Leading global teams☆

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ABSTRACT

Global teams that are characterized by national, cultural and linguistic heterogeneity and operate in a globally dispersed virtual environment are becoming an established form of organizing work in multinational organizations. As global team leadership research is rather limited, we review the literature on leading multicultural and virtual teams in a global context, focusing on leadership competencies, styles, strategies and modes. We also examine the emergent concepts of biculturalism, global mindset and cultural intelligence with respect to team leaders. Our aim is to add to our knowledge of leading global teams, highlight recent trends and suggest directions for future research. Three themes for global team leadership emerged: leaders as boundary spanners, bridge makers and blenders; people-oriented leadership; and leveraging diversity. We discuss implications for research and practice.

1. Introduction

As organizations become more diverse and ever new forms of organizing emerge, working in global teams is fast becoming the rule rather than the exception. Multinational teams of all shapes and sizes have been called the 'heart' of globalization (Snow, Snell, Canney Davision, & Hambrick, 1996) and are routinely used to cope with our increasingly competitive, complex and culturally diverse 21st century world (DiStefano & Maznevski, 2000; Ravlin, Thomas, & Ilsev, 2000). In the midst of technological advances of the last decade, global virtual teams, defined as nationally, geographically, and culturally diverse groups that communicate almost exclusively through electronic media (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999), rose to the fore of organizational innovations (Townsend, DeMarie, & Hendrickson, 1998). Team members work across temporal and spatial boundaries, most often in the absence of face-to-face interaction, to coordinate their activities toward the attainment of common goals from different locations around the globe. Global virtual teams and collocated teams came to be viewed as end poles on a continuum with most global teams ending up somewhere in between based on their degree of face-to-face interaction

(Kirkman, Rosen, Tesluk, & Gibson, 2004). Yet, it seems that these new organizational forms are surfacing more quickly than scholars are able to study them; research on global and virtual team leadership, in particular, is lagging behind (Malhotra, Majchrzak, & Rosen, 2007; Zigurs, 2002). It is our overall objective to increase the knowledge about leading global teams.

Global teams, as defined by Maloney and Zellmer-Bruhn (2006), differ from other teams on the following two characteristics: (1) a globally dispersed work environment, and (2) heterogeneity on multiple dimensions. We have chosen to focus specifically on national cultural heterogeneity, a salient characteristic of global teams, as nationality has been found to override other demographic and tenure-based categorizations in such teams (Butler, 2006; Earley & Mosakowski, 2000) and with respect to leadership (Zander & Romani, 2004). Our knowledge about leading global teams is still limited (Davis & Bryant, 2003; Joshi & Lazarova, 2005), but since teams are multicultural in composition and virtual in action they stand at the crossroads of two literature streams – multicultural team research and virtual team research (Steers, Sanchez-Runde, & Nardon, 2010).

There is growing attention devoted to studying virtual teams, and although progress has been made with respect to comparing collocated and virtual teams, the literature does not to any large extent distinguish between single and multi-country types of virtual teams. Much of the work is still conceptual or purely practitioner oriented. There is a limited number of empirical studies on leading virtual teams in general (Malhotra et al., 2007; Zigurs, 2002), and fewer still that are cross-cultural (Davis & Bryant, 2003; Joshi & Lazarova, 2005). With regard to research on

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multicultural teams, we find that the accumulation of knowledge on the processes and outcomes of multicultural teams is prolific (Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt, & Jonsen, 2010). The literature about leading multicultural teams is less extensive (Zander & Butler, 2010), but it is expanding as is our knowledge about leading virtual teams. We will demonstrate this when we discuss leadership competences, styles, strategies and modes as well as recent cultural research about the team leader such as biculturalism, global mindsets and cultural intelligence.

In this article, we aim to identify key emerging themes and directions in which global team leadership is heading and provide some suggestions for future research. Our review of the trends will center on the issues that have emerged in recent years. We will first turn to the literature on virtual teams for an understanding of leading in a virtual context, then to the literature on multicultural teams for an insight into multicultural team leadership and finally to recent culture research to add to our knowledge of global team leaders. In contrast to the more common practice of examining leadership from only the leaders' perspective, it is our ambition to incorporate both team leaders' and members' perspectives for a more holistic and complex picture of global team leadership. Our review results in three themes for global team leadership: global leaders as boundary spanners, bridge makers and blenders; people-oriented leadership in global teams; and leveraging global team diversity. We thus ground our ideas for a future research agenda on leading global teams in emerging cutting-edge work before concluding with some reflections and managerial implications.

2. Leading virtual teams

The virtual context has enabled teams to complete tasks more efficiently and quickly than ever before, and access the best resources and people in locations around the globe. Not surprisingly, these positive aspects are coupled with challenges. Given the virtual context that global virtual teams (GVTs) work in, members' different cultural backgrounds, the interface of technology, and the fact that members are often not in synch because of different time zones, the role of leading virtual teams is riddled with complexity. Because GVT members often cannot see their leader, one might get the sense that virtual team leaders need to have special knowledge or qualities or display certain types of behaviors to be effective.

In their recent review, Jonsen, Maznevski, and Canney Davison (in press) highlight some of the leader challenges and virtual team aspects that have received attention in the general GVT literature. These are rather straightforward leader actions, such as maintaining communication, establishing relationships and managing conflict. In fact, much of the literature on GVTs highlights the importance of communication and trust (e.g., Aubert & Kelsey, 2003; Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999; Krebs, Hobman, & Bordia, 2006; Zigurs, 2002). But this is not as simple as it sounds, because GVT members often rely on team leaders to provide direction and inspiration from a distance. GVT leaders must possess excellent asynchronous communication skills, and must be especially effective in synchronous and face-to-face communication since there are often limited opportunities for such interaction (Davis & Bryant, 2003). GVT leaders should also be technologically savvy and possess an ability to match the technology to the specific requirements of the team and its tasks (e.g., rich versus lean communication media); they must be engaging, culturally sensitive and approachable, by communicating frequently with all members (Davis & Bryant, 2003; Jonsen et al., in press; Zigurs, 2002). Although there is much literature about the challenges of working in GVTs there is very little empirical research on actually leading GVTs (Joshi & Lazarova, 2005; Jonsen et al., in press;

Malhotra et al., 2007). In the following sections we highlight some of the literature that has aimed to address this gap with respect to leader competencies and styles seen as important for GVT performance.

2.1. Leader competencies

In GVTs "distance amplifies dysfunction" (Davis & Bryant, 2003, p. 310). To overcome the added challenges associated with distance and to prevent dysfunction, GVT leaders must possess certain competencies. Joshi and Lazarova (2005) sought answers to the question of what competencies are identified as important for leaders in multinational virtual teams. In their study of multicultural teams in a single corporation from around the globe, they compared the competencies identified by team members and leaders, as well as those considered important by team members who were collocated with and distant from their team leader. The following competencies were identified as important by a large percentage of team leaders and team members: direction and goal setting, communication, facilitating teamwork and motivating and inspiring. However, team leaders and team members differed in their views about other competencies. For example, managing cultural diversity was mentioned as important by 65% of team leaders, but only 5% of members. Empowering was mentioned only by team leaders, and mentoring and coaching and resource acquisition – only by team members.

Boundary spanning was more important for team members than leaders. Slight differences were found across countries. For example, boundary spanning was mentioned only by Anglo country respondents (from the U.S.A. and UK/Ireland). There were generally few respondents from countries other than the U.S.A., and statistical tests were not conducted to ascertain any meaningful cross-national differences. Davis and Bryant (2003) conducted interviews with 68 global virtual team members and leaders (all managers in MNEs located in Asia and Europe) and identified several competencies that leaders of GVTs must possess including that GVT leaders must engage in boundary spanning activities.

In their study of multicultural GVTs from Europe, Mexico and the U.S.A., Kayworth and Leidner (2001–2002) found that effective GVT leaders act as mentors, are communicative and are able to manage multiple leadership roles. They are also empathetic, and possess both a task-focus and relational skills (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Kayworth & Leidner, 2001–2002). And, they must be able to instill a sense of community or personal connection in the team to develop trust. Knowing when to switch between a task and relationship orientation is an important skill in achieving this goal. It thus appears that there are clear ideas about the competencies needed of global virtual team leaders, due to the specific contextual factors that determine these competencies. Yet, interestingly, research has also found differences in the views of GVT members and leaders regarding the qualities that are important for leading teams to success. One quality that stands out is the leader as boundary spanner, a still emergent topic in the literature.

2.2. Leadership styles

A number of studies have examined the effectiveness of transformational leadership in teams. In a single country study Carte, Chidambaram, and Becker (2006) found no differences between high and low performing teams regarding transformational leadership behaviors. Joshi, Lazarova, and Liao (2009) however found the opposite for multicultural geographically dispersed virtual teams. In highly geographically dispersed teams, a lack of shared context can jeopardize a shared team identity.

Inspirational leaders serve as the bridge between team members and link them with a common goal or vision. In their study, teams that were more geographically dispersed had more positive perceptions about inspirational leadership, commitment to the team and team trust (Joshi et al., 2009). Similarly Davis and Bryant (2003) found that transformational leadership had positive effects on global virtual team outcomes, whereas laissez-faire leadership and team outcomes displayed a negative relationship. As Davis and Bryant put it, the leader must lead with "both the head and the heart" (2003, p. 319).

Bell and Kozlowski (2002) argue that there is little scope for traditional leadership in GVTs, such as development and shaping of team processes, and the monitoring and management of ongoing team performance. They posit that because there is only limited face-to-face interaction in these teams, leaders need to distribute and delegate leadership functions and responsibilities to team members. Kirkman et al. (2004) demonstrate that highly empowered teams are significantly associated with higher levels of team process improvement (and customer satisfaction) than less empowered teams. To accomplish well-functioning empowered GVTs, team leaders need to provide clear directions as well as specific individual goals (Kirkman et al., 2004). Bell and Kozlowski (2002) argue that leaders should be more proactive and structuring, developing mechanisms that can become reinforced by the GVT members themselves. Team leaders can achieve this by establishing routines early in the project (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002).

Davis and Bryant (2003) concluded that self-leadership, or leadership distributed to all members of the team, is linked to GVT success or failure. Teams in which self-leadership was discouraged were less effective than teams that supported self-leadership. Teams in which flexibility meant changing leadership roles depending on the situation were more effective than teams that lacked this competence. However, a key question is whether fully distributed leadership or self-managed leadership is more effective in global virtual teams, when members are in different geographic locations and have different cultural backgrounds, or if a leader needs to act as a linchpin among members. This has not been explored in empirical studies. Muethel and Hoegl (2010) argue on theoretical grounds that shared leadership should be effective in global virtual teams as it enhances the monitoring and influencing opportunities for members in different locations, the speed of decision-making, accountability of team members toward all others, task coordination and group cohesion. The extent to which individual team members will embrace shared leadership will be influenced and impeded by their respective countries' institutional and cultural characteristics, e.g., cultural values and norms (Muethel & Hoegl, 2010). We think testing these ideas empirically would be a promising avenue for enhancing our knowledge on GVTs.

3. Leading multicultural teams

We have found extensive reading on the topic of leading global multicultural teams (MCTs) of interest to practitioners (see, e.g., Brett, Behfar, & Kern, 2006; Maznevski, 2008; Miller, Fields, Kumar, & Ortiz, 2000; Steers et al., 2010). For example, Michael Miller, Ronald Fields, Ashish Kumar, and Rudy Ortiz have all been active managers of multicultural project teams and share their experiences and insights on how to tap the creative potential of multicultural project teams through leadership and creating a strategic vision (Miller et al., 2000). They also list, and vividly illustrate with examples, dos and don'ts regarding intercultural work, and conclude that "although it is impossible for any manager to know everything about all cultures and ethnic groups, it is important to learn as much as possible. The very act of expressing genuine interest in an individual and his background improves

morale and understanding. This improvement translates into more effective project performance" (Miller et al., 2000, p. 22). Realizing this thoughtful lesson into practice, however, is easier said than done, as we will discuss in the following.

Brett et al. (2006) draw our attention to four cultural barriers in multicultural teams: conflicting decision-making norms, conflicting attitudes toward hierarchy, direct versus indirect communication, and trouble with language fluency and accents. The former two barriers will be addressed further below in this article. The latter two are related to communication; this is not surprising given that a sizeable portion of the multicultural team research touches on this topic in some way. Even in the smaller subsection of team leadership studies we find work where communication is in focus. For example, in the studies we reviewed, communicating vision, goals, and directions, engaging in feedback and developing routines together, avoiding communication breakdowns and steering the team on the right track stood out as important leader actions (see, e.g., Ayoko, Härtel, & Callan, 2002; Matveev & Nelson, 2004).

Steers et al. (2010, p. 265) single out "mastering intercultural communications by listening for contextual messages behind content messages" as one of the main leadership challenges for leaders of multicultural teams. Team leaders must also facilitate communication among team members, make communication norms explicit, and help build mutual understanding (Steers et al., 2010). These are essential competences for effective bridge makers acting between people within a team (we will address bridge making in more detail later in this article). Not only do team leaders differ in their communication styles, but members with different national backgrounds can also differ in their communication preferences. For example employees' preferred form and frequency of communication with their immediate manager was found to vary across countries and cultural clusters (Zander, 2005). This adds to the complexity of 'hearing' what is not being said, i.e., understanding the contextualized communication. The content may be just as difficult to grasp as when speakers are less than fluent, have unfamiliar accents or dialects. Senior managers from multinational firms interviewed by Schweiger, Atamer, and Calori (2003) were surprised to find that language challenges were much more prevalent and more difficult to overcome than they expected when working in global teams given that English was the *lingua franca* in their respective organizations.

The topic of communication challenges in global teams is far from exhausted, and language in global teams has only started to receive attention. Leaders need to possess certain competences, and possibly leadership styles, to be able to overcome such challenges. We will first focus our review on leader competences before turning to examining recent research on leadership styles in multicultural teams.

3.1. Leader competencies

In the literature on MCTs, leadership is not often specified as crucial for team performance, although it is frequently concluded that management matters (Zander & Butler, 2010). To cast light on what competencies team leaders need to effectively lead MCTs, Hajro and Pudelko (2010) carried out 70 interviews with MCT leaders and members from five multinational firms. Interestingly they found that leadership was precisely what was perceived as critical to MCT performance. Specifically, knowledge management and transfer were reported as the most important MCT leader competence, with cross-cultural awareness following closely. As is typical of bridge makers in MCTs, team leaders play an important role in facilitating interaction between team members and resolving conflicts (Hajro & Pudelko, 2010). Bridge makers are similar to boundary spanners, although boundary spanners span

boundaries between the team and various other organizational units or groups while bridge makers bridge cultural and linguistic boundaries between people within multicultural groups (Liljegren & Zander, 2011).

Not surprisingly Hajro and Pudelko (2010) emphasize that an inability to simultaneously work with people from different backgrounds together with a lack of insight into, sensitivity toward, and accommodation of different cultures are among the major reasons for MCT failure. Cross-cultural competence is essential for team leadership, and team leadership is critical for the functioning of the MCT. Beliefs as to what is the most important element of cross-cultural competence tend to vary across countries and cultures. For example, in a comparison of the perceptions of Russian and American managers, who were members of MCTs, Russians ranked a cross-cultural personality orientation (e.g., cultural empathy and interest in intercultural interaction) as most important, whereas cross-cultural skills (e.g., an understanding and clear communication of team's goals, norms and roles) were the most important to the Americans (Matveev & Milter, 2004). These results beg the immediate question of what the implications are for global team leadership if the leader is perceived as strong on only one of these, when global team members vary in their expectations, as the Russian and American respondents did in the study above.

Additionally, our review of multicultural team leadership identified that leaders are expected to possess a competence of recognizing and bridging divergent member perceptions and acceptance of leadership roles, communication skills, ways of organizing work, etc. We raise the questions of how relevant bridge making skills are in the global context, and how these can be carried out in a virtual setting with globally dispersed team members.

3.2. Leadership styles

Transformational leadership, like charismatic leadership, has been widely studied in general but not so much in the context of MCTs (Kearney & Gebert, 2009). The positive effects of transformational leadership on outcomes such as employee motivation, satisfaction and performance (see Judge & Piccolo, 2004 for a review) were found by Kearney and Gebert (2009) in a team setting in their study of 62 R&D teams in a multinational company. They established that transformational leadership can unleash the potential in MCTs by tapping the variance and benefits provided by diversity leading to positive performance. Notably no link between transformational leadership and performance could be found in homogenous teams; there was even a detrimental effect on performance for high levels of transformational leadership (Kearney & Gebert, 2009). These are controversial findings in the light of statements that transformational leadership has been found to be the most reliable predictor of team performance (see, e.g., Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011). In Schaubroeck et al.'s (2011) study of bank teams in Hong Kong versus in the U.S.A., they found that team members' trust in the leader was critical for the link between transformational leadership and team performance. Interestingly, Hoffman, Bynum, Piccolo, and Sutton (2011) found that American managers' congruence with organizational values was related to a positive effect of transformational leadership on group effectiveness.

Servant leadership, which has been around since 1970 (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006) has recently started to attract more attention and has been found to explain variance in team performance (Schaubroeck et al., 2011). Both transformational and servant leadership are people-oriented leadership styles emphasizing the importance of valuing people, listening, mentoring and empowering followers (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). Stone et al. (2004)

argue that the primary difference between the two is that servant leadership focuses on the follower and the understanding of the role of the leader as being of service to the follower (Greenleaf, 1977), whereas transformational leadership focuses on the organization, specifically on building follower commitment toward organizational goals. Given this differentiation, an immediate question is whether the more interpersonal nature of servant leadership can be as successful in virtual multicultural teams as it is in collocated multicultural teams. Additionally, we also query whether trust and person-organization value congruence would have similar mediating effects when transformational leadership is used in global teams, given the culturally based differences in members' leadership preferences.

3.3. Leadership strategies and modes

In the face of cultural complexities, which threaten team process and outcomes yet can provide opportunities to benefit from and leverage cultural differences, team leaders opt for different cultural strategies. Based on in-depth case studies, observation, interviews and informal discussions with team leaders and members in multicultural R&D, electrical engineering and product development teams, Chevrier (2003) identified three different leadership strategies and how these were more or less successfully enacted. The first strategy is 'laissez-faire leadership'; where cross-cultural differences are neither managed nor drawn upon, but largely ignored. Instead, the leader relies on the team members' tolerance and self-control when facing culturally ambiguous or conflicting situations. When team members begin to feel frustrated, they need to release tension by talking and it is often done within their own cultural subgroup, with the high risk of cementing the already strong faultlines in their team. The second strategy involves team leaders and members in a 'cultural trial-and-error' process. Attempts to create more personal relationships among those involved are essential for this form of probing and finding ad hoc solutions for cross-cultural differences one by one. However, this pragmatic way of handling and occasionally leveraging cultural differences suffers from temporal limitations, which could reinforce polarization and negative stereotyping, instead of creating a mutually permanent functioning work environment for the team members. The third leadership strategy is based on setting up a 'common team culture', e.g., using professional or corporate cultural values or ways of organizing work as a basis. Although this has the potential to create a stable setting where cultural differences can be handled and thrive within a shared frame of norms and appropriate behaviors, the downside is that the creation often becomes a common-denominator-culture that dampens rather than encourages cultural exchange and falls short of leveraging cultural differences.

One alternative to avoiding a 'common-denominator-culture' has been proposed by Maznevski and Zander (2001), namely, combining team culture creation with individualized leadership. They argue that this combination could also defuse the power paradox, which occurs when, for example, some team members appreciate, respect and trust a leader who practices delegation of authority and empowerment, whereas these same leader behaviors are unacceptable to other team members. Because they prefer more directive or hands-on leadership, these team members can easily lose their belief in and respect for a leader who does not act in the expected way. The power paradox, in this example, embodies the two cultural barriers based on conflicting attitudes; namely with respect to hierarchy and to decision-making norms (Brett et al., 2006). A team leader who is stuck in such a power paradox will become ineffective unless it can be resolved. Wu, Tsui, and Kinicki (2010) recently demonstrated problems with individualized leadership in single culture teams – they found that it

disturbs the creation of common team norms, which are positively related to team effectiveness. It remains an empirical question whether this problem also would occur in globally dispersed virtual teams.

Chevrier (2003) suggests an alternative team leadership strategy to those she identified in her research discussed above. She bases that strategy on two assumptions: first, that multicultural team effectiveness is dependent on a deep understanding of the cultural issues at hand, and second, that such an understanding will not occur simply through team member interaction. She proposes that a cultural mediator helps team members to decipher cultural meaning systems and integrate cognitive understanding of others into action. This is another bridge making activity complementing those we briefly touched upon earlier in this article. Such a role does not necessarily have to be held by the team leader; team members could also act as cultural bridge makers and become influential in the team process, e.g., in decision-making (Liljegren & Zander, 2011).

As we have highlighted, team leadership does not necessarily have to be carried out by a single individual, the team leader, but could be seen as a set of activities that needs to be done by one or several individuals. This reasoning within contemporary leadership research was applied by Zander and Butler (2010) in their work on developing team leadership modes. They add three leadership modes to traditional single leadership. Zander and Butler (2010) use two leadership dimensions, activities (distributed versus focused) and authority (horizontal versus vertical) to characterize the four team leadership modes: single, paired, rotated, and shared leadership. The choice of leadership mode for a given team is based on the team's multicultural composition, which is analyzed in terms of faultlines and status cues (Zander & Butler, 2010). The Zander and Butler model builds on an initial fit argument. It is not proposed to be used in a static or rigid way but flexibly, in line with the dynamics of multicultural processes. The idea is that an informed choice of team leadership mode may give the multicultural team a higher probability of success and a lower probability of destructive conflict in need of later managerial intervention. Zander and Butler (2010) argue that it is possible to align and develop leadership modes in accordance with the needs of the team, as well as the strategic and operational demands of the multinational firm. How organizations do so, and which leadership strategies are most effective in culturally diverse global teams are salient topics. Specifically, examining how organizations select and apply different leadership modes in managing and leveraging diversity in order to ensure high performance of the global team would be a valuable addition to the leadership literature.

4. The team leader

As companies become more global and increasingly use multicultural virtual teams, employees who have the cognitive aptitude and experience to think and act 'globally' are increasingly sought after. The challenge for managers is to accurately identify these internationally minded individuals to act as global team leaders.

People are indeed being exposed to more and more cultures (Friedman & Liu, 2009; Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007). At least three identifiable streams of research have developed around this external process. The first of these is the many-faceted construct of the 'global mindset' (e.g., Javidan, Dorfman, deLuque, & House, 2006). Global mindset is argued to be crucial for global leaders to be able influence individuals, groups and organizations that are unlike them. These global leaders may be seen to be international (e.g., Anthias, 2001) or cosmopolitan rather than bound by one, two or a few cultures. Other people seem to adapt easily and well in emotional, behavioral, and cognitive terms to new cultural

contexts and so display what Earley and colleagues (Earley, 2002; Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley, Murnieks, & Mosakowski, 2007) have termed cultural intelligence or CQ. Lastly, an increasing number of people identify with two (or more) cultural identities and so may demonstrate biculturalism, a process of intrapersonal cultural diversity switching easily between two or more cultures (Bunderson & Sutcliffe, 2002; Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martinez, 2000; LaFromboise, Coleman, & Gerton, 1993).

Global mindset is related to biculturalism and cultural intelligence (Earley et al., 2007) in that an individual can also develop and refine at least some elements of it (e.g., the cognitive competences that lead to intercultural empathy). It also differs significantly from biculturalism and cultural intelligence in that it alone includes a strategic element. Biculturalism may lead to cultural intelligence of cultures beyond those internal to the bicultural. Cultural intelligence might be understood as the cultural competence component, albeit a modified one, of global mindset. These three distinct constructs do overlap, and each may contribute in some distinct way to leading global teams.

4.1. Global mindset and cultural intelligence

Global team leaders need to possess cultural competence and awareness as we have discussed earlier, but such competence is clearly not sufficient, if they are to be seen as successful by the organizations which employ them. Other factors, such as global business savvy, clearly contribute to this success as part of the bigger package. Global mindset (Hitt, Javidan, & Steers, 2007; Javidan et al., 2006; Javidan, Steers, & Hitt, 2007; Jeanett, 2000; Levy, Beechler, Taylor, & Boyacigiller, 2007; Murtha, Lenway, & Bagozzi, 1998; Perlmutter, 1969; Redding, 2007) is argued to bring competitive advantage to organizations through its dual focus on cultural competence and strategic organizational impact. Perlmutter (1969) ground breaking work on ethno-, poly-, and geocentric orientations implicitly build on the idea of a global mindset, or in his terminology geocentrism. Until recently the construct has been ill-defined covering a wide range of factors and levels of analysis (e.g., individual skills, attitudes, and behaviors; organizational strategies, policies, practices and structures) tied to the global agenda. Levy et al. (2007) synthesize the literature to define global mindset as a multidimensional individual level "highly complex cognitive structure characterized by an openness to and articulation of multiple cultural and strategic realities on both global and local levels, and the cognitive ability to mediate and integrate across this multiplicity" (p. 27). It encompasses both cultural and strategic perspectives and draws on underlying constructs of cosmopolitanism and cognitive complexity. It is at one and the same time based in cognition, behavior and a 'way of being'. It is of interest to understand how the cultural and strategic competences encompassed by global mindset play out when leading global teams in a virtual context.

Cultural intelligence consists of meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral components (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Ang et al., 2007; Van Dyne, Ang, & Koh, 2008). It has been shown to be a key predictor of integration in multinational teams (Flaherty, 2008), but also of international assignment effectiveness (Kim, Kirkman, & Chen, 2008), expatriate adjustment and performance (Shaffer & Miller, 2008), and task performance in culturally diverse settings (Ang et al., 2007). These are all relevant for success as a global team leader. Discussions of cultural intelligence in the leadership literature, though, remain largely conceptual (e.g., Alon & Higgins, 2005; Mannor, 2008). In one recent exception, Groves and Feyerherm (2011) tested the moderating effects of cultural diversity on leader and team performance. Data from 99 leaders and 321 of their followers with an average team size of about 4 people including the leader

showed that leader cultural intelligence is a function of the leadership context. A leader's cultural intelligence contributes to team member perceptions of the performance of the leader and the team where teams are characterized by high national and ethnic diversity. As this composition is typical for global teams these findings are of interest to examine whether they also are applicable for global teams that act in a virtual context.

4.2. Biculturals and biculturalism

Born biculturals, individuals who have two cultural backgrounds (e.g., parents from two different national cultures, or are members of an ethnic minority relative to the society's dominant majority), are often assumed to already have the ability to quickly switch frames between the two cultures as required and provide a managerial solution to bicultural work situations including teams (Brannen & Thomas, 2010). Indeed, recent experimental work has shown that Chinese-Western participants who have been primed with pictures of Chinese and Western cultural icons actually do think differently using different parts of their brains to process information depending on the prime (Ng & Han, 2009). Global team leaders do need to think differently to span boundaries and make bridges as we discussed. While it is tempting to assume that a born bicultural has the capability to do so, empirical evidence demonstrates that it is important to distinguish between someone who is 'simply' a born bicultural and someone who actually demonstrates bicultural fluency or biculturalism. Indeed Lücke and Roth (2008) develop a culture-cognitive conceptualization of biculturalism to argue that individuals who are not born biculturals can develop biculturalism also through social experiences in later life.

Friedman and Liu (2009) identify four factors that research has shown to enhance or constrain the cognitive flexibility of biculturals, whether born or learned. These factors are (1) 'need for cognitive closure', (2) assimilation strategies, (3) 'bicultural integration', and (4) lay theory of race. High 'need for cognitive closure' individuals dislike ambiguity and so are more likely than low 'need for cognitive closure' individuals to follow the cultural rules they were brought up with (Chiu, Morris, Hong, & Menon, 2000; Kruglanski, 1990). Further while some individuals may choose a 'positive' integration assimilation strategy, other may choose 'negative' separation or marginalization assimilation strategies as they acculturate (Berry, 1990; see also Bourhis, Moise, Perrault, & Senecal, 1997; Mana, Orr, & Mana 2009; Roccas & Brewer, 2002). In addition high 'bicultural integration' individuals make fewer situational attributions, implying cultural assimilation; individuals low in 'bicultural integration' make greater situational attributions, implying cultural contrast (Benet-Martinez & Haritatos, 2005). Low 'bicultural integration' results in 'mismatching' in performance appraisals (Mok, Cheng, & Morris, 2010) and pay allocation (Friedman, Liw, Chi, Hong, & Sung, 2008, as cited in Friedman & Liu, 2009) that can lead to managerial problems rather than solutions. Lastly some biculturals hold an 'essentialist' view or lay theory of race as stable and enduring. They view their two cultures, minority and majority, as separate entities. In experimental work, biculturals who hold such a view respond to majority culture primes with minority culture responses (No et al., 2008). Depending on biculturals' need for cognitive closure, application of 'positive' or 'negative' assimilation strategies, level of bicultural integration, and the absence or the presence of a 'lay theory of race', the degree of biculturalism, and the associated sought-after competence of cognitive flexibility will vary.

Some born biculturals do indeed possess amazing cognitive flexibility and behavioral adaptability in the workplace. In their journey to bicultural fluency (Bell & Nkomo, 2001) they use a wide range of techniques to achieve success. This immediately accessible cultural competence repertoire is what makes biculturals, whether born or learned, of critical interest for the leadership of global teams. Dickerson (2006) reports on the wide variety of techniques including the tapping of new social networks that Latino and black women leaders in the labor movement use to access and negotiate societal hierarchies. The 'switching techniques' of Navajo women managers (Muller, 1998) and the 'expanding' persuasive influence of American Indian managers (Warner & Grint, 2006) are examples of managers who have developed active biculturalism. These examples of non-White US leaders illustrate the organizational system constraints these individuals face and their ability to liberate themselves from these constraints while becoming and remaining successful players in mainstream organizational systems (Ospina & Foldy, 2009). The ability to liberate oneself to 'switch' and 'expand' influence, for example, will allow a bicultural, whether born or learned, in the position of a global team leader to span boundaries and bridge differences.

Mirroring the 'negative' lens of the diversity literature more generally (Shore et al., 2009), earlier work on biculturalism focused on the often negative immigrant experience in a relatively stable external context and the conclusions that a positive identity is a necessary condition for bicultural life success generally. Although we have not uncovered any empirical work on bicultural leaders of global teams, newer work on biculturalism contrasts positive with negative identities, flexibility and liberation with constraint, salience with categorization, and dynamic with stable environments. This positive focus parallels developments noted above in respect of multicultural teams and elsewhere in the organization literature (e.g., the literature on inclusion of diverse individuals (Bilimoria, Joy, & Liang, 2008; Roberson, 2006)). These contrasts match more closely with the current complex dynamic and global environment, and suggest that bicultural team leaders of global teams might more successfully leverage the positive cognitive contributions of adaptability (e.g., the boundary-spanning and bridge-making roles discussed above) while at the same time more successfully minimize cognitive constraints experienced by team members, a third role that we label 'blender' (Butler, Zander, Mockaitis, & Sutton, 2012). The success of biculturals in this newly identified role together with the two roles noted above is a topic that holds both theoretical and practical relevance worthy of future empirical inquiry.

5. Discussion – emerging research themes and a future research agenda

The literature on global team leadership is far from abundant, but when reviewing recent work on virtual team leadership, multicultural team leadership, and the team leader we could clearly identify three emerging themes that are highly relevant for future research on leading global teams (see Fig. 1 for a graphical illustration of the literature review and the emerging themes).

These three emerging themes are: (1) global team leaders as boundary spanners, bridge makers, and blenders, (2) people-oriented leadership in global teams, and (3) leveraging global team diversity, which will be discussed in detail below.

5.1. Global team leaders as boundary spanners, bridge makers and blenders

As much of the research on global team leadership concentrates on the leader's competencies and challenges in leading the team, it would be valuable to consider the multiple roles of global team leaders. The first theme that surfaced is the expectation and desire for global team leaders to be engaged in *boundary spanning*
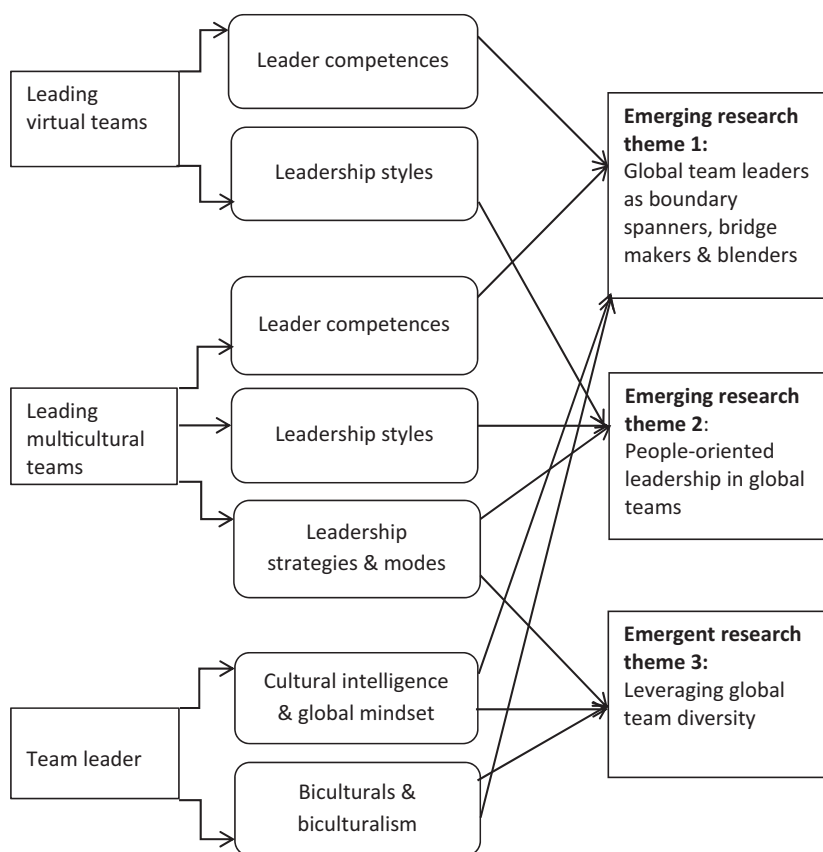
Fig. 1. Leading global teams: literature review and emerging research themes.

activities between organizational units, *bridge making* activities across cultural and linguistic differences between people within the team, as well as *blending* subgroups within teams.

Boundary spanning was identified as a leader competence important in virtual teams (Davis & Bryant, 2003; Joshi & Lazarova, 2005) and multicultural teams (Hajro & Pudelko, 2010). Wiesenfeld and Hewlin (2003) argue that boundary spanning is the most important role of managers. To do this effectively, managers must identify with multiple groups and be able to attain synergies between them. However, as Wiesenfeld and Hewlin (2003) argue, managers must have established legitimacy within these groups. This means that the leader must be viewed as such by the group members. Legitimacy necessitates trust. In global virtual teams this is even more important, as members are dispersed; team members must be confident that their leader will represent their interests to other groups both within and external to the organization. As if the task of leading a global team was not challenging enough, the team leader as boundary spanner must also possess chameleon-like abilities, identifying with the virtual team as a whole and each of its members, as well as with multiple other groups. However, according to Wiesenfeld and Hewlin (2003), in order for boundary spanning to be achieved well, the leader cannot prioritize one identity over another, so as not to jeopardize the trust of the groups that are given lower priority. The leader must demonstrate commitment to all groups among which synergies are to be attained. How do global team leaders balance their multiple roles in different groups as well as their relationships within those groups? What are the qualities of effective boundary spanning by global team leaders? Given the critical importance of identification for connecting global members (Martins & Schilpzand, 2011), how do boundary spanning leaders of global teams identify with the global team and other groups, and

what is the relationship between identification and effective leadership?

Bridge makers facilitate intra-team communication, interaction, and resolve conflicts by bridging cultural and linguistic boundaries between team members (Liljegren & Zander, 2011). As we touched on earlier, tuning in to and identifying cultural cues, reading the in-between lines of 'hidden' contextual information (Steers et al., 2010) can enable communication and resolve communication misunderstandings before these become a reality. This makes bridge making an essential part of what team leaders need to do to leverage the full potential of a multicultural team (Maznevski, 2008). Bridge making is also the essence of the leadership strategy proposed by Chevrier (2003), who argues that mere interaction between team members will not release synergy effects from drawing on different cultures. Successful synergetic team outcomes can only be achieved through a deep understanding of each other's' cultural backgrounds and world views. This leads us to query whether the team leader's bridge making role changes character, increases in importance, or possibly becomes redundant in the virtual working environment of global teams. Other questions include whether a team leader can be a bridge maker in cyber space where team members are not in spatial and temporal proximity to each other, and whether bridge making is dependent on acting in real time, or if delayed team leader responses will aggravate rather than alleviate the situation.

We build on Abreu's and Peloquin's (2004) understanding that bridge makers foster understanding, interdependence, cohesion, and recognition across cultural boundaries in a team. If we examine recent research by Jenster and Steiler (2011) on 31 GVTs operating across 22 countries, we find a significant relationship between team leaders' personal support and expression of inclusion, and team members' motivation and team cohesiveness.

This leads Jenster and Steiler (2011) to argue for an increased effort in supporting team members to bridge gaps between team leader and members when working in a global virtual context. Examining the potential effects of team leaders' personal support and inclusive actions, together with a bridge making cultural repertoire on global team outcomes constitutes an exciting new research agenda with both theoretical and practical implications.

Global team leaders also need to act as blenders, uniting the subgroups and splits (see Lau & Murnighan, 1998, 2005, for a discussion of group faultlines) present in the many 'in-between' multinational groups (Butler, 2010) that fall somewhere on the team composition spectrum between 'highly heterogeneous' and 'highly homogeneous'. Research on intergroup leadership (e.g., national political parties) has found that leaders often remain insular reinforcing boundaries between groups rather than encouraging understanding (Kellerman, 2004) creating conflict between groups leading to intergroup rivalry. Those who demonstrate biculturalism as discussed above should be more able than others to employ, for example, switching techniques to 'move' immediately and rapidly between subgroups.

The standard solution offered by the intergroup literature has been for leaders to develop a superordinate goal to create a bridge to reduce intergroup dislike (likely drawn from social norms) Hornsey and Hogg (2000) emphasize that maintaining, not weakening, subgroup identities, while locating them within the context of a binding superordinate identity, is a way to avoid such 'superordinate identity' bridges making things worse rather than better. Other research (e.g., Brewer, 1999; Hinkle & Brown, 1990; Kosterman & Feshbach, 1989; Park & Judd, 2005) has shown that the solution lies in offering up a greater range of strategies, something which should come naturally to those demonstrating biculturalism.

Pittinsky (2010) proposes the creation of a workplace culture where enacting individual acts of liking (likely to be drawn from individual experience) is the accepted way of behaving where national diversity is present. He further emphasizes the need for leaders to develop high-quality individual relationships with followers from all subgroups, not just their own. Biculturals are more likely to be able to blend the team into such a 'liking' culture. Shore et al. (2011) advocate focusing simultaneously on both the satisfaction of belonging and the need for uniqueness which each team member processes (Brewer, 1991) to increase inclusion of all team members and cite strategies to achieve this such as incorporating high group task difficulty coupled with high group autonomy (Man & Lam, 2003) and smaller group size and greater group interdependence (Beal, Cohen, Burke, & McLendon, 2003).

Although these types of blending strategies seem more likely to succeed when undertaken by someone demonstrating biculturalism, are they the strategies that biculturals in the role of global team leader actually use? Further are these strategies, or indeed other strategies, significantly more likely to succeed when undertaken by an individual demonstrating biculturalism than when undertaken by someone high on cultural intelligence, demonstrating a global mindset or, indeed, anyone else leading the so-called 'in-between global teams' in particular and global multicultural teams in general?

Lastly, how are team leader roles such as boundary spanning, bridge making and blending enacted in a global virtual environment? Butler et al. (2012) suggest that fostering of the qualities, skills, and competences required for effective global leadership actually occurs simultaneously when performing these three unique roles within and across groups. Their significance lies in the ability to manage paradoxical situations occurring when working across national and cultural borders. Will these roles take on a new guise, can these roles satisfy the needs of global team members, or possibly serve other purposes? These are central questions in future research on leading global teams.

5.2. People-oriented leadership in global teams

At the crossroads of virtual and multicultural team leadership research the focus was clearly on people-oriented leadership styles making it our second emerging theme. Transformational and inspirational leadership together with the less researched servant leadership, all viewed as stimulating, encouraging and supporting types of leadership, were found to have positive effects in both global virtual teams and in multicultural collocated teams.

The people-oriented leadership trends echo a general move away from the more 'traditional' leadership preoccupied with order giving, control and distinct role boundaries between those who lead and those who are led. This is possibly a response to contemporary changes in work values and expectations, where a sense of duty and loyalty to a single employer is being replaced by a need for individual experience to achieve through a variety of employers and a plethora of work arrangements. To retain talent and skills, and not lose knowledgeable human resources, managers become competent in and practice people-oriented aspects of leadership. This people-oriented leadership trend is, however, not solely driven by individual work preferences but also by harsh labor market realities, where competition and financial turbulence have led to restructuring, outsourcing, downsizing, alliance formation, and other organizational changes with far-reaching implications for the people who work in these organizations.

Team members in our review ranked people-oriented leadership styles, such as transformational, inspirational and servant leadership, highly, and empirical studies established a direct link between leadership style and team effectiveness with only a few noted exceptions, such as the mediating need for member trust in the team leader in one study and person-organization value congruence in another, for transformational leadership to be effective. The picture is less clear, however, with respect to the effectiveness of distributed leadership or empowering global teams. On the one hand, the virtual team leadership literature poignantly questions whether there is any other way to successfully lead geographically distributed virtual teams. On the other hand, some have also found that empowering was prioritized by team leaders, not the team members. This is not surprising perhaps, as the cross-cultural leadership literature describes how leadership styles, behaviors and prototypes, and employee preferences for leadership practices vary significantly across countries and cultures (see, e.g., House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorman, & Gupta, 2004; Smith, Peterson, & Schwartz, 2002; Zander, 1997), suggesting that in a global team, members will hold different leadership models. With this follows the risk of a team leader experiencing the afore mentioned power paradox (Maznevksi & Zander, 2001) and becoming ineffective.

In a recent meta-analysis of cultural effects in studies using Hofstede's dimensions from the last three decades, Taras, Kirkman, and Steel (2010) demonstrated that culture significantly explains variance in employee receptivity to certain leadership styles as well as team-related attitudes and perceptions; this underscores the likelihood of facing a power paradox, and the difficulty of selecting the right leadership style when leading multicultural teams. Watson, Johnson, and Zgourides (2002) found that for ethnically diverse teams interpersonal leadership activities were more important than for non-diverse teams, where task leadership was critical. And, as demonstrated by Zander (1997, 2005) and Zander and Romani (2004) employees' interpersonal leadership preferences vary significantly across countries and cultures. A central question for future research on leading global teams is whether a power paradox can surface and take on the same

magnitude in virtual teams, when team members often work asynchronously, separated by both time and space and are not necessarily aware of each other's conflicting leadership preferences, as in collocated teams. If so, then the global team leader will become a less effective leader.

Team members' evaluations of team leader effectiveness are, however, not solely dependent on what leadership style is used. Sauer (2011) demonstrated that perceived leader effectiveness was the result of an interaction between leadership style (empowering versus directive behavior) and how the leader's status is judged (low versus high status as measured by age, number of years of experience and appearance of the incoming leader) by team members. These results are similar to findings in gender-based leadership research aptly denoted female first and leader second (Scott & Brown, 2006). Different leadership styles, such as 'autocratic' versus 'democratic', are interpreted differently depending on whether the leader is a man or a woman (see, e.g., Eagly & Carli, 2003; Scott & Brown, 2006). Recent research findings in collocated teams indicate that incoming team leader status characteristics and other visible demographics matter for team members' perceptions and evaluations about the effectiveness of the leader's style. This leads us to pose the question of whether these results hold when there is a lack of, or limited, face-to-face visibility in the virtual environment facing global teams? Other research questions include how incoming global team leaders assume leadership or become acknowledged as team leaders, how they form and norm a team culture, organize work and lead the team to success. In essence, will team members' perceptions of leadership effectiveness still be related to incoming global team leaders' status characteristics and/or actions when they work in a virtual working environment?

That global team leaders should motivate and inspire, coach and mentor, and take a personal interest in team members, was viewed as essential by team members in the studies we reviewed. These competences are of course of value to any group leader, who wishes to engage in people-oriented leadership styles, but in a virtual and cross-cultural context they need to be coupled with a cross-cultural awareness, highlighted as critical in a number of the studies we reviewed. We need further research regarding how feasible, effective and successful people-oriented leadership practices are in the virtual and multicultural context of a global team, where team leaders and members hold and prefer different leadership models, and whether team outcomes will vary between transformational, inspirational, service-oriented, empowering, distributed, and shared leadership styles and modes.

5.3. Leveraging global team diversity

More work is still needed on the role of the leader in managing and leveraging multicultural diversity in global virtual teams, our third emerging theme. We are still seeking answers to many questions about recognizing cultural differences and their interaction with the virtual team context, and the emergence of subgroups and faultlines based on cultural and other team member characteristics, as well as how to recognize and manage them in virtual teams. All of these questions pose further challenges for global team leaders. However, even the leader, who has cross-cultural competence, will find this task daunting without adequate knowledge about how diversity affects team functioning and outcomes. The literature in this area is not unequivocal.

According to Earley and Mosakowski (2000), effective teams are those that have a strong team culture (a sense of purpose and goals) and shared expectations. In the early stages of the team, cultural diversity is expected to negatively influence team functioning, however, over time, the relationship between diversity and performance becomes curvilinear; this is also a finding by Watson et al. (2002). Others argue that cultural diversity is not as important as other factors. For example, Davis and Bryant (2003, p. 330) suggest that a strong organizational culture trumps any national cultural differences, and global team members leave their "cultural identity at the door," especially in cases where organizational culture is particularly strong.

In the meta-analysis of diversity effects in multicultural teams by Stahl, Maznevski, et al. (2010), diversity was found to lead to process losses with respect to increased conflict and lower social integration but also increased creativity. Multicultural teams that were collocated experienced more conflict and lower social integration than dispersed (virtual) teams. Although these findings suggest that the virtual context may to some extent diminish the effects of diversity, others have found that cultural differences may be especially strong when they appear to be concealed by the virtual context (Mockaitis, Rose, & Zettinig, in press). Because global team members cannot readily see one another or easily engage in face-to-face interaction, surface-level diversity becomes less important, and deeper-level diversity, such as values diversity, becomes more salient. Some researchers have argued that cultural diversity will have stronger effects on team outcomes than surface-level diversity in global teams (Martins, Gilson, & Maynard, 2004).

Stahl, Mäkelä, Zander, and Maznevski (2010) argue that perhaps the literature on team diversity has placed too much emphasis on the negative aspects of diversity, and this has limited our understanding about the dynamic nature of diversity in teams. There is a positive side to diversity as well. Diversity can result in deeper interaction and richer communication, enhance learning, increase creativity and satisfaction, and have additional benefits (Stahl, Mäkelä, et al., 2010). However, Stahl, Mäkelä, et al. (2010) explain that the focus on managing diversity in multicultural teams has been on theories that help to understand or mitigate the problems that arise in such teams (e.g., social identity theory, faultlines, similarity-attraction theory, etc.). They do not focus on multicultural virtual teams. Yet, given all of the distance barriers created by the virtual context (physical geographic distance, communication lags, interaction barriers, etc.) that the global team leader must manage, a positive approach to leveraging the benefits of diversity as opposed to managing in order to minimize its negative effects would be a refreshing direction and a novel addition to the literature on global team leadership. Here we can refer back to our team leadership modes discussion, repeat that the global virtual context places extra-ordinary challenges on leadership as team member interaction is not going on in real time (nor in real life) to any larger extent. In which way, if at all can the leadership modes be used to leverage, not just manage, cultural diversity in global virtual teams?

Leaders, who demonstrate biculturalism together with those, who possess cultural intelligence or a global mindset, can move comfortably between different cultures, and demonstrate intercultural empathy and personal liking, may be most suited to the task of leading successful global teams. Empirical data is thus far quite thin underlining the need for future research that questions the nature of the relationship between biculturalism, cultural intelligence and global mindset, the relative impact of biculturalism, cultural intelligence and global mindset on global team performance, and strategies for effective bicultural, cultural intelligence and global mindset leadership of global teams. Under such a perspective, research into how leaders can bring out the best qualities of different team members would be rather informative from theoretical and practical perspectives.

6. Concluding reflections and managerial relevance

Our review has shown that, surprisingly, given the rise of global teams, both multicultural team and global virtual leadership

remain under-researched areas. The combination of multinational, multilinguistic and multicultural team dimensions, and a geographically dispersed virtual context, lead to teams of a different kind, not just of a different degree, as team complexities and dynamics are not just amplified, but new leadership challenges are also introduced. This places new demands on global team leadership and global team leaders.

Several compelling research trends and questions for future research emerged in our literature review, all firmly grounded in multicultural and virtual team leadership research and recent work on biculturalism, which deliberately pose questions regarding leadership and leaders of global teams. We identified and discussed three emerging research themes in more detail. The first theme is that of global leaders as boundary spanners, bridge makers, and blenders. The second theme concerns people-oriented leadership in global teams, and the third theme addresses leveraging global team diversity.

We were surprised that the *râison d'étre* of a global team leader did not receive any explicit in-depth attention. What will change when a multicultural leader has to work virtually, and correspondingly when a virtual team leader faces a multicultural team? Hajro and Pudelko (2010) found that the multicultural team leaders they studied ranked virtual team leadership at the bottom of the list of team leader competences. Only a little more than half of the global virtual leaders (and only 5% of the team members) viewed managing cultural diversity as important in Joshi's and Lazarova's (2005) study. Is this an example of not understanding the challenges and implications for others' daily work until we experience them ourselves, or is it an indication of something else?

Popular belief has it that younger generations, computer and internet savvy from an early age, do not feel as inhibited when communicating electronically as older generations do. If this is so, then will members of the younger generation be better, more effective and efficient, global team leaders? Are the younger generations also possibly short-circuiting cultural communication misunderstandings using text messaging abbreviations and an emerging internet communication protocol; will the need for team leaders to boundary span, bridge make and blend decrease or possibly diminish in the future? Or will they find that socializing virtually is quite different from leading work virtually? Will the simplified accessibility of electronic media for virtual face-to-face interaction lead to a changed role for the team leader; an increased use of alternative team leadership modes; or possibly diminish the need for a single team leader altogether?

Additionally, electronic advancements may be global in use and outreach, but this does not necessarily mean that they are globally accessible to all, or that internet skills or experience with electronic platforms are uniformly distributed, not even among the younger generations. Cultural values, expectations and preferences may also enhance, or inhibit, contemporary technology-driven communication. At the same time we must remember that leadership preferences may change at a variable or slower rate and differ across countries and cultures, leaving global team leaders with interpersonal challenges and opportunities to be negotiated and leveraged, while adapting to and learning from fast-paced electronic advancements.

Globalization and changes in attitudes also contribute to the rising number of born biculturals, e.g., in 2008 the U.S. Census Bureau projected that by 2050 minorities will become the majority with 54% of the American population being of non-White European origin. Although we cannot predict how many people will demonstrate biculturalism, such changing demographic patterns are a particularly interesting issue to pursue in light of the rapidly accumulating literature on biculturalism. This phenomenon also rekindles the old question of leader traits and characteristics but offers a new prism through which to examine it, by querying whether biculturals possess a specific set of competences which would make them particularly successful as global team leaders.

For practitioners our literature review on leading global teams is of immediate and very hands-on use as it highlights emerging themes important for the future. For global team leaders a specific set of leadership roles (i.e., boundary spanners, bridge makers and blenders) stand out together with a set of people-oriented leadership styles (i.e., transformational, empowering and shared leadership) and a focus on team performance in form of leveraging global team diversity. Knowledge about differences between team members' and team leaders' leadership expectations is helpful for leaders in terms of understanding team members' leadership preferences as well as for the decision-makers who select team leaders for their global teams. Here discussions as to the advantages of choosing those who display cultural intelligence, global mindset or who are biculturals demonstrating biculturalism as global team leaders can be most helpful. Vast cross-national differences regarding expectations about leadership and management practices are not a new phenomenon in contemporary multinational organizations. However, some of our findings may pose challenges for human resource managers, for example that team leaders and team members differ as to what they list as most important leadership competences and styles. Mentoring and coaching were important for team members, while empowering and managing diversity came highly ranked on the team leaders' agenda. A more nuanced understanding of team leaders' and members' differing expectations, together with a cultural awareness of differences in leadership preferences across countries, will strengthen team leaders' ability to overcome the power paradox described in our review. Our review also highlighted that use of different leadership modes, such as paired, rotated or shared leadership, rather than just resorting to the standard single team leader option, could be applied strategically, not just to manage cultural differences but to actually leverage them. This is certainly invaluable for team leaders and global leaders alike.

With this article we have contributed to the extant literature on leading global teams. The current state of the field is presented and analyzed; we have outlined where contemporary research is heading, and identified some themes that deserve focused attention in the future. We can easily set an even longer research agenda as our thoughts spin around various combinations of virtual and multicultural team leadership challenges. However, we need to get much closer to the heart of the matter to find out whether there is something more to leading global teams than what we know from leading virtual multicultural teams today, as we believe that work in multinational organizations will not only be organized in and around global teams, but that global teams could actually become the new fluid global firms of tomorrow.

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