., Inter Milan) for 12 years, was hired to manage a non-Italian team Watford in the EPL for the first time in July 2016. However, due to his allegedly poor communication with players from other countries (*BBC Sport*, 2017), Watford was almost relegated in Season 2016-2017 and Mazzarri was discharged at the end of the season. Thus, assigning an individual who lacks international experiences to lead a multinational team may have negative ramifications—even though this individual may well be effective in leading a domestic team.

Limitations and Future Directions

While the current work offers significant theoretical contributions and practical implications, there are several limitations that provide opportunities for future research. Below I explore other potential mediators of the link between international experiences and leadership effectiveness.

Other potential mediators. The present research revealed the mediating role of communication competence in explaining the link between international experiences and leadership effectiveness. Nevertheless, other mediators may also be at play.

For example, recent research has found that living abroad can enhance individuals' self-concept clarity (Adam et al., 2018), or "the extent to which the contents of an individual's self-

concept (e.g., perceived personal attributes) are clearly and confidently defined" (Campbell et al., 1996, p. 141). Leaders higher on self-concept clarity may be more confident in their decisions and actions (Adam et al., 2018), less vulnerable to stress (Lee-Flynn, Pomaki, DeLongis, Biesanz, & Puterman, 2011), and display more cooperative problem-solving behavior (De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005), all of which can be important for effective leadership. Thus, future research could explore self-concept clarity as a potential mediator of the link between international experiences and leadership effectiveness.

Moreover, a wealth of studies have shown that international experiences can increase individuals' creativity (Godart et al., 2015; Leung & Chiu, 2010; Leung et al., 2008; Maddux & Galinsky, 2009, Maddux et al., 2010), which is key to individual and organizational success (Lu, Akinola, Mason, 2017a; 2017b). In a survey of over 1,500 CEOs from 60 nations and 33 industries, creativity was ranked as one of the most important leadership qualities (IBM, 2010). Therefore, creativity may also function as a potential mediator that helps explain the global leader effect.

Furthermore, by exposing a person to cultural out-group members, international experiences can elevate one's generalized trust of other people (Cao et al., 2014), another interpersonal quality important for effective leadership (Chua, Ingram, & Morris, 2008). Likewise, international experiences can lower individuals' need for cognitive closure and thus reduce intergroup bias (Tadmor, Hong, et al., 2012). Therefore, higher generalized trust and lower intergroup bias may also mediate the link from international experiences to leadership effectiveness. Future research should explore these potential mediators.

Conclusion

As the world becomes increasingly globalized, it is important for scholars and practitioners to understand how international experiences shape individuals' leadership effectiveness. Integrating insights from the literatures on culture, diversity, leadership, teams, and communication studies, the present research revealed that as individuals gain broader international experiences, they communicate more competently and lead more effectively.

Chapter 3. The Cultural Outsider Effect:

How International Experiences Reduce Leadership Selection by National In-Groups

In the Indonesian capital of Jakarta, there stands a bronze statue of Barack Obama. As a child, Obama lived abroad in Indonesia for four years and learned "Indonesia's language, its customs, and its legends" (Obama, [1995] 2007, p. 36). Scholars have written extensively about how this international experience prepared Obama to be a global leader: "These years fundamentally shaped the traits for which the adult Obama is noted—his protean identity, his nuanced appreciation of multiple views of the same object, his cosmopolitan breadth of view…" (Sharma, 2011). However, Obama has also been called "a thug from Indonesia" (Ogbolu, 2016) and his national identity has been questioned in books like *Where's the Birth Certificate? The Case That Barack Obama Is Not Eligible to Be President* (Corsi, 2011).

Together, these narratives suggest that although Obama's international experiences may have developed him to become an effective global leader, these same experiences may have also rendered him a cultural outsider in the eyes of some Americans. Thus, this chapter explores whether there exists a downside of international experiences for leadership selection.

Theory and Hypotheses

Building on the importance of perceived similarity in leadership selection, I theorize that if a person has substantial international experiences, his/her national in-group members will be less likely to select him/her as a leader (*the cultural outsider effect*) because they are less likely to perceive him/her as similar. Importantly, I focus on situations where national in-group members have limited knowledge about the leadership candidate and thus tend to rely on his/her international experiences as a proxy of cultural (dis)similarity when selecting a leader. Below I

unpack the model step by step, beginning with the link from perceived similarity to leadership selection.

Insert Figure 3 about here

Perceived Similarity → Leadership Selection

Leadership selection is an interpersonal process (Hogg, 2007). Research indicates that whether people select a person as their leader will largely depend on whether they perceive this person as similar to themselves. Perceived similarity is central to interpersonal processes in everyday life. In *Rhetoric and Nichomachean Ethics*, Aristotle (1934) wrote that people "love those who are like themselves" (p. 1371). Numerous psychological and sociological theories suggest that people tend to favor individuals who are similar to themselves. First, the self-esteem hypothesis posits that we have the fundamental need for self-esteem, and thus regard similar others as a positive extension of ourselves (Rubin & Hewstone, 1998). Second, the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) proposes that we are drawn to others who are similar to us because similarity can provide "consensual validation" of our own values (Byrne, Clore, & Worchel, 1966, p. 223). As Higgins (2000) noted, when one's own subjective preferences and values are verified by similar others, "one acts as if they have the status of objective truth. Anything different, then, is evaluated negatively" (p. 22). Third, the uncertainty reduction hypothesis posits that we have the epistemic need to reduce subjective uncertainty (Hogg, 2000; Hogg & Mullin, 1999). Theories of shared reality indicate that when we share commonalities with another person, we will experience less uncertainty about ourselves (Echterhoff, Higgins, & Levine, 2009; Hardin & Higgins, 1996). Thus, we tend to favor others who are similar to us

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because we presume that their attitudes and behaviors are more predictable to us in a given situation, and that they are more likely to share our interests (Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Because of these interrelated reasons, the homophily principle—similarity breeds connection—governs social tie selection, including marriage, friendship, work, advice, and support (see McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001, for a review).

Consistent with these theoretical perspectives, past studies have suggested that perceived similarity positively predicts the likelihood that an individual will be selected as a leader. For example, Westphal and Zajac (1995) found that when selecting new board members, CEOs and incumbent board members were more likely to select individuals who were similar to themselves in terms of functional background, age, and education level. Likewise, Rivera (2012) found that employers were more likely to hire candidates who were similar to themselves in terms of extracurricular/leisure pursuits and self-presentation styles. Across a nationwide sample of U.S. law firms, Gorman (2006) found that the proportion of female partners within a firm was positively associated with the promotion of women to partners. As this wide range of studies demonstrate, perceived similarity plays a critical role in leadership selection processes.

Cultural similarity as a critical type of similarity. Culture can be defined as "knowledge traditions, networks of shared meaning (beliefs and values) that are produced, distributed, and reproduced among a collection of interconnected individuals" (Hong & Cheon, 2017, p. 811). Cultural similarity refers to the extent to which two individuals share similar cultural backgrounds. It provides bases for cohesion and inclusion (McPherson et al., 2001), such that individuals who are culturally similar are more likely to be socially connected (Blau, Blum, & Schwartz, 1982; Kandel, 1978). In social interactions, cultural similarity provides a common

script which reduces uncertainty and anxiety (Gao & Gudykunst, 1990). In contrast, cultural dissimilarity may be interpreted as an anxiety-inducing threat to one's cultural system (Sussman, 2000). When people detect cultural dissimilarity in a supposedly national in-group member, they experience anxiety and uncertainty in sense-making (Hardin & Higgins, 1996). Without much knowledge about this person, they may be uncertain about how to appropriately interact with him/her, let alone selecting him/her as a leader.

Because individuals' cultural backgrounds are informative of their fundamental values (Hofstede, 2003; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004), cultural similarity may be especially consequential relative to other types of similarity. In fact, research suggests that cultural similarities (including facets such as mother tongue, national origins, and birth region) tend to produce stronger ingroup-outgroup divides than age, religion, education, occupation, and gender (McPherson et al., 2001, p. 415; Blau, Blum & Schwartz, 1982). Although little empirical research has examined the link from cultural similarity to leadership selection, cultural similarity is likely an important type of similarity that influences whether a person will be selected as a leader.

International Experiences → Lower Perceived Similarity by National In-Group Members

Having theoretically linked perceived similarity to leadership selection, I next explore how international experiences can lower an individual's perceived similarity in the eyes of national in-group members. I theorize that when people may have limited knowledge about a national in-group member, they tend to perceive this individual as less similar if he/she has substantial international experiences, for two key reasons. First, international experiences can shape individuals to become objectively dissimilar from national in-group members. Second,

international experiences themselves can functional as a signal of cultural dissimilarity for national in-group members.

International experiences shape individuals to become objectively dissimilar from national in-group. As reviewed in Chapter 2, international experiences can alter individuals in significant ways (see also Maertz, Takeuchi, & Chen, 2016). For example, international experiences have been shown to increase creativity (Godart et al., 2015; Leung et al., 2008; Maddux & Galinsky, 2009) and unethical behavior (Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017), both of which involve deviating from the status quo and established norms (Gino & Ariely, 2012; Gino & Wiltermuth, 2014; Lu, Brockner, Vardi, & Weitz, 2017; Lu, Zhang, Rucker, & Galinsky, 2018). By exposing individuals to dissimilar assumptions, beliefs, values, and norms, international experiences may shape them to become dissimilar from other national in-group members. Importantly, research suggests that people are highly sensitive to (dis)similarity, "as it is the basis of perception and evaluation of the self and other group members" (Hogg, 2001, p. 189), and people can discern even subtle differences in clothing style, accent, vocabulary, behavioral patterns, and so forth (Hogg, 2001; Rakić, Steffens, & Mummendey, 2011).

International experiences as a subjective signal of cultural dissimilarity. Relatedly, I propose that international experiences themselves can *signal* cultural dissimilarity—regardless of whether the individual has actually become dissimilar from other national in-group members. Historical experiences such as expatriation and immigration are important for appraising a person's identity (Alderfer & Smith, 1982). For example, if a German has been living abroad for ten years since she was 15 years old, other Germans may suspect that she is no longer a "true" German who shares their culture—even if she speaks perfect German and possesses a deep knowledge of German history and society. In other words, even if this foreign experience has not

shaped her to become significantly dissimilar from other national in-group members who have never gone abroad, they may still perceive him/her as a dissimilar cultural outsider based on the mere fact that she has lived abroad.

These objective and subjective reasons shed light on why international experiences can decrease a person's perceived similarity by national in-group members, as illustrated in the following anecdote at an MBA networking event:

Student X: Hello, my name is X. Nice to meet you!
Student Y: Hi, my name is Y. Where are you from?
Student X: I'm from China.
Student Y: Oh awesome, I'm also from China!
Student X: But your [English] accent doesn't sound like you're from China…
Student Y: Yeah… I actually lived in Australia for 12 years…
Student X: I see… (sounding suspicious)

Integrating the theoretical insights above, I propose that if a person has substantial international experiences, his/her national in-group members are less likely to perceive him/her as similar, and thus less likely to select him/her as a leader. This proposition is consistent with the repatriation literature, which suggests that re-entry into the home culture is sometimes more challenging than entry into a foreign culture ("reverse culture shock", Adler, 1981; Bovenkerk, 1981; Wang, 2015). In an exploratory study on two hundred Canadian returnees, Adler (1981, p. 351) found that returnees "who had had the least international experiences and the least contact with foreign people" were evaluated most favorably by their colleagues; in contrast, those "who were not born in the home country, spoke more than one language, had foreign friends, or had previously lived or worked overseas" were evaluated least favorably. This study provides suggestive evidence that international experiences may have a negative effect on leadership selection by national in-group members.

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Breadth vs. Depth of International Experiences

In Chapter 2, I hypothesized and found that the breadth of international experiences (the number of foreign countries) was a more important predictor of leadership *effectiveness* than the depth of international experiences (the duration of time abroad). This hypothesis was based on the notion that broad international experiences provide more diversifying experiences than deep international experiences (Cao et al., 2014; Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017).

In contrast, this chapter hypothesizes that depth is a more important predictor of in-group leadership selection than breadth. Regarding objective dissimilarity, the longer individuals are abroad, the more incentives and opportunities they have to adapt themselves to the local culture and the more dissimilar they may become from their home culture (Maddux & Galinsky, 2009; Tadmor, Galinsky, Maddux, 2012). For example, someone who was born and grew up in the same country would likely be dissimilar from someone who was born in the same country but grew up in another country. Studies have found that the longer a person lives in a foreign country, the more he/she identified with this country (Mok, Morris, Benet-Martínez, & Karakitapoğlu-Aygün, 2007). Regarding subjective dissimilarity, compared to the number of countries experienced, a person's national in-group members are more likely to use duration abroad as a signal of how similar this person is to a typical in-group member. If a person was abroad for only a month touring ten countries (i.e., low depth and high breadth), other national in-group members would be less likely to perceive this person as a cultural outsider.

Overall, I predict that compared to the breadth of international experiences, the depth of international experiences will be a stronger predictor of (reduced) perceived similarity and (reduced) leadership selection by national in-group members.

Hypothesis 6. Deep (more than broad) international experiences negatively predict

perceived similarity by national in-group members.

Hypothesis 7. Deep (more than broad) international experiences negatively predict

leadership selection by national in-group members.

Hypothesis 8. Perceived similarity mediates the negative effect of deep international

experiences on leadership selection by national in-group members.

Study 5: Leader Selection Survey

To test these three hypotheses, I first conducted a leader selection survey on a nationally

diverse cohort of MBA students at the end of their first week in the program. Specifically, I

tested whether an individual with deep international experiences would be less likely to be

selected as a leader by national in-group members because they would perceive him/her as less

similar.

Method

Participants. A cohort of 550 first-year students (37.1% female; $M_{age} = 27.71$, $SD_{age} =$

2.33) from an international MBA program participated in the current study as part of a

mandatory survey. The students were in eight "clusters" (each about 70 students) that had similar

demographic composition in terms of age, gender, race, national diversity, occupational

background, and years of work experience. This nationally diverse sample represented 53

different countries. Because the current study focused on leadership selection by national in-

group members, I excluded any country that had only one student in a given cluster.

Study context. This setting is particularly suitable to test the cultural outsider effect for

three reasons. First, it featured a high level of intercultural contact such that national identity

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would likely be salient (Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994). Second, at the time of the leader selection survey, participants had known each other for only a few days, as they had just completed their first-week orientation of the MBA program. Therefore, this setting dovetailed with my focus on leadership selection situations where people "have only limited information about that individual's performance" (Judge et al., 2002, p. 767). Third, five days after the leader selection survey, each cluster held an actual leadership selection in which cluster officers were elected (e.g., cluster chair, social representatives, academic representatives). Thus, the survey likely captured a high level of external validity.

Predictor variables: Breadth and depth of international experiences. Participants reported the depth (i.e., the number of months they had lived abroad; converted into "years", $M = 3.27$, $SD = 5.02$) and the breadth (i.e., the number of foreign countries they had lived in; $M = 1.89$, $SD = 3.89$) of their international experiences (Adam et al., 2018; Cao et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015; Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017).

Outcome variables: Leadership selection. Each student was asked to select one to five leaders from their cluster's name list (along with photos). For each student, I summed the number of national in-group cluster mates who selected him/her as a leader ($M = 1.77$, $SD = 4.72$). The categorization of "in-group" was based on a participant's response to the question "Please select the country that you consider 'home' and identify the most with."

Mediator: Perceived similarity. Each student also responded to the question "Who in your cluster do you see as being most similar to you?" by selecting one to five students from their cluster. For each student, I summed the number of national in-group students who selected him/her as being most similar ($M = 1.93$, $SD = 2.00$).

Control variables. First, because certain countries had more students in the MBA program (e.g., the U.S.), I controlled for the number of national in-group members in the cluster for each student. Second, I controlled for age and gender, which have been shown to predict an individual's likelihood of being selected as a leader (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 1991; Elgar, 2016; Spisak, 2012). Third, because personality traits are important predictors of leadership selection (for a meta-analysis, see Judge et al., 2002), I also controlled for each participant's self-rated Big Five personality traits (Gosling et al., 2003).

Results

    Regression analyses on leadership selection by national in-group. Because in-group leadership selection is a count variable whose variance exceeded its mean, I conducted negative binomial regressions instead of Poisson regressions; importantly, both analytical strategies yielded similar results. In support of Hypothesis 6, the depth of international experiences negatively predicted in-group leadership selection (Table 8 Model 1: $B = -.12$, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$). In contrast, the breadth of international experiences was not a significant predictor of in-group leadership selection ($B = -.03$, $SE = .03$, $p = .39$). The effect of depth on in-group leadership selection remained significant when controlling for breadth (Table 8 Model 2: $B = -.12$, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$) and when further controlling for the control variables (Table 8 Model 3: $B = -.06$, $SE = .03$, $p = .03$).[8] The interaction between (mean-centered) depth and (mean-centered) breadth was not significant in the full model ($B = .01$, $SE = .01$, $p = .27$).

Insert Table 8 about here

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[8] Consistent with the leadership literature (Judge et al., 2002), extraversion also significantly and positively predicted leadership selection (Table 8 Model 4).

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Regression analyses on perceived similarity by national in-group. In support of Hypothesis 7, the depth of international experiences negatively predicted in-group perceived similarity (Table 9 Model 1: $B = -.10$, $SE = .01$, $p < .001$). In contrast, the breadth of international experiences was not a significant predictor of in-group perceived similarity ($B = -.03$, $SE = .02$, $p = .10$). The effect of depth on in-group perceived similarity remained significant when controlling for breadth (Table 9 Model 2: $B = -.10$, $SE = .01$, $p < .001$) and when further controlling for the control variables (Table 9 Model 3: $B = -.04$, $SE = .01$, $p < .001$). The interaction between (mean-centered) depth and (mean-centered) breadth was not significant in the full model ($B = -.005$, $SE = .005$, $p = .30$).

Insert Table 9 about here

Mediation by perceived similarity. As shown in Table 8 Model 4, when I entered in-group perceived similarity and depth simultaneously into a negative binomial regression predicting in-group leadership selection (with breadth and the full set of control variables), in-group perceived similarity emerged as a significant predictor ($B = .20$, $SE = .05$, $p < .001$), while the direct effect of depth was reduced to be marginally significant ($B = -.05$, $SE = .03$, $p = .08$). In further support of Hypothesis 8, a bootstrapping analysis with 5,000 iterations substantiated the mediating effect of in-group perceived similarity.

As shown in Table 9 Model 4, I also tested an alternative mediation model, in which I entered in-group leadership selection and depth simultaneously into a negative binomial regression predicting in-group perceived similarity (with breadth and the full set of control variables). In this model, in-group leadership selection emerged as a significant predictor (B

= .02, *SE* = .006, *p* < .001) but the direct effect of depth was *also* significant (*B* = −.04, *SE* = .01, *p* = .001).

Together, these results lent support to the hypothesized mediation path "depth → (reduced) in-group perceived similarity → (reduced) in-group leadership selection".

Discussion

The results of Study 5 supported my theoretical model underlying the cultural outsider effect: On average, the longer a person P had lived abroad, the less likely P's national in-group members perceived P as similar to themselves and thus the less likely they selected P as their leader. In contrast to the depth of international experiences, breadth did not significantly predict in-group perceived similarity or in-group leadership selection.

Study 6: Leader Candidate Profile Experiment

To provide causal evidence for my theoretical model (Figure 3), I next conducted a lab experiment. To conceptually replicate Study 5, I tested whether an individual with deep international experiences would be less likely to be selected as a leader by national in-group members because they would perceive him/her as less similar (Hypotheses 6~8).

Method

Participants. 165 students at a U.S. university participated in the experiment for a compensation of $5. Six participants were excluded because they failed one or both of the attention check questions (see below), leaving a total of 159 for the purpose of data analysis (68.6% female; M_{age} = 22.02, SD_{age} = 4.05). This nationally diverse sample represented 11 different countries.

Experimental design. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two experimental conditions: short vs. long international experience condition.

Procedure. At the beginning of the study, all participants indicated their age, gender, birth country, and the country that they considered "home". I included the two questions about birth country and home country for two reasons. First, the answer to these two questions was sourced to be the nationality of the fictitious leadership candidate. To preclude potential confounds, I programmed the study such that only participants who selected the same answer for birth country and home country were qualified to proceed. Second, these two questions were used to cognitively activate each participant's own cultural identity (Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martínez, 2000).

Participants were told that they were part of a decision-making committee to carefully evaluate a candidate for a leadership position. They were then presented with the candidate's profile (see Figure 4), which listed the candidate's nationality, age, gender, education, annual income, and international experiences. In both conditions, the leadership candidate was a 27-year old man with a master's degree and an income of $79,000. In addition, this candidate was *always* a national in-group member, as his nationality was programmed to match the nationality of each participant. This minimalistic design mirrored situations where national in-group members have limited knowledge about the leadership candidate (Judge et al., 2002).

Insert Figure 4 about here

Experimental manipulation. The only difference between the two conditions was the length of the candidate's international experiences. In the *short international experience* condition the candidate had lived abroad for 6 months, whereas in the *long international experience* condition the candidate had lived abroad for 6 years.

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Leadership selection and perceived similarity. Upon reading the candidate's profile, participants rated how likely they would select him for the leadership position (1 = *very unlikely*, 7 = *very likely*) and to what extent they viewed the candidate as similar to themselves (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very much*).

Attention check and debriefing. Thereafter, participants responded to two attention check questions ("Which country was the candidate from?" "How long did the candidate live abroad?"). Finally, participants were debriefed and thanked for their participation.

Results

Leadership selection. Supporting Hypothesis 6 and replicating Study 5, participants in the *long international experience* condition (M = 4.38, SD = 1.27) were significantly less likely to select the candidate for the leadership position than participants in the *short international experience* condition (M = 4.85, SD = 1.20; t[157] = -2.39, p = .018, d = -.38, 95% CI for the mean difference = [-.85, -.08]).

Perceived similarity. Supporting Hypothesis 7 and replicating Study 5, participants in the *long international experience* condition (M = 3.90, SD = 1.62) viewed the candidate as significantly less similar to themselves than participants in the *short international experience* condition (M = 4.80, SD = 1.36; t[157] = -3.83, p < .001, d = -.60, 95% CI for the mean difference = [-1.37, -.44]).

Mediation by perceived similarity. Supporting Hypothesis 8 and replicating Study 5, a bootstrapping analysis with 5,000 iterations revealed that perceived similarity mediated the effect of the experimental manipulation (*long* vs. *short international experience*) on leadership selection (bias-corrected 95% CI = [−.2495, −.0549]).

Discussion

Consistent with Study 5, Study 6 provided experimental evidence for the cultural outsider effect: When people have limited knowledge about a national in-group member, they are less likely to perceive him as similar and select him as a leader if this person has deep experiences abroad.

General Discussion

Both a leader selection survey (Study 5) and a leader candidate profile experiment (Study 6) provided support for my theoretical model of the cultural outsider effect (Figure 3): When people have limited knowledge about a national in-group member, the longer this person has lived abroad, the less likely they will perceive him/her as similar, and consequently the less likely they will select him/her as a leader.

Theoretical Contributions

This chapter makes several theoretical contributions. First, while most research on international experiences has centered on its upsides (e.g., Adam et al., 2018; Cao et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015; Maddux & Galinsky, 2009; Tadmor et al., 2012), the present research uncovered a downside by revealing the negative effect of international experiences on leadership selection by national in-group members. It thus presents a more balanced view of international experiences (see also Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017). Second, the current studies contribute to the growing literature on the differential effects of the breadth vs. the depth of international experiences (Cao et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015; Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017): Depth—but not breadth—negatively predicted perceived similarity and leadership selection by national in-group members.

Third, while past work has examined demographic variables such as age (Elgar, 2016; Spisak, 2012) and gender (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 1991) as predictors of leadership selection, I

identified international experiences as a novel, experiential predictor of leader selection. Fourth

and relatedly, by revealing the mediating role of perceived similarity, this research adds to

research on the importance of perceived similarity in interpersonal processes (e.g., Byrne, 1971;

Echterhoff, Higgins, & Levine, 2009; Hardin & Higgins, 1996; Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg &

Hogg, 2003; Turner, Brown, & Tajfel, 1979). Fifth, it contributes to the repatriation literature by

illuminating why re-entry can be a challenging process: The longer an expatriate has been

abroad, the more likely her national in-group members will perceive her as a dissimilar cultural

outsider.

Practical Implications

This chapter offers important practical implications for individuals and organizations.

Because of globalization, organizations increasingly encourage individuals to go abroad, but

often pay little attention to the repatriation process and assume that repatriates will shine upon

their return (*The Economist*, 2015). Against this backdrop, this chapter provides insight into why

many repatriates report that their international experiences had a negative impact on their

leadership careers (Adler, 2001; Stahl, Miller, & Tung, 2002). The studies suggest that the

repatriation challenge is not simply a *personal* matter of the repatriates, but rather an

interpersonal process that may require organization-based solutions. Therefore, even if the

repatriates themselves have exerted effort to re-adjust to the home culture, they may still be

perceived as dissimilar cultural outsiders by national in-group members. In light of the current

findings, organizations should take initiatives to ensure that repatriates are perceived as "one of

us". For example, PricewaterhouseCoopers organizes cocktail parties to welcome their

repatriates, and assigns mentors to help them re-assimilate into the home culture (*The Economist*,

2015).

Limitations and Future Directions

As the starting point to document the influence of international experiences on leadership selection by national in-group members, this chapter has several limitations that offer avenues for future research.

Other potential mediators. Studies 5 and 6 provided evidence for the mediating role of perceived similarity in the cultural outsider effect. Nevertheless, it is likely that other mediators are also at play. For example, perceived loyalty may also play an important role in the cultural outsider effect. It is possible that individuals with deep international experiences are perceived as less loyal by their national in-group members. Indeed, Bovenkerk (1981) found that Surinamese returnees who received professional training in the Netherlands struggled with xenophobic attitudes upon re-entry, partly because the natives perceived them as turncoats.

Social comparison processes may also help explain the observed effects. Individuals who are unable to go abroad may be prone to envy (i.e., pain at another's good fortune), and thus opt to not select repatriates as leaders (Tai, Narayan, & McAllister, 2012). Moreover, domestic individuals may worry that once selected as leaders, repatriates will favor subordinates and peers who also have international experiences (Byrne, 1971; Hogg, 2001).

Another potential mediating mechanism is network loss. When individuals are abroad for a long time, they may lose important social ties back home (e.g., Reiche, Kraimer, & Harzing, 2011). As a result, they may have fewer allies and supporters to elect them as leaders upon return (i.e., out of sight, out of mind). To overcome this potential challenge, expatriates should try to maintain a high level of embeddedness at home (Wang, 2015). Future research should test these potential mediators simultaneously.

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Cursory vs. extensive knowledge of leadership candidates. The phenomenon explored in this chapter has important real-life implications because oftentimes leaders are selected with only limited information about them (e.g., MBA students who have to elect class officers after interacting with one another for a week; new teams without pre-assigned leaders). Under those circumstances, just as height—information irrelevant to actual leadership effectiveness—can significantly predict leadership selection, the depth of international experiences may also significantly predict leadership selection.

Nevertheless, it is important to note that oftentimes leaders are selected after careful evaluation. For example, before a board of directors appoint a new CEO, they will likely gather abundant information about each candidate, and may in fact favor candidates with substantial international experiences in an era of globalization (Daily, Certo, & Dalton, 2000). Future research should explore the role of international experiences in situations where national in-group members already have extensive knowledge about the returnee in question.

Conclusion

The current chapter investigated how international experiences may reduce leadership selection by national in-group members, a phenomenon I termed the cultural outsider effect. The results shed light on the puzzling finding that international experiences often hurt an expatriate's path to leadership, and offer practical solutions to this thorny problem. As Ernest Hemingway (1926) wrote, "You're an expatriate. You've lost touch with the soil…"

Chapter 4. Integrating the Divergent Effects of International Experiences on

Leadership Effectiveness vs. Leadership Selection

The previous two chapters examined the global leader effect and the cultural outsider effect, respectively. In this final chapter, I integrate these divergent effects of international experiences on leadership effectiveness vs. leadership selection, and discuss how my dissertation contributes to the literatures on leadership, culture, diversity, teams, human resources, and international management.

Contributions to the Literature on International Experiences

An Upside and a Downside of International Experiences

Chapter 2 revealed that broad international experiences can increase leadership effectiveness by increasing communication competence. Moreover, leaders with broad international experiences are particularly effective in contexts where communication competence is critical, such as multinational teams. Meanwhile, Chapter 3 revealed that deep international experiences can decrease perceived similarity and thus leadership selection by national in-group members. In other words, although international experiences can develop an individual to become a global leader, they may also ironically render him/her a cultural outsider. By simultaneously unveiling an upside of international experiences for leadership effectiveness but a downside for leadership selection, my dissertation presents a more balanced view of international experiences (see also Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017).

Breadth vs. Depth of International Experiences

The current findings highlight the differential effects of the breadth vs. the depth of international experiences: Breadth is more important for leadership *effectiveness*, whereas depth is more important for leadership *selection* by national in-group members. Integrating the

burgeoning body of research on the differential effects of breadth vs. depth, I theorize that breadth matters more for outcomes that are shaped by the *diversity* of experiences, whereas depth matters more for *identity-related changes* that occur over extended periods of time.

On the one hand, the breadth of international experiences is conducive to moral relativism (Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017), generalized trust (Cao et al., 2014), communication competence, and leadership effectiveness (Chapter 2) because it exposes individuals to diverse beliefs, norms, and values. For example, broad international experiences can increase moral relativism because sampling diverse moral norms in different cultures can reinforce the meta-ethical belief that morality is relative rather than absolute (Lu, Quoidbach, et al., 2017). Similarly, broad international experiences can increase generalized trust because interacting with diverse people from different countries can strengthen the general belief in the benevolence of human nature (Cao et al., 2014). Likewise, broad international experiences can increase communication competence and leadership effectiveness by allowing individuals to "practice" dealing with diverse people from different countries.

On the other hand, the depth of international experiences is conducive to identity-related changes such as self-concept clarity (Adam et al., 2018), identification with host country (Mok et al., 2007), and perceived similarity by national in-group members (Chapter 3). For example, deep international experiences can lead to a clearer understanding of the self, because sufficient time is required to "trigger reflections on personal values, assumptions, and behaviors that would otherwise be taken for granted" and consolidate these reflections into the self (Adam et al., 2018, p. 18). Moreover, studies have found that time spent in a foreign country positively predicts identification with this country (Mok et al., 2007). In Chapter 3, depth was more important than breadth for leadership *selection* by national in-group members because the duration abroad is a

stronger identity indicator of how dissimilar an expatriate is. Overall, deep international experiences tend to affect identification with the host culture, self-concept clarity, and national in-group members' perceived similarity because each of these constructs concerns one's identity.

Contributions to the Literature on Leadership

Leadership Effectiveness

Chapter 2 contributes to research on leadership effectiveness in several important ways. To start, it provided evidence for the widely-held yet under-examined assumption that leadership effectiveness can be fostered by international experiences. Moreover, I identified communication competence as a mechanism underlying the link between international experiences and leadership effectiveness. By identifying a novel, experiential antecedent of leadership effectiveness (Dragoni et al., 2014), these studies augment the literature on leadership development. Although scholars and practitioners have attempted to identify ways to develop effective leaders (Avolio, 1999; Day, 2000), results often show limited or unsatisfactory outcomes (Seibert et al., 2017). The present research points to international experiences as an alternative to traditional leadership training programs, suggesting that leadership effectiveness can be cultivated through challenging and developmental experiences (DeRue & Wellman, 2009).

Leadership Selection

Past work has examined various predictors of leadership selection such as height (Blaker et al., 2013; Stulp, Buunk, Verhulst, & Pollet, 2013), age (Elgar, 2016; Spisak, 2012), gender (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 1991), and race (Rosette, Leonardelli, & Phillips, 2008). Extending this line of work, I examined international experiences as a novel, experiential predictor of leadership selection. Although there is a strong belief that international experience is an essential criterion

in leadership selection (Russell Reynolds, 2010), this research suggests that deep international experiences may backfire in actual leadership selection when there is limited information about the leadership candidate.

Leadership Selection vs. Leadership Effectiveness

Past studies have identified factors that increase *both* leadership effectiveness and leadership selection. For example, research has revealed that extraverted individuals are not only more likely to be selected as leaders, but also more likely to perform effectively once selected as leaders (for a meta-analysis, see Judge et al., 2002). In addition, past studies have also identified factors that increase leadership selection but not leadership effectiveness, such as gender (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Eagly & Karau, 1991) and narcissism (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Grijalva, Harms, Newman, Gaddis, & Fraley, 2015; Watts et al., 2013). For example, narcissism has a positive effect on a person's likelihood of being selected as a leader, but has no effect or a negative effect on leadership effectiveness (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Grijalva et al., 2015; Watts et al., 2013). This research contributes to the leadership literature by identifying international experiences as a novel factor that increases leadership effectiveness but decreases leadership selection under certain circumstances. These findings are important in today's business world, as organizations consistently report the shortage of leadership talent as a critical management problem.

Contributions to the Literatures on Diversity and Teams

The current research contributes to the literatures on diversity and teams by advancing knowledge on team national diversity. Although multinational teams are increasingly common due to the rise of globalization, surprisingly few quantitative studies have examined the effects of team *national diversity* on team performance. As pointed out by Haas and Nuësch (2012):

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"Although numerous empirical studies exist that analyze *racial* diversity… the aspect of *national* diversity is, despite its practical importance, comparably understudied" (p. 3105). In fact, so little attention has been paid to team national diversity that Bell and colleagues (2011) could not include this construct in their meta-analysis of team diversity and team performance (p. 736).

My EPL study expands the literature on team national diversity by analyzing one of the most multinational sports leagues in the world. The non-significant main effect of team national diversity on team performance suggests that team national diversity may function like a double-edged sword (Galinsky et al., 2015). Importantly, this study also revealed that managers with broad international experiences were particularly effective when leading multinational teams, thus underscoring the importance of *leader-team cultural fit* as a form of leader-team fit (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005).

Contributions to the Literatures on Human Resources and International Management

My dissertation contributes to the literatures on human resources and international management by shedding light on the puzzles raised at the beginning of this dissertation. On the one hand, Chapter 2 suggests that individuals and organizations are warranted to place a high premium on international experiences. The current studies consistently found that the breadth (but not the depth) of international experiences positively predicted communication competence and leadership effectiveness. Therefore, when structuring international assignments, organizations should consider exposing their employees to a broad set of foreign postings (e.g., global rotation programs) rather than one lengthy foreign posting (Suutari & Mäkelä, 2007). On the other hand, Chapter 3 helps explain why many repatriates report that international experiences had a negative impact on their leadership careers (Adler, 2001; Stahl, Miller, &

Tung, 2002) and why international experiences appear to decelerate the leadership ascension of many CEOs (Hamori & Koyuncu, 2011).

Because of globalization, organizations increasingly encourage individuals to go abroad, but often pay little attention to the repatriation process and assume that repatriates will thrive upon their return (*The Economist*, 2015). It would be an ironic waste of human resources if individuals better equipped to lead ended up not being selected as leaders. Hence, individuals and organizations should not only focus on the benefits of expatriation, but also carefully manage the challenges of repatriation.

Limitations and Next Steps

One limitation of the current research is that the global leader effect and the cultural outsider effect were not studied in the same context. Thus, it remains unclear whether the same international experiences can *simultaneously* increase leadership effectiveness and decrease leadership selection by national in-group members.

A related limitation (and a key challenge for studies on international experiences) is the issue of causality, since it is difficult or infeasible to randomly assign individuals to go abroad vs. stay at home. Although the instrumental variable analysis in the EPL study (Study 4) and the experimental design in the leadership candidate profile study (Study 6) attempted to strengthen causality, a field experiment would be more informative and conclusive. For example, when an expatriation opportunity arises, an organization could enter interested employees into a lottery and randomly assign half of them to work abroad and the other half to work domestically. This research design would control for self-selection. The organization could then follow the two groups over time, and examine who get selected as leaders and how effective they are once selected as leaders.

Conclusion

Due to the rise of globalization, international experiences are increasingly ubiquitous. Against this backdrop, my dissertation identifies both an upside and a downside of international experiences for leadership. Using different populations (e.g., MBA students, current employees, soccer managers) and mixed methods (e.g., field survey, archival panel, lab experiment), I found that international experiences can increase an individual's leadership effectiveness (*the global leader effect*) by fostering communication competence, but decrease an individual's likelihood of being selected as a leader by his/her national in-group members (*the cultural outsider effect*) by reducing his/her perceived similarity. In other words, the same international experiences that make an individual an effective global leader may also render him/her a cultural outsider in the eyes of national in-group members. These findings offer important theoretical contributions and practical implications for leadership, culture, diversity, teams, human resources, and international management in an increasingly globalized world.

TABLE 1
Study 1: Ten-Item Communication Competence Scale

1. When someone else is speaking, X interrupts and/or shows impatience. (reverse-coded)
2. As a listener, X gets others to open up, elaborate, and share information.
3. X listens effectively to criticism and alternative points of view.
4. When someone else is speaking, X tends to drift off, appearing distracted or inattentive. (reverse-coded)
5. After listening, X builds on what he/she has heard, incorporating it into the conversation.
6. When making a point, X is concise, brief, and clear.
7. X is able to use vivid images and compelling logic and facts to support an argument.
8. X is unable to communicate effectively in person with larger groups and audiences. (reverse-coded)
9. When communicating with others, X is honest, open, and candid.
10. X does not produce well-written work and communications, including letters and emails. (reverse-coded)

Note. 1 = "never", 7 = "always".

TABLE 2
Study 1: Linear Regressions Predicting Communication Competence

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Foreign breadth	.05* (.02)	.05* (.02)	.05* (.02)
Foreign depth (years)		.002 (.007)	.007 (.007)
Age			-.02 (.01)
Gender (1 = male, 0 = female)			.05 (.07)
U.S. home (1 = yes, 0 = no)			-.07 (.07)
Openness to experience			.06† (.03)
Conscientiousness			.06† (.03)
Extraversion			-.04† (.02)
Agreeableness			.06* (.03)
Emotional stability			.01 (.02)
R^2	.02	.03	.11
Overall F	4.98*	2.55†	2.23*

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are displayed, with standard errors in parentheses.
$^\dagger p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

TABLE 3
Study 2: Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation

	Factor 1 (Communication Competence)	Factor 2 (Leadership Effectiveness)
X is a very good leader.	.260	**.889**
X is very effective.	.337	**.895**
X helps our team, project, and/or organization to achieve success.	.388	**.853**
X makes good decisions.	.362	**.883**
X teaches people how to improve.	.212	**.923**
X encourages others to collaborate.	.331	**.874**
X is a good listener.	**.920**	.275
X pays attention to what other people say to her/him.	**.893**	.326
X can deal with others effectively.	**.884**	.351
X is sensitive to others' needs of the moment.	**.851**	.326
X is easy to talk to.	**.887**	.314
X is easy to understand when s/he speaks.	**.909**	.249
X writes in a way that is easy to understand.	**.838**	.321
X expresses his/her ideas clearly.	**.903**	.303

Note. Rotation converged in 3 iterations. The leadership effectiveness scale consisted of the top six items. The communication competence scale consisted of the bottom eight items.

TABLE 4
Study 2: Linear Regressions Predicting Leadership Effectiveness

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Foreign breadth	.28** (.09)	.34** (.11)	.35** (.11)
Foreign depth (years)		-.02 (.02)	-.02 (.02)
Openness to experience			.05 (.16)
Conscientiousness			.12 (.16)
Extraversion			.19* (.09)
Agreeableness			-.03 (.14)
Emotional stability			-.05 (.16)
Age			.005 (.02)
Gender (1 = male, 0 = female)			-.11 (.31)
Income bracket			-.09 (.14)
Years worked together with rater			.08 (.06)
Years worked at firm			.00 (.03)
Division (1 = PC, 0 = ICT)			.44 (.30)
R^2	.08	.09	.22
Overall F	8.86**	4.92**	1.90*

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are displayed, with standard errors in parentheses.
$^\dagger p < .10$. $* p < .05$. $** p < .01$. $*** p < .001$.
PC = People and Culture, ICT = Information and Communication Technology

TABLE 5
Study 2: Linear Regressions Predicting Communication Competence

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Foreign breadth	.23* (.10)	.26* (.12)	.25* (.12)
Foreign depth (years)		-.01 (.02)	-.003 (.02)
Openness to experience			.06 (.17)
Conscientiousness			.24 (.18)
Extraversion			.003 (.10)
Agreeableness			-.08 (.15)
Emotional stability			-.15 (.17)
Age			-.002 (.02)
Gender (1 = male, 0 = female)			-.38 (.34)
Income bracket			-.05 (.15)
Years worked together with rater			-.01 (.06)
Years worked at firm			.05† (.03)
Division (1 = PC, 0 = ICT)			.32 (.32)
R^2	.06	.06	.12
Overall F	5.92*	3.06†	.92

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are displayed, with standard errors in parentheses.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
PC = People and Culture, ICT = Information and Communication Technology

TABLE 6
Study 4: Fixed-Effects Linear Regressions Predicting Team Performance

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Foreign breadth	.016**	(.005)	.032***	(.009)	.032***	(.009)	.018†	(.010)
Foreign depth (years)			-.005	(.003)	-.005	(.003)	-.007*	(.003)
Domestic depth (years)			-.001	(.002)	-.001	(.002)	-.000	(.002)
Team national diversity					-.008	(.061)	.045	(.064)
Foreign breadth × Team national diversity							.164**	(.062)
Wages (10 million £)	.011***	(.002)	.012***	(.002)	.012***	(.002)	.012***	(.002)
Manager age	-.003***	(.001)	-.003*	(.001)	-.003*	(.001)	-.003*	(.001)
Born in U.K. (1= yes, 0= no)	-.043*	(.016)	-.041**	(.016)	-.041**	(.016)	-.045**	(.016)
Tenure at team	.006***	(.002)	.007***	(.002)	.007***	(.002)	.007***	(.002)
Number of teams managed	.012***	(.003)	.012**	(.004)	.012**	(.004)	.011**	(.004)
Team Fixed Effects	Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes	
Year Fixed Effects	Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes	
R^2	.66		.67		.67		.67	
Adjusted R^2	.60		.60		.60		.61	

Note. Unstandardized OLS regression coefficients are displayed, with standard errors in parentheses. Team national diversity, foreign breadth, foreign depth, and domestic depth were mean-centered in all regression models.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

TABLE 7
Study 4: Fixed-Effects Linear Regressions Predicting Team Performance
(with Cluster- and Heteroscedasticity-Robust Standard Errors)

Variable	Model 1 B	Model 1 SE	Model 2 B	Model 2 SE	Model 3 B	Model 3 SE	Model 4 B	Model 4 SE
Foreign breadth	.016***	(.004)	.032**	(.012)	.032*	(.012)	.018	(.014)
Foreign depth (years)			-.005	(.004)	-.005	(.004)	-.007†	(.004)
Domestic depth (years)			-.001	(.002)	-.001	(.002)	-.000	(.002)
Team national diversity					-.008	(.087)	.045	(.089)
Foreign breadth × Team national diversity							.164*	(.078)
Wages (10 million £)	.011*	(.004)	.012**	(.004)	.012**	(.004)	.012**	(.004)
Manager age	-.003**	(.001)	-.003	(.002)	-.003	(.002)	-.003†	(.002)
Born in U.K. (1= yes, 0= no)	-.043†	(.021)	-.041†	(.022)	-.041†	(.022)	-.045*	(.022)
Tenure at team	.006*	(.003)	.007**	(.002)	.007**	(.002)	.007**	(.002)
Number of teams managed	.012**	(.004)	.012†	(.006)	.012†	(.006)	.011†	(.006)
Team Fixed Effects	Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes	
Year Fixed Effects	Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes	
R^2	.66		.67		.67		.67	
Adjusted R^2	.60		.60		.60		.61	

Note. Unstandardized OLS regression coefficients are displayed, with cluster- and heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors in parentheses. Team national diversity, foreign breadth, foreign depth, and domestic depth were mean-centered in all regression models.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

TABLE 8
Study 5: Negative Binomial Regression Analyses on In-Group Leadership Selection

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Depth (years)	-.12*** (.03)	-.12*** (.03)	-.06* (.03)	-.05† (.03)
Breadth		-.004 (.03)	-.02 (.03)	-.01 (.03)
In-group perceived similarity				.20*** (.05)
Number of national in-group members			.07*** (.007)	.06*** (.007)
Age			.02 (.05)	.05 (.04)
Gender (1 = male, 0 = female)			.17 (.22)	.19 (.21)
Openness to experience			.01 (.09)	.004 (.09)
Conscientiousness			-.07 (.09)	-.11 (.09)
Extraversion			.37*** (.07)	.37*** (.07)
Agreeableness			-.10 (.09)	-.04 (.09)
Emotional stability			-.13 (.08)	-.17* (.08)
AIC	1563.3	1565.3	1437.3	1425.6
-2 Log likelihood	-1557.3	-1557.3	-1413.3	-1399.6

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are displayed, with standard errors in parentheses.
† $p < 0.10$. * $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

TABLE 9
Study 5: Negative Binomial Regression Analyses on In-Group Perceived Similarity

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Depth (years)	-.10*** (.01)	-.10*** (.01)	-.04*** (.01)	-.04** (.01)
Breadth		-.006 (.01)	-.003 (.01)	-.003 (.01)
In-group leadership selection				.02*** (.006)
Number of national in-group members			.04*** (.003)	.04*** (.003)
Age			-.02 (.02)	-.02 (.02)
Gender (1 = male, 0 = female)			.05 (.08)	.05 (.08)
Openness to experience			-.04 (.03)	-.04 (.03)
Conscientiousness			.06† (.04)	.07† (.04)
Extraversion			.03 (.02)	.02 (.02)
Agreeableness			-.01 (.03)	-.008 (.03)
Emotional stability			-.03 (.03)	-.02 (.03)
AIC	1983.0	1984.8	1732.9	1724.5
-2 Log likelihood	-1977.0	-1976.8	-1708.9	-1698.5

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are displayed, with standard errors in parentheses.
$^\dagger p < 0.10$. * $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

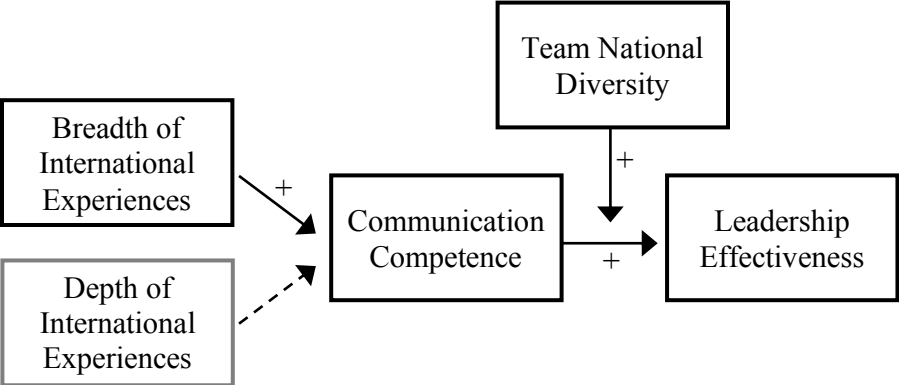**FIGURE 1. Theoretical Model for the Global Leader Effect.**

FIGURE 2. Study 4: Team national diversity positively moderated the effects of broad international experiences on leadership effectiveness (as measured by team performance).
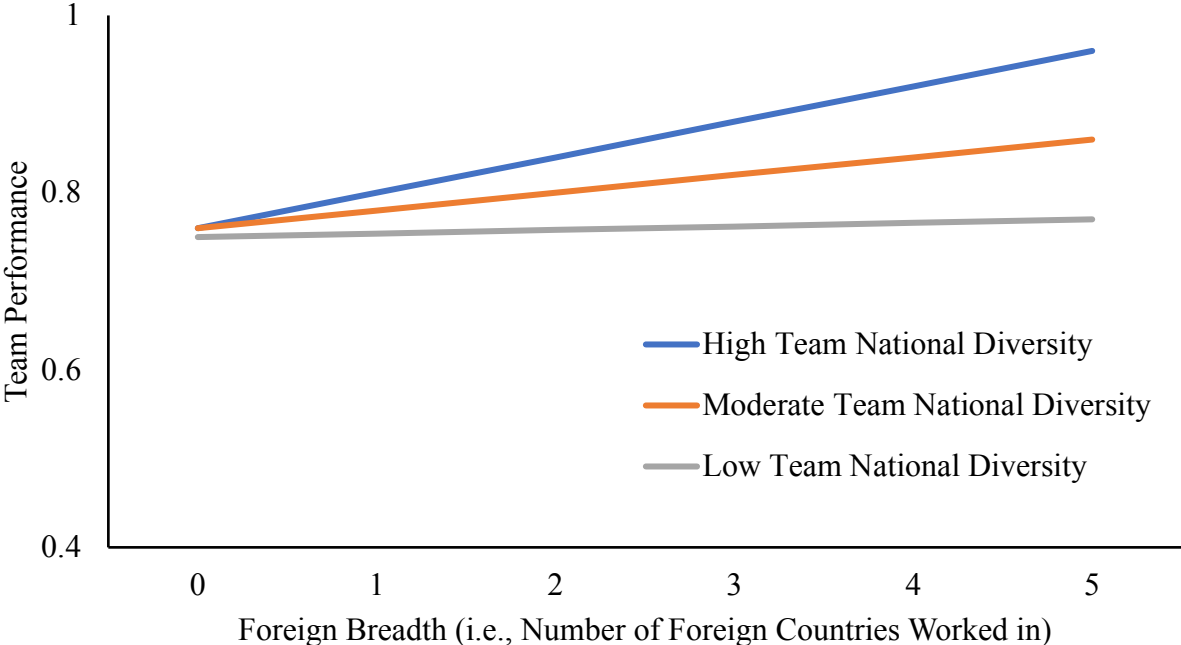
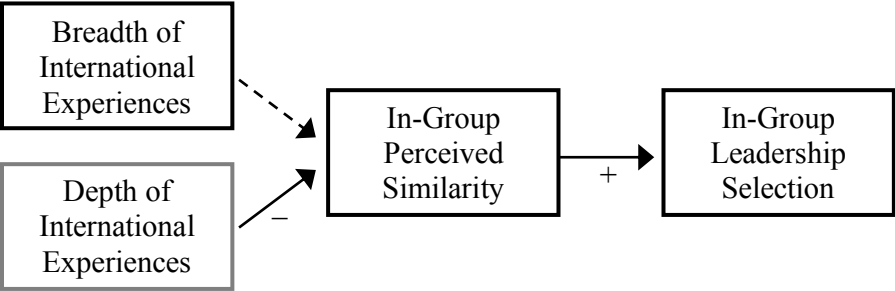**FIGURE 3. Theoretical Model for the Cultural Outsider Effect.**

FIGURE 4. The Profile of the Leadership Candidate (Study 6)

Nationality	[Programmed to be the same as the participant's nationality]
Age	27
Gender	Male
Education	Master of Science
Annual Income	$79,000
Experiences	Lived abroad for **6 months** OR **6 years**

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APPENDIX A. Data Scraping Script (Linux Bash) for Manager Work Experiences

```
#!/bin/bash -x

for i in `cat CoachURLclean`; do
curl -s "http://www.worldfootball.net/player_summary/${i}/" | tr -d '\r' | tr -d '\n' | sed -e 's/<h2/\
<h2/g' | grep '^<h2>Teams managed' | sed -e 's/<tr/\
<tr/g' | strings | sed -e 's/  / /g' | xargs echo -n | sed -e 's/<tr/\
<tr/g' | grep '^<tr' | grep -v 'tr class=dunkel' | sed -e 's/^[^%]*%> \([^<]*\) <.*align=absmiddle
title=\([^\/]*\) \/><.*flaggen_neu\/\([0-9]*\.gif\) width.*align=absmiddle title=\([^\/]*\)
\/.*$/\"\1\",\"\2\",\"\4\"/' > ./COACHCSVS/$i.csv

done
```

APPENDIX B. Data Scraping Script (Linux Bash) for Team National Diversity

```bash
#!/bin/bash -x

for i in `cat teaminfo`; do
    echo working on $i ...
    TEAMNAME=$(echo $i | cut -f 1 -d,)
    URL=$(echo $i | cut -f 2 -d,)
    curl "https://www.statbunker.com/competitions/ClubNationalities?${URL}" | grep '^<tr' | sed -e 's/<tr/\
<tr/g'  | sed -e 's/.*[0-9]\">\([^<]*\)<\/td><td>\([0-9]*\)<\/td>.*/\1,\2/g' |
tee ./${TEAMNAME}.out

done
```