

THE IMPACT OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE ON ORGANIZATIONAL  
EFFECTIVENESS IN A GLOBAL ENVIRONMENT

by

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## **DEDICATION**

I would like to take this opportunity to dedicate this work to my family. My late Mom and Dad as well as my Mommy Yo, and the rest of the Kouassi's family. I would like to honor particularly my Grand-Parents (educators exemplars) who took on the task to raise me from a 2 weeks old infant until I finished my first college degree, and who foster the love for learning and the passion for education in me. I have had a very difficult and confusing life, with lots of mysteries and an overload of challenges. But through it all, I built resiliency through each step of my life, because of their love and faith in me. I want to honor my GOD who has truly glorified his name through this journey. Nothing was guaranteed, but all was promised.

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# **The Impact of Cultural Intelligence on Organizational Effectiveness: A Qualitative Multiple Study Analysis**

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## **ABSTRACT**

With increasing globalization, growing diversity in organization demography, and the popular use of team-based organizational structures (Friedman, 2006), multicultural teams are a central feature in today's organizations. It is increasingly likely that employees will be required to work interdependently with team members who have different and culturally significant affiliations (Knight, 2007). Cultural differences often cause uncertainty and miscommunication, and cultural intelligence (CQ) has recently been used to address these issues (Lin, Chen & Ye-Chen, 2012). Cultural intelligence is a specific form of intelligence that focuses on the capability of an individual to function effectively in situations in which they are presented with cultural diversity (Earley & Ang, 2003). Ang et al. (2007) further suggested that CQ is a complementary form of intelligence that can explain variability in coping with diversity and functioning in new cultural settings. Research has not yet examined how CQ affects organizational effectiveness.

The purpose of this investigation is to examine, through the analysis of three empirical studies, the impact that CQ has on organizational effectiveness (OE). This study draws upon literature on CQ and OE to explain a model by which leaders in a cross-cultural context can find a balance between the tension of their own deeply held values, and those of their culturally different counterparts. An extensive literature review was conducted to address the research question: What is the impact of CQ on organizational effectiveness? Three empirical studies were examined to identify patterns of CQ and leadership in the workplace. The process consists

of identifying patterns among the study results, as well as potential similarities and inconsistencies among those results. The analysis conducted for this research provides extensive information on whether CQ has an impact on organizational effectiveness by analyzing three empirical studies.

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Figure 1: Conceptual framework linking the two variables.

Table 1: Comparative analysis

## **CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION**

In the modern organizational environment, multicultural teams have become a fundamental feature due to the increasing use of teams, in addition to the growth of diversity and globalization (Friedman, 2006). Most organizations use self-directed teams to enhance task performance, and these teams are often formed with people from diverse cultures (Knight, 2007). Understanding how to ensure the effectiveness of individuals who are involved in multicultural teams has been recognized as a major challenge by organizations (Stahl, Mäkelä, Zander, & Maznevski, 2010). A modern, globalized operating environment is innately multicultural. Globalization is a result of government worldwide adopting more liberal government trade policies, efficient transportation systems, and advancing communication capabilities that converged during the 1980s, to provide an unprecedented level of human interconnectivity (Barnett, 2009). This leads to diversity of socio-demographic factors such as religious affiliation, gender, and race, which create a cultural diversity in the workplace. Cultural diversity presents major challenges, which are further exacerbated by factors of nationality. The nationality factor restricts the movement of manpower across borders due to territorial policies, international treaties, foreign relations, and documentation requirements such as work permits and passports. Government guidelines, educational equality, and freedom to choose workstations have further contributed to the common scenario in which employees find themselves in culturally diverse work environments (Rivera, 2010). Ensuring organizational effectiveness with the aforementioned multicultural team members has been recognized as a major organizational challenge (Stahl et al., 2010), and effective organizational leaders must be capable of conducting successful intercultural interactions (Earley & Ang, 2003). The continuing diversity trend has compelled governments, educational institutions, communities, and organizational managers to

rethink the existing policy framework in order to resolve challenges brought about by cultural diversity (Chapman, 2002).

Business leaders in the modern operating environment compete in the global marketplace to obtain resources, create value, and access consumer groups at cost levels that provide competitive advantages for their organizations (Barnett, 2009). These leaders need to identify and utilize the appropriate leadership approaches necessary to align the efforts of culturally diverse employees and managers with the organizational objectives (Blumberg, 2011). Consequently, organizations seeking to optimize operating results must have personnel capable of engaging in successful intercultural interactions (Earley & Ang, 2003). However, the reality is that many markets that were previously defined by a specific culture or geography have moved into a large, global, virtual platform. There, the capacity for universal interconnectivity is characteristic of its membership (Barnett, 2009). As such, the 21st century modern organizational operating environment is one in which “today’s professionals may easily encounter fifteen different cultural contexts in one day” (Livermore, 2010, p. 13). Barnett (2009) further indicated that multicultural establishments are important purveyors of resources for the operations of markets. They are crucial for those organizations seeking to reduce production costs or to gain access to novel consumer groups.

Although multicultural environments are highly favored, they have the reputation for being difficult places in which to conduct business, and that reputation has to be taken seriously. For instance, Gurung and Prater (2006) indicated that organizational leaders find that cultural challenges make foreign operations difficult. In an attempt to address the challenges of cultural diversity, organizations embraced a paradigm shift that considers cultural intelligence (CQ) (Lin, Chen, & Ye-Chen, 2012). Earley and Ang (2003) first introduced the construct of CQ, which can

be defined as a special form of intelligence that focuses on a person's ability, capacity, and flexibility to effectively perform functions in culturally diverse environment. Cultural intelligence is now seen as multidimensional in nature, with four wings:

- Metacognitive CQ is about a person's skill level in understanding and acquiring cultural knowledge (Ang, Hodrick, Xing, & Zhang, 2006).
- Cognitive CQ is one's appreciation of diverse cultures, while taking in account their differences and similarities, (Ang et al., 2006);
- Motivational CQ is one's energy that is consciously put to use when examining how diverse environments work (Ang et al., 2006)
- Behavioral CQ is the skill or capability to demonstrate proper verbal and nonverbal actions in cross-cultural settings (Ang et al., 2006).

Ang et al.'s (2006) definition of CQ can be seen as a complementary mode of intelligence that tries to explain variances in tackling challenges that are presented by new and diverse cultural environments. According to them, CQ is a construct that includes cognitive, metacognitive, behavioral, and motivational dimensions that are all intertwined. Furthermore, according to Early and Ang (2003), the study of CQ was built on a common ground that intelligence research should be diversified beyond just fundamental cognitive abilities. Because of these different dimensions of CQ, it is difficult for an organization to ignore CQ completely when its leaders examine organizational effectiveness and compatibility of team members. Organizational effectiveness (OE) occurs when team leaders have the ability and willingness to steer a robust organizational culture using informal control operations that have effective decision-making processes; this results in fewer disagreements (Cheng et al., 2011). Open vertical and horizontal organizational communication, common understanding, and a strong

sense of organizational identity also characterize OE. To facilitate the process of OE, matters concerning cohesiveness among team players and management always emerge and should be dealt with expeditiously (Thomas, 1999). Building cohesiveness within the organizational structure is an uphill task. Organization staff comes from diverse cultural backgrounds; hence, they have conflicting understandings and interpretations of duties, objectives, and constitution of the organization (McMurtrie, 2007). This lowers cohesiveness and mutual understanding, which makes predictability of the actions and intentions of members difficult (Ang et al., 2007).

According to Ang and Van Dyne (2008), social categorization theory proposes that an institutional team that is comprised of members with multicultural backgrounds is more likely to experience challenges. This is because research indicates that human beings tend to term individuals of different backgrounds as out-group instead of in-group members. Molding mutual understanding is a vital ingredient of the recipe to enhance cohesiveness in multicultural environments and has a massive influence on the attainment of organizational effectiveness (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). It is crucial, therefore, for institutions to appraise factors that mitigate the negative effects of cultural diversity on interpersonal relationships. Early and Peterson (2004) posited that extensive and intensive research has been undertaken to underscore the importance of CQ to the outcomes of intercultural coherence and effectiveness. However, little to no research has been conducted on the importance of CQ on organizational effectiveness and how to link those two variables.

The main objective of CQ is to provide insights into the long-standing problem of why some individuals survive well in multicultural environments while others do not (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Cultural intelligence is vital in multicultural settings, such as a culturally diverse organizational management team. It is an important component of any leadership position in

culturally diverse establishments. The recognition of this has made CQ increasingly popular, and it is gaining momentum worldwide. Leaders must recognize the force of inter-cultural interactions on their domain of influence: whether on the international front, or leading subordinates of multicultural backgrounds within their home country. Differences in cultural backgrounds affect the way colleagues and subordinates perceive their leader's ability to enact organizational effectiveness.

To improve OE, it is important for institutional leadership to appreciate the philosophies and perceptions of each member of their culturally diverse teams (Early & Ang, 2003). Consequently, organizations that seek to optimize operation must have staff members that are capable of engaging in successful intercultural interactions (Early & Ang, 2003). As such, this research is designed to examine the ways to facilitate successful intercultural interactions in a multicultural setting. This study will appraise the extent to which CQ influences organizational effectiveness. Furthermore, this study will focus on the cultural diversity of managers in cross-cultural settings and how cultural intelligence can influence their performance levels, which in turn may affect the overall OE.

This research will add to the literature of OE, in addition to CQ. The study will examine the effect of CQ on the OE in a culturally diverse organization. Using a comparative case-study design, the principal analysis of this research will focus on the variances in OE that may be due to CQ. Moon (2005) further emphasized that globalization-related problems are now a reality, and of concern to businesses and organizations, as well as educational institutions. Globalization has shown itself to increase interconnectedness and interdependence among people, institutions, and countries throughout the world (Meyer, 2007). Globalization has, over time, caused diverse settings to change even more (Adler, 2006). The challenging nature of operating in a cross-

cultural setup leads to increased fears of vulnerability, since team members from different cultural orientations are expected to adapt in both working and living together. In order to succeed at organizational objectives, management boards should ensure that their day-to-day operations are organizationally effective (McMurtrie, 2007). Cultural intelligence is thought to be an important part of the effectiveness that is needed due to ever-increasing diversity of the workforce (Early & Peterson, 2004). According to McMurtrie (2007), CQ is one of the major tools that can be utilized to properly predict the effectiveness of a multicultural organization's operating success.

Recent nationwide surveys on workforce demographic data (Dychtwald, Tamara, & Morison, 2006), projections from the United States Census Bureau (2010), and the United States Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) have shown that ethnic minorities and immigrants will account for most of the projected net growth in the U.S. workforce in the coming decades. Projected growth rates for cultural minorities are as follows: Asian Americans, 44%; Hispanics/Latin-Americans, 36%; African Americans, 21%. All of these far surpass the projections for majority Caucasians (9%). Thus, the overall United States population projections for 2050 suggest that the current Caucasian majority will likely be just about half of the total population, while the Asian-American population will grow to 8%, the Hispanic/Latino population to more than 24%, and the African American population to 10%. In light of these stark realities in the United States workforce, which are similar to trends in other developed countries, competitive advantage pressures and growing opportunities for jobs abroad require strong leaders with CQ. The leaders must be capable of guiding and integrating institutional units composed of members with diversity of ethnicity, race, ideology, and nationality (Roberson & Park, 2007). Further, there is an emerging global trend for employees to desert their workplaces



due to disagreements on the criteria for improving OE. Many institutions have witnessed a significant decline in performance because of this trend. Management boards and employees have been trading blame over the level of effectiveness and understanding to curb the situation. As such, leaders of multinational companies have implemented CQ initiatives to facilitate successful international commerce. For instance, Nevill Isdell, former chairman and chief executive officer of Coca-Cola, identified that utilizing initiatives derived from these concepts aided the company's trajectory to become a global entity (Isdell, 2012).

Yet, little empirically derived evidence is available to understand the relationship between CQ and its impact on the OE. Moreover, the literature review indicates insufficient research data on this important topic, especially on whether CQ can positively affect OE among team players in a culturally diverse sector.

### **1.1 Need for the Study**

This research study is designed to examine the impact of CQ on OE. Previous studies in this field have concentrated on cross-cultural challenges and values; these do not provide managers or leaders with cultural appreciation as a component of success. This research will examine CQ (a new multidimensional construct) in its relationship to OE that is measured through staff cohesiveness, performance, commitment, and understanding. Organizational effectiveness has received much attention in the past, but there are many contradictory results in the literature on leadership and OE (Steyrer, Schiffinger, & Lang, 2008). Hence, this research will attempt to add to the literature that focuses on leadership with regard to CQ and OE. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) raised a concern for practitioners who are interested in OE: constructs such as CQ are labeled as a critical skill sets for leaders in today's world, yet all of these are relatively new constructs (Earley & Ang, 2003; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Paglis & Green, 2002).

Therefore, leaders need more empirical evidence to explore the critical constructs linking leadership and OE. The researcher will conduct a qualitative multiple-case-study analysis to address concerns of leaders of organizations in today's fast-paced world. With globalization and the fast-growing need for cross-cultural interactions, CQ is becoming more and more popular as a part of workplace leadership (Early & Ang, 2003). Globalization shifted leadership in the following: (a) the way it is analyzed, and (b) the skill set required to make a positive impact on organizations. Leaders must keep abreast to keep up with the ever-changing world in which they operate, including increasingly common clashes as diverse cultural background come into contact in the organization (Early & Van Dyne, 2008). Cultural diversity is critical within an organizational arena as it impacts how subordinates sometimes perceive their leader or leaders. Thus, this has the capacity to influence the overall productivity and effectiveness of organizations. According to Klein (2010), cultural groups in the United States have become increasingly more varied, and White Americans, who are the current majority culture, are projected to lose their majority status in the near future. A challenge facing organizations today is how to organize and utilize diverse teams to accomplish organizational goals (Mor-Barak, 2005). People from different cultures have goals and cultural norms, which guide them toward goals and ideals of achievement (Brislin, Worthley, & Macnab, 2006). In order to be effective, it is imperative for leaders to be able to recognize the roles and perceptions of the different members of a diverse team (Earley & Ang, 2003).

In general, a number of researchers in the field, such as Bibikova and Kotelnikov (2004), Thomas and Inkson (2004), and Early and Mosakowski (2004), claimed that CQ can help leaders successfully deal with different national, organizational, and professional cultures. Nonetheless, as a relatively new entrant in the field of leadership research, there is a clear need for more

thorough empirical research based on the theory of CQ, given its increasing significance for cross-cultural leadership and the extent to which it remains an unexplored territory for business researchers (Deng & Gibson, 2008).

The ability to enact change and positively impact organizations is an important element of leadership for both the leaders and the followers. The convergence of these challenges has elicited calls for more positive forms of leadership in institutions and organizations. The hope and expectation is to restore confidence at all levels of leadership, since organizations rely on trust (Walumbwa, 2008).

There are many changes and new situations for organizations and their leaders to consider in today's fast-paced world. These changes challenge the knowledge, skills, and abilities of leaders. They also challenge their perceived leadership capabilities to meet the increasing demands of their leadership roles (Hannah & Jennings, 2008). Leaders must be able to adjust to changes, meet complex challenges, and have the urgency to positively influence their followers and the organization's culture, climate, and performance (Hannah & Jennings, 2008). Organizations are becoming increasingly reliant on an efficient workforce to gain competitive advantage; hence, it is arguably more important than ever to understand the nature, development, and implications of employee commitment (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). The relationship between leadership behavior and organizational effectiveness has been studied, but results have been somewhat contradictory (Steyrer et al., 2008). Therefore, the researcher will examine the relationship between CQ and OE to investigate if a significant relationship exists between these powerful constructs in leadership. Additional research on how contributors to CQ impact the field of leadership positively and, if the findings indicate, it can be used to create training to

improve leadership competencies for curriculum and professional development designers on how to adequately prepare school leaders.

## **1.2 Significance of the Study**

The researcher will attempt to add to the literature of OE with the CQ variable, which has not been empirically tested in relation to OE in the past, especially with regards to educational organizations. The researcher also endeavors to add to prescriptive information that practitioners can readily apply in educational organizations. Organizational effectiveness has been linked to a number of individual and organizational outcomes within both public and private settings in the US. There is an overabundance on effective leadership, both within national systems and across several different countries on the traditional models of organizations (Day, 2007; Jantzi, 2005; Leithwood, 2010). Research on multicultural organizations, however, is limited. In the multicultural setting, reducing employee turnover can lead to the improvement of both employee performance, and employee continuity (Ordland & Ruzicka, 2009).

## **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study is to examine the impact of CQ on OE in educational organizations.

## **1.4 Research Question**

R1: What is the impact of CQ on OE?

## **1.5 Major Theoretical Frameworks**

The theoretical framework for this study will be based on:

- a. The dimensions of CQ (Early & Ang, 2003).

b. Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) research (Dorfman & House, 2006).

Researchers Early and Ang (2003) used Sternberg and Detterman's (1986) multidimensional perspective of intelligence to develop a conceptual model of cultural intelligence (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Ang and Van Dyne (2008) defined CQ as "the capacity of an individual to function effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity" (p. 3). The aim of CQ lies in providing insights into the age-old sojourner problem, answering the question; why some individuals excel in culturally diverse situations and others do not (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Cultural intelligence underlines intercultural settings, such as a diverse workforce; thus, it is an essential skill for leaders in culturally diverse settings.

## **1.6 Cultural Intelligence**

Driven in part by globalization and the increasing need for global leadership, CQ is considered to be a fairly recent notion (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Although the current literature focuses CQ on mainly multicultural international settings, it appears to be useful when applied to diverse American organizations as well (Thomas, 2006). In contrast, emotional intelligence (EQ), cognitive intelligence (IQ), or social intelligence (SQ) are not likely to automatically transfer in a cross-cultural setting due to cultural differences (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). The lack of transferability of other types of intelligence is a key reason why the apparent transferability of CQ makes it so important for global and national leaders. Cultural intelligence is focused on foreign cultures, as well as on the process of adapting to culturally diverse environments anywhere (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Cultural intelligence is made of multi-foci of intelligence. Metacognitive and cognitive CQ refer to intellectual skills, whereas behavioral and motivational CQ refer to the individual's willingness to cooperate and their actions (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008).

All of the different elements play an equally important role in CQ and the extent to which an individual is willing and able to engage and perform cross-culturally.

### **1.7 Global Leadership and Organization Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE)**

Together, the GLOBE research and Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions present a framework for evaluating leadership behavior in the global environment. Recent research has revealed that CQ is increasingly vital in every cross-cultural work environment. Although it is not clear what factors influence the applicability of CQ (Crowne, 2008), it is now common knowledge that factors affecting cross-cultural competence are acquired through exposure, learning and professionalism, do not come naturally, and cannot be inherited (Earley & Ang, 2003).

### **1.8 Relevance to Organization Leadership**

Organizations bear the effects of globalization, which includes cultural diversity. Therefore, it is important to embrace effective leadership in such corporations to enhance growth and accomplish their mission and vision (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). A literature review by Mancuso, Roberts, and White (2010) indicated that there is a link between CQ and OE. Additionally, schools have experienced increasing diversity due to globalization. Effective leadership is therefore critical to ensure that schools are successful in achieving their missions (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). Based on the literature, CQ is important for effective leadership (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005), and research is beginning to demonstrate that CQ positively impacts leadership effectiveness in any organization (Mancuso et al., 2010). A better understanding of the factors that contribute to and predict effective leadership, particularly school leadership, would be helpful in the selection and training of school leaders. One aspect of effective leadership in multicultural

contexts is CQ (Alon & Higgins, 2005). Thus, CQ may be an important predictor of effective school leadership (Ang & Inkpen, 2008).

Developing parameters that measure, predict, and promote efficient leadership in organizations can aid in the coordination, selection, and training of management boards and general leadership. However, this is particularly important for school leaders (Alon & Higgins, 2005). It is crucial to study CQ to ascertain whether it is truly one of the factors that can be used to predict effectiveness in organizations (Ang & Inkpen, 2008). It is useful to have highly effective leaders in cross-cultural contexts because they are flexible and can work efficiently across diverse cultural environments without incentives or rewards. This is because they use their own willpower and intelligence to navigate through the new environments (Earley, 2002). Finally, CQ and its efficiency can influence the nature and structure of strategic planning and troubleshooting mechanisms. Therefore, if embraced, it can benefit organizational management and leadership (Earley & Peterson, 2004).

## **1.9 Methodology**

The fundamental difference between qualitative and quantitative research is that the first method focuses on examining and testing theories, whereas the second method is primarily based on creating theories, according to Goulding (2005). For the purpose of this research, the researcher will use a qualitative multiple comparative case study analysis in order to explore the differences found in three different studies in relation to CQ and OE. The purpose of this analysis is to find common ground and findings within the studies and draw a comparison for similarities and differences. Yin (2003) suggested that in order to validate a case study analysis, it should be framed using a theory that will be grounded to predict similar results. The study will

be anchored in the dimension of CQ of propounded by Early and Ang (2003), as well as the GLOBE Research Project of Dorfman and House (2006).

This approach permits the researcher to isolate patterns in data. The researcher can scrutinize these patterns and come up with a theory that is empirically valid (Glaser & Strauss, 1986). This qualitative research will explore the construct of CQ and its impact on OE in different settings by examining different empirical studies. The goal is to ensure that the topic is well explored (Stakes, 1995).

### **1.10 Limitations**

One of the major limitations of this study is that the researcher will act as the primary instrument to collect and analyze data. Thus, the researcher is left to rely on her own abilities and knowledge throughout the collection and analysis process. Guba and Lincoln (1981) mentioned in their study that this allows the researcher to only be able to describe the phenomenon, instead of being able to predict future behavior.

### **1.11 Delimitation**

This study analyzes only three prior studies that were conducted on CQ and OE. The sample populations of these studies were leaders in specifically diverse environments. The researcher will draw conclusions that are confined to the three studies selected for the analysis and will make an interpretation of the existing data in these studies.

### **1.12 Definition of Terms**

*Culture:* Hofstede (2001) defined culture as the intellectual process in one's mind that makes the distinction between individuals' who are members of different social groups.



*Cultural intelligence (CQ)*: Ang and Van Dyke (2003) defined cultural intelligence as the aptitude of a person to operate efficiently in culturally diverse settings.

*Organizational effectiveness (OE)*: The capability of an organization to realize intended outcomes or the efficiency by which an organization meets intended objectives. (Business Dictionary 2018).

### **1.13 Summary**

Cultural diversity and multicultural teams have become fundamental in today's modern organizations. Several leaders in multinational settings have found out that cultural challenges make managing foreign operations difficult. Chapter 1 summarizes the notion of cultural intelligence, defines cultural intelligence, and outlines its multidimensional four wings as metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral. Principally, the statement of the problem is outlined in this chapter, as well as the reason and purpose of this study. Major theoretical frameworks of this study are outlined, including CQ, GLOBE, and organizational leadership. The chapter ends with a review of the methodology used in the study, its delimitations and limitations, as well as definitions of major terms.

## **CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW**

The aim of this literature review is to explore literature relevant to the variables in the study and to create a knowledge base from which the current research was constructed. Initially in the literature review, the topic of globalization will be discussed since this concept brought issues that are now of concern to organizations of all sorts. Because globalization also created the need for CQ, information on the cultural impact on leadership will be analyzed. This portion will elaborate on cultural intelligence and its relationship to organizational effectiveness. To understand the challenges that the leaders face in the global environment in which they operate, it is important to first understand what leadership competencies entail, and what constitutes cultural intelligence enhancers.

### **2.1 Globalization**

Globalization can be defined using different perspectives, which can include economic and social dimensions. From the viewpoint of economics, globalization is the creation of a world market system (a globally integrated economy). It is characterized by interconnectedness and openness to international trade and labor movements operating in real time (Clawson, 2006). Economically, globalization is reflected by the magnitude of foreign exchange, foreign direct investment, and speculative capital flows. Politically, globalization reflects changes that have been observed in the political arena. From the political perspective, it is influenced by the emergence of international governance through regional and global organizations such as the World Bank, United Nations, and European Union. Such organizations prioritize certain development projects through international conventions and treaties, or through some development assistance.

Social and cultural globalization is the advancement in information and communication technology that led to the creation of an informal collective consensus and a global consciousness. Such changes have led to the rapid diffusion of information and major movement of people, and to the dispersion of ideological, linguistic, and cultural patterns and paradigms around the globe. Globalization has significantly impacted educational structures, practices, and policies in public schools in the mid-Atlantic region. For instance, globalization hinders the transfer of skills from leaders to individuals with whom they do not share a similar value system. According to Clawson (2006), globalization has forced organizations to rethink their approach to international business. Further, globalization has altered the characteristics of an effective leader. In the education sector, globalization has affected leaders, and this has affected their relations with subordinates and, as a consequence, affected student outcomes.

## **2.2 Cultural Studies**

There are quite a few areas of research regarding culture, cross-cultural communications, and cross-cultural competence. The recent surge in migration between countries and the ever-present globalization of economies (e.g., trade, the spread of technology such as the internet) has amplified the need for intercultural communications (Marc, 2005 as cited in Klein, 2010). According to Klein (2010), “cultural groups in the United States have become increasingly more varied and the once majority culture, White Americans, are projected to lose their majority status in the near future” (p. 4). A challenge facing organizations today is how to organize and utilize diverse teams to accomplish organizational goals (Mor-Barak, 2005). Different cultures have cultural norms that guide people towards the goals and ideals of achievement in different ways (Klein, 2003). It is important for leaders to be able to understand the roles and perceptions of the different members of a diverse team, in order for leadership to be effective (Earley & Ang, 2003).

Cultural competence is the term that is used to describe the aptitude of this type of leader. One who is culturally competent has qualities including, but not limited to, “genuineness, empathy, warmth; the capacity to respond flexibly to a range of possible solutions; an articulation and calcification of stereotypes and biases and how these may accommodate or conflict with the needs of culturally diverse groups” (Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 263). Bennet (2007) further explained that “intercultural competence is the ability to interpret intentional communications (language, signs, gestures), some unconscious cues (such as body language), and customs in cultural styles different from one’s own” (p. 375).

### **2.3 Hofstede’s Cultural Dimensions**

The present analysis attempts to highlight culture from a cross-cultural angle. Emphasis should be put on the fact that cultures may differ greatly from one another, and CQ can affect interactions amongst cultures. The research would be remiss if it did not include Hofstede’s theory of cultural dimensions, which is a preeminent framework for cross-cultural communication. Hofstede used several cultural dimensions, including human feeling, thinking, and acting, to conduct studies of different cultures in 72 different countries. He employed measures of power distance, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation, and individualism. All the dimensions used were verified empirically, with each country falling on a continuum indicating whether each country was more or less strongly associated with the dimensions. The analysis also showed that the dimensions were statistically independent, and that they happened in different occurrences and combinations. The analysis also showed that some dimensions happened more frequently than others (Hofstede, 2001).

Hofstede (2001) provided descriptions of each of the scales used as follows. The Power Distance Index (PDI) is the importance of status differences and a social hierarchy in a society.

The Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) addresses one's search for truth and certainty. The Individualism Index (IDV) refers to an individual's behaviors towards groups. The Masculinity Index (MAS) refers to the society's view on differences between genders. The Long-Term Orientation Index (LTO) is the search for lasting ideals in the future. Hofstede's research on cultural dimensions in such a large number of cultures supplied strong evidence for differences between cultures worldwide.

## **2.4 The GLOBE Project**

Another high-impact study on cross-cultural differences can be attributed to the work of House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta (2004). The work of House et al. (2004) examined global leadership and organizational behavior. The major focus of this study was to increase the field's knowledge of cross-cultural interactions and leadership (House et al., 2004; Klein, 2010). The study recognized that cultural norms affect the "social label attributed to individuals if one of two conditions applies: either their personality and behaviors sufficiently match the observer's beliefs about leaders, or the observer ascribes group success or failure to the activities of perceived leaders" (Lord & Maher, 1991 as cited in Steyrer et al., 2008, p. 365). The global project was a multi-method or multi-phase project, where investigations extending the world over examined the interrelationship between organizational leadership and social and organizational culture.

At the beginning, the GLOBE program had 382 leadership attributes and behaviors. They were later condensed into a 112-item questionnaire (Steyrer et al., 2008). Project GLOBE surveyed a total of 17,000 managers from 951 organizations in 62 societies, using a 731-item scale (GLOBE, 2004). Project GLOBE was intended to contribute, through theoretical

developments and empirical findings, to the effort to close the knowledge gap regarding culturally contingent aspects of leadership (House et al., 2004).

Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions were used in the GLOBE Project, for the purpose of studying 62 nations from regions representing diverse cultures worldwide. Findings from the project had significant impacts on international leadership, as six global leadership dimensions were identified from the project. These dimensions were of the culturally endorsed theory, and included charismatic or value-based, humane- oriented, self-protective, autonomous, team-oriented, and participative (Grove, 2005). The study identified 22 globally endorsed leadership-value attributes. The study also described globally negative leadership attributes. Using these findings, predictions could be made on the likely attributes of an effective leader worldwide. The desired endorsed leadership attributes for each region were shown specifically for each societal group (Grove, 2005). Both studies and contributions by Hofstede and Project GLOBE support the idea that differences among cultures around the globe do exist. This includes culturally ideal characteristics for leaders. Earley and Ang (2003), who were pioneering CQ researchers, used a multidimensional perspective of intelligence that was developed by Sternberg and Detterman (1986) to build their own conceptual model of CQ (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Sternberg and Detterman's (1986) multi-foci of intelligence has four components: (a) metacognitive intelligence, which is knowledge and control of cognition; (b) cognitive intelligence, which is one's knowledge; (c) motivational intelligence, which focuses the energy and direction of intelligence; and (d) behavioral intelligence, which focuses on individuals' actions.

As organizations globalize and the workforce becomes increasingly diverse, it is important to understand why some individuals function more effectively than others (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Van Dyne, Ang, and Neilson (2007) stated, "the realities of contemporary

organizations suggest that cultural intelligence (CQ) has important implications for individuals and for organizations because globalization and diversity require employees to interact with people from a variety of backgrounds” (p. 348). Cultural intelligence can be described as a theoretical extension of contemporary approaches to understanding intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003). Cultural intelligence is now on the list of intelligences that includes emotional intelligence (EQ), social intelligence, and practical intelligence. All of these intelligences are characterized by cultural diversity, (Earley & Van Dyne, 2003).

Emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1996) involves a set of abilities and skills that allow, among other things, self-awareness, impulse control, self-efficacy, empathy, and social deftness. Social intelligence (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1987) refers to an individual’s knowledge about the social world. It is easily argued that many of the important elements of EQ and social intelligence are not culture-free (Klein, 2003). As Ang and Van Dyne (2008) wrote, “Cultural intelligence lays emphasis on a person’s ability to grasp, as well as correctly reason, in circumstances characterized by cultural diversity” (p. 4). Since cultures differ, it is unlikely that cognitive, social, or emotional intelligence will, in cross-cultural situations, automatically get transferred (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008).

Hence, even if a leader possesses a high number of positive attributes, he or she may not be able to apply those attributes in another culture due to the cultural differences. Since transferability is an issue, CQ is important for both national and global leaders. It not only focuses on foreign cultures but has processes for which one could cope with situations of a culturally diverse nature (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008).

Ang and Van Dyne (2008) defined CQ as the “capacity of an individual to function effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity” (p. 3). Earley and Ang (2003) also

emphasized CQ has a “person’s capability for successful adaptation to new cultural settings unfamiliar and attributed to a cultural context” (Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 9). As Deng and Gibson (2008) pointed out, “CQ requires effective behavioral adjustments to a new culture, not just one’s thoughts, intentions, or wishes” (p. 184). Cultural intelligence aims at providing insights into the age-old worries of why some persons excel in settings that are culturally diverse, and while others don’t (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008).

Cultural intelligence is not inherited. It is “a basis by which the cognitive, motivational, and behavioral components of effective intercultural adaptation can be comprehended and, consequently, learned” (Bailey, 2004 as cited in Deng & Gibson, 2008, p. 184). Cultural intelligence does not focus only on global situations. It also focuses on intercultural settings, such as a culturally diverse workforce, and, hence, is an essential skill for leaders in culturally diverse situations.

Ang and Van Dyn (2008) mentioned that, the need of a workable theory of CQ is driven by both globalization, and the increasing necessity for global leadership, (Thomas, 2006), as well as the increasing diversity of the United States workforce. Culturally intelligent leaders are able to “pay special attention to the situation, and they have the ability to identify the information that is relevant for making a judgment and can integrate this information and situation to make the correct judgment” (Triandis, 2006 as cited in Deng & Gibson, 2008, p. 193). Per Earley and Peterson (2004), “a high-CQ person must inductively create a proper mapping of the social situation to function effectively” (as cited in Deng & Gibson, 2008, p. 193). A culturally intelligent leader can “recognize his own identities and how they are interrelated but has the flexibility to adjust, reprioritize them, and so on as the situation demands” (Earley et al., 2006, as cited in Deng & Gibson, 2006, p. 193). Ang and Van Dyne (2008) wrote, “Initially conceived as



an individual level construct, CQ can be applied across levels of analysis. CQ has relevance to groups, teams, organizations, and even nations” (p. 15).

Based on multiple foci of intelligence, CQ’s conceptual framework is described as metacognitive and cognitive, motivational (meaning mental or within one’s head), and behavioral (also known as one’s level of action) (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Each factor plays an important role in CQ and the interaction level of an individual in a cross-cultural situation.

Metacognitive intelligence is characterized by control and knowledge of a person’s cognition, or how a person goes about acquiring knowledge (Earley & Ang, 2003). Metacognitive competencies include planning, monitoring, and evaluation skills (Earley & Ang, 2003). A person’s cultural awareness and consciousness in a diverse cultural setting can be termed *Metacognitive CQ*. Three reasons exist why metacognitive factors are critical to CQ. First, a culturally diverse situation stimulates active thinking. Secondly, critical thinking is being triggered on habits, culturally bound thoughts, and assumptions (Ang et al., 2008, p. 17). Finally, metacognitive CW allows persons to evaluate and revise their mental maps, thereby improving their accuracy of understanding of different cultures (Ang et al., 2008, p. 17). Individuals with strong metacognitive CQ question their own cultural assumptions, reflect during interactions, and are able to adjust their cultural knowledge in diverse situations (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008).

Cognitive intelligence (CI) is one’s knowledge and knowledge structure (Earley & Ang, 2003). It is a person’s knowledge of cultural differences, cultural practices, and norms, and different cultural conventions. Cognitive CQ is, as well, an important factor in CQ in general, as this focuses on the distinctions, differences, and similarities between cultures, building the foundation for making decisions and achieving effective performance in a cultural setting (Ang et al., 2007). The cognitive factor in CQ is especially important because knowledge of different

cultures influences one's thoughts and behaviors (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Hence, individuals with high cognitive CQ "are better able to interact with people from a culturally different society" (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008, p. 211).

Motivational intelligence recognizes that much of cognition is motivated and is focused on the magnitude and direction of that energy (Earley & Ang, 2003). One's drive to focus on cultural differences is defined as motivational CQ (Van Dyne, Ang, & Koh, 2008). The expectancy-value framework of motivation was used by Earley and Ang (2003) and entails the expectation to accomplish a task and the values associated with completing the task (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). This visualizes motivational CQ as a kind of self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation across cultures, producing a sense of interest and confidence in a cultural setting (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002).

High-motivational CQ persons often put more energy into cross-cultural situations. As Van Dyne et al. (2008) wrote, "Self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation play an important role in CQ because successful intercultural interaction requires a basic sense of confidence and interest in novel settings" (p. 17). This is observed in high motivational CQ people, based on their intrinsic confidence and interest in cross-cultural effectiveness (Bandura, 2002). Behavioral intelligence, on the other hand, focuses on a person's ability at action levels (Earley & Ang, 2003).

Behavioral CQ, also a critical CQ factor, is often most visible. It entails the demonstration of appropriate verbal and nonverbal actions in interactions with individuals from different backgrounds (Ang et al., 2007). Behavioral CQ involves one's intuition and one's ability to engage in interactions in culturally diverse environments, and those interactions shape the perceptions of those they encounter (Earley & Ang, 2003). Examples of culturally intelligent

behaviors include self-presentation, the ability to communicate verbally and nonverbally, the ability to adapt, and the ability to use symbols that are important to the cross-cultural situation (Earley & Ang, 2003). Behavioral CQ also has nonverbal behavior as important component. This communicates meanings in a subtle way (Ang et al., 2007). Essentially, cultural behaviors vary in three ways: the range of enacted behaviors, the meanings of nonverbal behaviors, and regulations on nonverbal communications that are required, permitted, or prohibited in situations (Lustig & Koester, 1999).

In all, research has shown that cognitive CQ and metacognitive CQ basically explain variances in decision-making and cultural judgment, emotional intelligence, demographics, openness to experience, and general cognitive ability. Additionally, behavioral and metacognitive CQ have predictive ability concerning task performance, while behavior and motivational CQ can predict adjustments to new culture. There are three forms of expatriate adjustment over time that are predicted by motivational CQ in international experience, the host country, and realistic previews (Van Dyne et al., 2007).

Cultural intelligence functions as a causal factor or facilitator of outcomes, such as cultural adjustment and effective performance of individuals in cross-cultural environments (Moon, 2010). There is a constant development of CQ. Thus, one's level of CQ can be developed continually so as to adapt to cross-cultural situations. Cultural intelligence requires a base level of know-how, as well as an alternative point of view via mindfulness, and accommodating and assimilating this know-how into behavior ability (Thomas, 2006).

Perhaps not surprisingly, a sense of curiosity and self-efficacy affect one's motivation to become culturally intelligent (Earley & Ang, 2003). Individuals who are intelligent in cultural spheres are likely to see across common stereotypes and culture dimensions, understand

differences and similarities, and, taking these abilities together, react accordingly in culturally diverse situations. Cultural differences can “lead to misunderstandings which lead to conflict, low morale, and lack of productivity in work settings” (Levy-Leboyer, 2004, as cited in Deng & Gibson, 2008, p. 193). Ang and Van Dyne (2008) proposed a nomological network to explain CQ with relation to individual effectiveness in cross-cultural situations.

The nomological network is a representation of the concepts (constructs) of interest in a study, their observable manifestations, and the interrelationships among and between these. There are four major relationships have been presented by the nomological network. The first major relationships are distal individual differences that relate indirectly to the four components of CQ through state-like individual differences such as core self-evaluation, ethnocentrism, and self-monitoring (Judge & Bono, 2001; Neuliep, 2002, Snyder, 1974). Second, the four factors of CQ impact variables such as one’s subjective perception of cultural encounters and participation in cross-cultural experiences (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). The third relationship in the network focuses on other types of cognitive ability, such as general mental ability and practical intelligences (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). The fourth relationship relates to the strength of the situational variables in the cross-cultural situations. The strength or weakness of cultural differences is perceived to impact the stronger or weaker use of the four factors of CQ, which is described as a moderator variable in cross-cultural situations (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008).

The growth in the study of cross-cultural interactions can be attributed to the increased popularity of CQ. This has also had a major impact on the domain of leadership, ensuring that leaders must have an understanding of cultural differences that are in their work environments. The perception of a leader by subordinates, whether they are in their home nation or an international setting, is impacted by cultural differences, and can impact overall productivity of

operations. Leaders at every level of organizational hierarchy are engaged in multicultural-related interactions (Hunt & Peterson, 1997).

In general, a number of researchers in the field have claimed that CQ can help leaders successfully deal with different national, organizational, and professional cultures (Ang and Earley, 2003; Bibikova & Kotelnikov, 2004; Inkson & Thomas, 2004; Janssens & Brett, 2006; Mosakowski & Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Peterson, 2004; Triandis, 2006). Nonetheless, there is a clear need for more thorough empirical research based on the theory of CQ. This is especially true given its increasing significance for cross-cultural leadership and the extent to which it remains unexplored territory for business researchers (Deng & Gibson, 2008).

Essentially, CQ is a skill set that contemporary leaders need going forward (Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009). Organizations with operations in a global and diverse marketplace nature should incorporate CQ as a core competence, as this competence has significant implications in terms of training, hiring, development programs, and selection (Van Dyne et al., 2007). Subject areas that have incorporated studies in relation to CQ include global leadership and teams, international business expatriate adjustment and performance, as well as intercultural communications (Van Dyne et al., 2007). Future research should, therefore, focus on outcomes of CQ and an expanded nomological network of antecedents.

For outcomes, this could include contextual performance. Perhaps “those with higher CQ may have an extra capacity in contributing positively to the goals of the organization, as well as in a multicultural context” (Van Dyne et al., 2007, p. 349). The developing of institutions such as the Cultural Intelligence Center in Michigan, US, has been fueled by the continuous growing importance of and interest in CQ.

## **2.5 Leadership**

The role of leadership is to create a vision and impart the vision to the members of the organization in order to move them to action. This is done for the good of the organization, as well as the good of its members. A properly communicated vision should empower the members and provide them the opportunity to use and grow their skills for the good of the whole and is likely also to result in the betterment of the individual (Daniels & Daniels, 2007). It also provides a focus and allows for prioritization of what activities and goals are important, thus creating a more concentrated and efficient effort by the members of the organization. As Bass and avolio (1990) wrote, “superior leadership performance occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interest of their employees, generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and stir their employees to look beyond self-interest for the good of the group” (p. 19). Daniels and Daniels (2007) posited that effective leadership would result in follower behaviors that go beyond what the followers are required to give. They also suggested that effective leadership results in followers making sacrifices for the leader’s cause, and followers could help each other instead of being competitive with one another (Daniels & Daniels, 2007). Effective leadership also results in a mutual respect between the followers and the leader for what each brings to work toward the common goal (Daniels & Daniels, 2007).

## **2.6 Multicultural Leadership**

People around the world are becoming more quickly and easily connected. While there are many reasons for this, connectivity has increased partly due to advances in technology (especially communications), as well as changes to rules of commerce and trade (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). With these advancements, the workforces in most countries have become more culturally diverse and require individuals to engage with other cultures. In short: globalization is

occurring. In this context, globalization can be defined as a broad scenario in which individuals have social, communication, and professional intercultural exchanges within organizations and outside of them (Earley, Ang, & Tan, 2006). However, traditional leadership skills are primarily based upon research in the local and national context (Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, & Maznevski, 2008). While this context for leadership is still relevant, globalization is prompting a reexamination of leadership skills in order to have adept multicultural leaders. Scholars who are examining the area of global and multicultural leadership contend that traditional leadership skills from local leadership literature are inevitably used in this new multicultural context (Mendenhall et al., 2008). However, it is suggested that the global leader must use those skills to the fullest extent and intensity possible, while continuing to engage in the complexities of contextual dimensions (Mendenhall et al., 2008). The multicultural leader must be aware of the diversity of the workgroup, and respond with the proper planning, communication, and motivational methods. Mendenhall et al. (2008), stated that it is certainly more challenging to efficiently transform the mindsets and behaviors of coworkers with diverse cultural and organizational backgrounds. However, the potential outcomes of effectively working through these challenges could be of great significance to the organization. Leaders who enable a multicultural work group may get a big impact in their work environment, with encouraging flexibility, creative and quick learning capability, leading to essential business survival and success. The elements of globalization present many challenges to leaders as they seek to work with a diverse group of individuals within an organization. There are significant implications for organizations that are interacting on a global scale with customers, competitors, and subsidiaries. Effective leadership requires an awareness of the ways in which globalization and multicultural issues impact an organization. It also requires behaviors that are necessary for leveraging these

issues to develop them into organizational strengths and working to keep them from becoming barriers to organizational effectiveness.

## **2.7 Cultural Intelligence and Leadership**

As previously mentioned, cultural intelligence is a person's capability to function effectively in a culturally diverse environment (Earley & Ang, 2003). It has a direct impact on business dealings in a multicultural context because negotiations, deals, and even organizational decisions are affected by the cultural intelligence of the leadership (Sawhney, 2008). "The reason is that different actors of a single transaction may be from different countries of origin and could be under the influence of their own cultures" (Sawhney, 2008). The challenges of cross-cultural interactions can be met effectively if there is a significant level of cultural intelligence amongst the participants.

Cultural intelligence plays an important role in helping people understand one another and separating individual differences from more general patterns of behavior across individuals (Earley & Ang, 2003). Joo-Seng (2004) held that one of the most important aspects of CQ is the ability to do the right thing and make moral and ethical decisions. This is of critical importance to the multicultural leader, whose decisions have far-reaching effects.

Leadership is viewed as being a core element of organizations, and staff production is directly linked to its leadership. Thus, the organizational success or failure is contingent upon the kind of leadership provided to its members (Bodla & Nawas 2010). Leadership particularly refers to managers who are mainly concerned with the strategy formulation at overall organizational level (Berson et al., 2006; Pieterse, Van Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2010).

Leaders have a direct effect on the behavior of the organization's members; the leadership style and clear direction of these executives have a deep impact on the entire organization (Wang,



Tsui, & Xin, 2011). Therefore, on an individual level, it becomes difficult to calculate the effects of managers on employees' behaviors (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011). However, at the operational level, the influence of immediate supervisors on employees' behaviors and motivation is much more obvious (Wang et al., 2010).

Historically, the skills of leaders have long been the center of interest in leadership studies. The trait theory of leadership was proposed to emphasize that the leader is the central person who integrates the group and possesses the greatest number of desirable personality traits (Zaccaro, 2004). A well-known theory is the contingency theory, which stipulates that leadership behaviors can vary depending on the situation. Other research has shown that the effective leader indicates, through a series of transactions with followers, the path they need to follow to achieve the valued goals (Vecchio, Justin & Pearce 2008). Currently, the field of leadership research is in transition regarding the essential behaviors of leaders, shifting from earlier versions of initiating structure, consideration, and transactional leaders to transformational leaders (Sumner, Bock, & Giamartino, 2006). The transformational leadership theory was derived from Barbuto's (2005) qualitative classification of transactional and transformational political leaders and was extended by Fritzt (2005). Transactional leadership, anchored in a relationship between leader and follower, is a series of interactions or compromises between leaders and followers. On the other hand, transformational leadership emphasizes the changes leaders instill in their followers by raising the perspectives of their needs and by providing opportunities for them to develop capabilities (Fritzt, 2005). Unlike the traditional leadership theories that focused on rational processes, the transformational leadership theory emphasizes emotions and values (Howell & Shamir, 2005). Workplaces focus on mixing these theories in a research context to determine the effective leadership process. Avolio (2010) has conceptualized full-range leadership theory to

connect the other theories. It includes the existence of a constellation of leadership styles or behaviors ranging from transformational behaviors to laissez fair (those who basically do nothing while expecting results from the followers) (Avolio, 2010). A large number of studies have been conducted to investigate the influence of leadership on different kinds of organizational settings, such as businesses (Anvari et al., 2013; Anvari, Irum, Shah, Mahmoodzadeh, & Ashfaq, 2014; Bass & Bass, 2003; Bass & Bass, 2009). Similarly, large numbers of studies have been conducted to investigate the influence of leadership on followers' outcomes such as job performance (Anvari & Amin, 2010; Halldorsson & Offermann, 1999; Hayward, 2006; Hernandez, 2010; Shahhosseini et al., 2013), and job satisfaction (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Spinelli, 2004; Tsai, 2008). Few studies have actually tested the relationship between leadership style (full-range leadership style) and OC (Anvari, 2014; Shahhosseini, 2013; Spinelli, 2004; Vecchio 2008). Previous work has found links between transformational leadership behavior of managers and both task (Howell, Neufeld, & Avolio, 2005; Rickards & Moger, 2006) and staff performance (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Rubin et al., 2005) of subordinates. Also, previous work has found links between transformational and transactional leadership behavior and increased job performance (Geijsel, Sleegers, Leithwood, & Jantzi, 2003).

Satisfaction increases motivation for followers to make extra efforts, which increases the perception of the leader's effectiveness. Many studies about the relationship between leadership and performance show that a strong relationship exists between transformational leadership and performance (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). Thomas (2004) demonstrated that the capability of continuous adaptation with individuals from different cultures and their ability to manage inter-cultural relations is of importance among required skills. That skill is labelled cultural intelligence (CQ).

Working in international workplaces acquaints people with different cultural settings. Though their cultures may be different, they may share similar views with their coworkers. However, the differences may also present challenges. Indeed, the lack of CQ among leaders in culturally diverse work environments has adverse effects on workplace successes and team effectiveness (Ng, 2011; Van Dyne & Kim, 2012), as well as productivity (Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Earley et al., 2006) and cross-cultural leaderships (Dekker, Rutte, & Van den Berg, 2008; Gibson & Deng, 2008) and business competence (Janssens & Brett, 2006). Empirical research on CQ is rapidly growing, and CQ has been the focus of recent research on the effective functioning of foreign professional executives (Ang et al., 2007; Lee, 2010; Tay et al., 2000) and international adjustment (Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2006). Few major studies have dealt with the relationship between cultural intelligence and OC (Ang et al., 2007; Anvari, 2014; Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Rose et al., 2010). All of the aforementioned CQ studies determined that there is a significant, positive relationship between CQ and job performance. This relationship implies that the higher the leadership CQ level, the greater the job performance level.

Stone-Romero, Stone, and Hyatt (2003) stated that in an international assignment, poor job performance evaluation is often given to employees with different cultural backgrounds than their superiors. This finding implies that supervisors do not have an understanding of cultural differences in their expectations.

It should be noted that many managers who are successful in their own cultural environment would not adapt easily in a strange or foreign environment, while some others, when placed in a different cultural environment, are able to adapt their performance to the new conditions easily (Triandis, 2006). On the other hand, in the global competition field, many organizations have changed their leadership style from a transactional leadership approach to a

transformational one so that they could achieve their goals and strategies. One of the things that managers should change along with changing conditions is their leadership method.

The next subject is learning the proper and new capabilities, and one of them is CQ (Dean, 2007). It is a proven fact that managers with high CQ tend to be close with a multicultural team, and they have a relatively high influence on multicultural team performance. In addition, leaders who have CQ increase OE. Conducting this study on the effects of leadership on OE with the role of CQ will allow leaders to increase commitment and obtain better organizational results.

## **2.8 Organizational Effectiveness**

In the modern global environment, developing the capability to effectively work in a multicultural environment is a key competence component, needed to enhance an organization's competitive advantage (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). In almost every organization, there has been a shift in staff composition to include members of different cultures (Earley, 2000). Organizational effectiveness will be defined, for the purpose of this research, as the capability of an organization to realize intended outcomes or the efficiency by which an organization meets intended objectives. Service quality is an external measure of OE, while quality of interactions is an internal measure of OE. The concept of efficiency is defined as the comparison of what is actually produced or performed with what can be achieved with the same consumption of resources (money, time, labor, etc.) it's an important factor in the determination of productivity (Business Dictionary 2018).

Effectiveness lies within efficiency. Effectiveness is, in fact, the extent to which a task has been effective and successful in achieving the preplanned targets (Alagheband, 2003). Simply put, in any study, how much the goals have been achieved is measured, but it seems there is a need to have steps beyond this to define effectiveness. For instance, effectiveness is

witnessed in an educational course only if the following necessities are met: first, educational needs must be identified; second, a suitable curriculum must be devised to meet those needs; third, the designed plan must be implemented properly; and fourth, authentic assessment must be adopted to evaluate the process of education (Alagheband, 2003). Chester Bernard, a credited scientist in management studies, considers stability and the existence of a system to be dependent upon the necessary factor of effectiveness (Bernard, 2004). Effectiveness is the similarity between organizational behavior and organizational expectations (Alagheband, 2003). The concept of organizational effectiveness study was developed in the 1960s and '70s; theorists of this time made efforts to propose an optimum standard with more accuracy and extensive scrutiny. With a simple overview, we can conclude that effectiveness contains these elements: staff cohesiveness, commitment, performance/efficiency, engagement through identification process, personal and social.

## **2.9 Staff Cohesiveness**

As business and society become increasingly diverse, the concept of a multi-cultural team (MCT) is the new reality in today's organizations. Multicultural team members have diverse values and work styles that create challenges in terms of communication, conflict, and identity (see Stahl et al., 2010, for a meta-analysis). Wendi (2010) suggested that human values are in nature motivational and define what is important to us (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Rokeach, 1973). Years of research reveal that national cultures vary according to the guiding principles that motivate people's life choices (Rokeach, 1973; Triandis, 1989) and work choices (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004). Moreover, many of the process conflicts that arise in MCTs are thought to be rooted in deep-level diversity, such as team members' distinct and often conflicting

underlying cultural values (Brett, 2007; Earley & Gibson, 2002; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007).

Norms may shift as a function of team interaction or organizational culture (Earley & Gibson, 2002; Earley & Mosakowski, 2000), and values may also shift in the way that team members develop a shared set of motivational values that guide their work as a team. Like “work culture” in a multicultural organization, such team cultures are emergent and situated— they are activated and salient when one is working in one’s team (Brannen & Salk, 2000; Leung, Bhagat, Buchan, Erez, & Gibson, 2005). Schwartz (2011) noted the many benefits of value consensus, defined by agreement on the importance of values. The values can include increased cooperation, stability, coordination, and goal achievement. Similarly, teams with shared values benefit from less conflict and a stronger group identity (Gibson & Earley, 2002; McGrath, Berdahl, & Arrow, 1995), leading to improved team performance (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2005). Multicultural teams are confronted with specific challenges in creating shared values because their members are from different places, and motivational values could vary by national culture. For example, Eastern nations are known for endorsing more collectivism, and Western nations endorse more individualism (Hofstede, 1980; Schwartz, 1992). Given the importance of developing shared values in today’s MCTs, the current research proposes one set of factors that contributes to a team’s likelihood of developing shared values: CQ.

Research shows that CQ should positively influence MCT processes and performance (Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Ang & Earley, 2003; Janssens & Brett, 2006; Ng, Ang, & Van Dyne, 2009). Most research on CQ has been piloted in the field of expatriate adjustment and performance (Ang et al., 2007). In the realm of MCTs, CQ has been shown to facilitate team integration (Flaherty, 2008), and leader CQ has been found to positively influence team members’

perceptions of leader and team performance (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011). Past theory has predicted that in a culturally diverse context, CQ will have beneficial effects on team performance and team shared values. It is also disputed that in a multicultural work environment, CQ can have detrimental effects for culturally homogeneous teams, if not properly managed (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011).

## **2.10 Organizational Commitment**

Today's world experiences fast-paced changes. Changes can lead to opportunities but can also lead to challenges; organizations must be able to adapt to new challenges in order to succeed. As previously discussed, strong organizational leadership is a key component for organizations to be able to adapt to external and internal changes. Organizational effectiveness (OC) has been a longstanding interest to both organizational scholars and practitioners (Steyrer et al., 2008). This interest can be attributed to OE's "well-established relationship with desirable focal and discretionary behavior" (Steyrer et al., 2008, p. 365). For the purpose of this paper, the researcher defines OC as "as a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 14). Leaders who are committed to an organization have an effective attachment to the values and goals of the organization (Reyes, 2001), which in turn leads to positive communication of goals and values to their followers. As Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) wrote, "organizations are becoming increasingly reliant on a committed workforce to gain competitive advantage," hence, "it is arguably more important than ever to understand the nature, development, and implications of employee commitment" (p. 292).

There are a variety of things that affect employee loyalty, as Meyer and Allen (1997) pointed out: "Many factors influence employee commitment, and these include commitment to the manager, occupation, profession, or career" (Meyer & Allen, 1997 as cited in Brown, 2003, p.

3). According to Morrow and McElroy (1993), “organizational commitment is the most maturely developed of all the work in commitment structures” (as cited in Brown, 2003, p. 3). Several researchers have found interesting results when researching organizational commitment with other organizational variables. For example, “Loui (1995) found that commitment was significantly related to trust, job involvement, and job satisfaction. Angle and Perry (1981) uncovered a relationship between commitment and turnover. Weiner and Vardi (1980) reported positive correlations between commitment and job performance” (as cited in Brown, 2003, p. 4). Overall, it has been shown that “organizational commitment provides a broad measure of the effectiveness of leadership behaviors” (Brown, 2003, p. 4).

Meyer and Allen (1987) developed a three-component model of OC, which is characterized by three mind-sets: obligation to remain, known as normative commitment; affective attachment to the organization, known as affective commitment; and perceived cost of leaving, known as continuance commitment. The three components of organizational commitment have been found to be psychometrically sound (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The value of taking a multidimensional approach to the study of occupational commitment is that, as in the case of organizational commitment, it provides a more complete understanding of a person’s tie to his or her occupation. Although the three forms might be related to an individual’s likelihood of remaining in an organization, the nature of the person’s involvement in that occupation might be quite different depending on which form of commitment is predominant (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993).

Affective or emotional commitment is an attachment to the organization in which “the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 2). Continuance commitment is one’s commitment based



on the perceived costs of leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Normative commitment reflects one's sense of obligation or one's responsibility to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Hence, individuals with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment remain because they need to, and those with strong normative commitment remain because they feel they ought to do so (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Although sharing a common link between the organization and employee (continuance, affective, and normative commitment), the nature of the link differs between each type of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

An individual affectively committed with a robust willingness to stay in the job is more inclined to work hard than a person who does not intend to keep up with developments in the occupation, to join and participate in relevant associations, and so on. The same might be true of individuals who have a stronger commitment to norms. In contrast, people who have a strong continuance commitment (i.e., who recognize high costs associated with leaving the occupation) might be less prompt than those who stay for other reasons to involve themselves in occupational activities besides those needed to continue membership (Meyer et al., 1993).

Allen and Meyer (1990) emphasized that the three aforementioned types of commitment are components of attitudinal commitment; hence, an individual can experience the different types of commitment in varying degrees. According to the OC theory, an employee's commitment (at least that of the affective type) not only makes them stay with the institution regardless of the circumstances, but also adds to his or her efforts on its behalf (Steyrer et al., 2008). Many areas of organizational commitment have been studied; these include but are not limited to, many organizational antecedents and correlates (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This includes personal characteristics such as age and organizational tenure, sex and occupation. It also

includes several organizational related antecedents of OC, such as job security, job satisfaction, role ambiguity, and organizational culture (Steyrer et al., 2008).

A variety of antecedents of affective commitment have been identified, including personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job-related characteristics, and work experiences (Mowday et al., 1982). Meyer and Allen (1990) noted that by far the strongest and most consistent human relationships have been obtained with work experiences. Employees whose experiences within the organization are consistent with their expectations and satisfy their basic needs tend to develop a stronger affective attachment to the organization than those whose experiences are less satisfying. Continuance commitment presumably develops as employees recognize that they have accumulated investments or “side bets” that would be lost if they were to leave the organization, or as they recognize that the availability of comparable alternatives is limited (Becker, 1960). Finally, normative commitment develops as a result of socialization experiences that emphasize the appropriateness of remaining loyal to one’s employer (Weiner, 1982). Another way normative commitment can happen is through receipt of benefits (e.g. tuition payments or skills training) “that create within the employee a sense of obligation to reciprocate” (Scholl, 1981, as cited in Meyer et al., 1993, p. 539).

Occupational commitment can play a major role in the impact and desire of a leader to be a part of enacting change toward the best outcomes for the organization. One important element of OC theory is that a higher level of OC brings positive results for organizations, an assumption that has been at least partly confirmed empirically (Steyrer et al., 2008). The relationship between leadership behavior and organizational commitment has been studied, but results have been somewhat contradictory (Steyrer et al., 2008).

Some studies found OC to be influenced by participative decision-making and consideration, flexibility, emphasis on rules and regulations, hierarchy, and role specialization, as well as various aspects of organizational politics and leadership power. On the other hand, some researchers reported no linkage between OC and leadership behavior, while others found a negative association between leaders' production emphasis and some aspects of OC. By contrast, more recent studies investigating charismatic and transformational leadership have shown, with some consistency, a positive relationship with followers' OC. The posited link between leadership behavior and followers' commitment raises the question of where commitment is actually focused. Employees are likely to be committed to multiple and different actors, goals, and values (Steyrer et al., 2008). Although organizational commitment has been of interest for several years, many questions linger within the field of organizational leadership. As previously shown, there has been a fairly strong link between charismatic leadership and transformational leadership. However, the results relating to a link between OC and performance are ambiguous and indicate only a weak relationship (Steyrer et al., 2008).

Steyrer et al. (2008) conducted research to examine how senior leadership impacts followers' OC, and if a relationship exists between OC and measures of corporate performance. The researchers used the GLOBE project as a basis for their research, since the study recognized that cultural norms affect the social label attributed to individuals. They recognized that one of two conditions apply: either their personality and behaviors sufficiently match the observer's beliefs about leaders, or the observer ascribes group success or failure to the activities of perceived leaders (Steyrer et al., 2008). The researchers found the available empirical studies that focus on OC and broader measures of corporate performance are scarce (Steyrer et al., 2008). The researchers found that: (a) charismatic and value-based leadership had the strongest

relationship with OC than any other dimension in the study, (b) the second strongest significant relationship was team-oriented leadership, and (c) OC significantly predicts organizational performance in all three measures of company performance (change in sales volume, return on investment, earnings growth) (Steyrer et al., 2008). Hence, the researchers concluded “it can be argued that OC is but one possible mediator between leadership and organizational outcomes” (Steyrer et al., 2008, p. 370).

## **2.11 Efficiency and Performance**

With the new makeup of today’s teams, achieving organizational optimal performance has become a real challenge (Earley et al., 2003). Team members are typically of various backgrounds. So, maximizing results has, in turn, resulted in the acquisition of a new set of skills (Earley et al., 2006). According to Earley et al. (2006), individuals should have high cultural intelligence in order to behave or act professionally in a diverse, multicultural environment and improve job performance. Successful leadership in modern organizations is becoming more and more dependent upon CQ leadership (Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne, & Annen, 2011).

Leaders with high CQ may make their employees satisfied and high performing, simply by considering the impact of cultural values one brings to the workplace. They need to be able to analyze and adapt suitable leadership styles to specific cross-cultural situations, and recognize the weaknesses of the culturally diverse staff members (Stone-Romero & Stone, 2005). Studies show that managers’ CQ level and skills will have a more positive impact on job performance of employees possessing a low CQ rather than the ones with a higher CQ level (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). Therefore, employees with a high level of CQ require less managerial interference compared to their peers with a lower level of CQ who may be less equipped with skills that could potentially help them better manage cultural opportunities in thinking and behaviors that lead to

more confidence and self-worth, have a better sense of control, and engage in positive interactions with peers, that in turns translate to higher commitment and performance (Anvari et al., 2014).

## **2.12 Cultural Intelligence and Organizational Effectiveness**

Though previous studies have consistently shown the importance of CQ in an organizational context, as the world is becoming a global village, there is a need to emphasize the relationship between CQ and OE (Earley et al., 2006). Studies by Earley et al. (2006) demonstrated that there is a correlation between CQ and the effectiveness of MCTs as it increases employees' commitment and organizational outcomes. The general belief behind much of this past research is that organizational culture is an important social characteristic that influences organization, group, and individual behavior (Cameron & Whetten, 1983).

Glisson & James (2002) defined culture within an organizational context as a shared collective construct that entails a property of the work unit. This includes teams, work groups, and the organization in its entirety (Schein, 2004). Cultural intelligence and OE are, therefore, related as the latter would determine how various environments within an organization would function (Schein, 1996).

In his study of the organizational effectiveness of 29 organizations, Cameron's (1986) results showed that certain managerial strategies are strongly associated with high static scores and with improving effectiveness over time. He further emphasized that the right managerial strategy in a culturally diverse work environment was far better than finances, demographics, structure, or other factors (Cameron, 1986).

### **2.13 The Leader Member Exchange Theory**

The leader-member exchange theory (Graen & Haga, 1975) is based on the fact that leaders tend to treat their followers in different ways. Some leaders treat some subordinates as trusted assistants and in-group members, while simultaneously treating others as out-group members. The leader-member exchange theory was proposed to replace the average leader style where the relationship is vertical. In the average leader style, it is perceived that the leader treats all subordinates collectively. However, the leader exchange theory challenged this perception because of new findings that leaders treat each subordinate differently. Social exchange shows a twofold process that reflects different levels of relationship with employees. Such a process is based on the belief of diverse interactions of leaders, managers, and supervisors with their subordinate staff. The leader-member exchange theory recognizes that supervisors treat members differently due to limited ability and time (Bowler, Halbesleben, & Paul, 2010). The assumption of the leader-member exchange theory is that the effectiveness of an organization can be determined by analyzing the mutual influence of the behavior of employees and supervisors.

Social exchange is a voluntary action of a person motivated by returns expected from others in social exchanges. Social exchanges are similar to economic exchanges because they both expect future returns for contributions. However, the exact return of social exchange is largely unknown. Additionally, social exchange does not occur automatically. Rather, it is based on the trust that the other side of the exchange will fairly fulfill the obligation at the right time (Ma & Qu, 2011). According to the social exchange theory, when an individual receives something precious, they are put under pressure to pay back by kindness, and it is dependent on the recipient to reciprocate. Within an organization, the social exchange theory is applied directly in the leader-member exchange theory where the formation of leader-member relationship

involves a series of steps that begin with initial interaction. Subsequent interactions enable people to decide whether they can be able to provide mutual trust, loyalty, and respect to form quality exchanges. If the response to the initial interaction is positive, then high-quality relations are developed; but if it is negative, social exchange does not happen and this limits opportunities for high-quality interaction.

The foundation of social exchange is reciprocity because individuals are more likely to help those who have helped them before, since reciprocating an altruistic behavior is necessary to maintain interpersonal relationships. In the workplace, social exchange can grow from a simple employment contract to strong relationships built by mutual trust, love, influence, and respect. In high-quality leader-member exchanges, employees are afforded attention of managers due to their motivation, performing extra-role and intra-role duties and competence. The leaders support the members mentally and physically due to the positive experience. Positive experiences and expectations are vital in assigning challenging tasks, giving feedback, and distributing rewards. Usually, challenging and difficult tasks are assigned to members of the group and these result in increased levels of performance. Members are offered an opportunity to select their preferences, and leaders have a tendency to accept the preferred choices, resulting in developing a strong connection.

In organizations with low-quality leader-member exchanges, staff members will perform assigned activities and tasks, and their performance is evaluated by formal economic exchange. In such a situation, leaders depend on formal policies and rules to ensure that organizational tasks and activities are accomplished as required. Members in such organizations have little access to management and supervisors and receive limited information and fewer resources. The result is often low organizational commitment, high turnover, and general job dissatisfaction.

In a high-quality social exchange, both parties are expected to accept mutual interests and agree to pursue subsidiary goals. High-quality relationships are reflected in organizations where members go beyond their normal organizational tasks to reach desired goals. In contrast, employees in organizations with low-quality relations adhere strictly to their roles. In such relationships, individual behavior is dictated by self-interest, and the member is not motivated to comply out of trust or a sense of devotion or respect. The motivation comes from formally vested position power and economic control (Fisk & Friesen, 2011). The leader-member exchange theory has four dimensions: assistance and cooperation, loyalty, professional respect, and affection. According to Liden (1997), the four dimensions can be considered related to cooperation and respect. Respect can be associated with formal relationships that form outside work, while cooperation relates to formal working relationships.

#### **2.14 The Role of Cultural Intelligence on Leader-Member Exchanges**

The classification of leader-member exchanges as high- or low-quality is based on the level of mutual respect, trust, and understanding of the responsibilities and duties of others. In high-quality relationships, both the leader and member recognize common interests and agree to follow the objectives of superiors. When individuals are working in cross-cultural environments, they should learn and understand the expectations of their roles and how such expectations should be executed.

According to Stone-Romero et al. (2003), employees are likely to perform poorly in a different cultural environment when they have little understanding of cultural differences that can influence their roles. This is because they fail to conform to the expectations of their roles and cannot establish quality relationships with supervisors. Individuals with high metacognitive CQ are consciously aware of the cultural preferences of other people, and they question cultural



assumptions to adjust their mental perceptions when they interact with individuals from different cultural backgrounds and thus they can establish good relationships with supervisors and customers (Ang et al., 2007, Triandis, 2006). On the other hand, it is necessary to have a high cognitive understanding to fulfill role expectations. Furthermore, according to Chen et al. (2011), individuals with high cognitive CQ are likely to perform better in multicultural environments because of their practices, knowledge, conventions, and norms of that culture.

In most cases, motivation for executing job duties increases with experience and is the driving force behind group and individual effort. Motivation influences self-esteem, which in turn stimulates a person to establish quality relations with managers, supervisors, and colleagues. This implies that individuals with high motivational CQ are likely to forge better relationships as compared to those with low motivational CQ. On the other hand, behavioral CQ uses non-linguistic and linguistic actions to meet expectations of all people. These individuals also try to meet expectations by creating a positive image in the mind of other people. They have the ability to behave properly in multicultural environments; hence, the possibility of succeeding in such environments is higher than those with lower CQ. Hence, cultural intelligence influences the interactions of individuals and this, in turn, influences organizational effectiveness.

## **2.15 Qualitative Study Research**

Goodrick (2014) noted in his study that qualitative research is an empirical analysis that examines a phenomenon of our current world in a real-life framework, especially when this phenomenon is difficult to explain and presents ambiguity. Yin (2004) also mentioned that what makes qualitative study methodology strong is the fact that the researcher is allowed to investigate real-life issues in depth. The data is collected and analyzed jointly with the grounded theory, resulting in a deeper understanding of the problem being analyzed. Stake (1995) wrote

that a qualitative research study is a connected system that allows the researcher to concentrate on the issue at hand, not as a procedure but as a thing. Stake continued his argument by saying that qualitative study research has a better meaning when used to investigate people and programs. For Stake, there are four major characteristics to a research study: (a) holistic, (b) empirical, (c) interpretive, and (d) emphatic.

## **2.16 The Researcher as Research Instrument**

Guba and Lincoln (1981) and Piantanida and Garman (1999) set forth a qualitative research practice that identifies the researcher as research instrument. The researcher is recognized as an integral aspect of the research process, which also includes the intent and design of the study. The researcher as instrument acknowledges that the researcher contributes to the relevance and direction of the project, adding to the richness of the data established through the qualitative progression (Piantanida & Garman, 1999). The recognition of this concept includes the perceptions, professional and personal knowledge, and expertise of the research author and designer. The viewpoints, assumptions, and use of the review of the literature are based on the researcher and the discipline the project represents.

The researcher also makes various decisions regarding how the research is reported. Therefore, the concept of researcher as research instrument is implicit in the parameters of recognized and acceptable qualitative research.

## **2.17 Multiple Qualitative Study Analysis**

Social and behavioral science research is the exploration of situations and their complexity (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). In the instance of a multiple case study analysis, the examination is done and the research concluded. The investigator's main role is to establish a

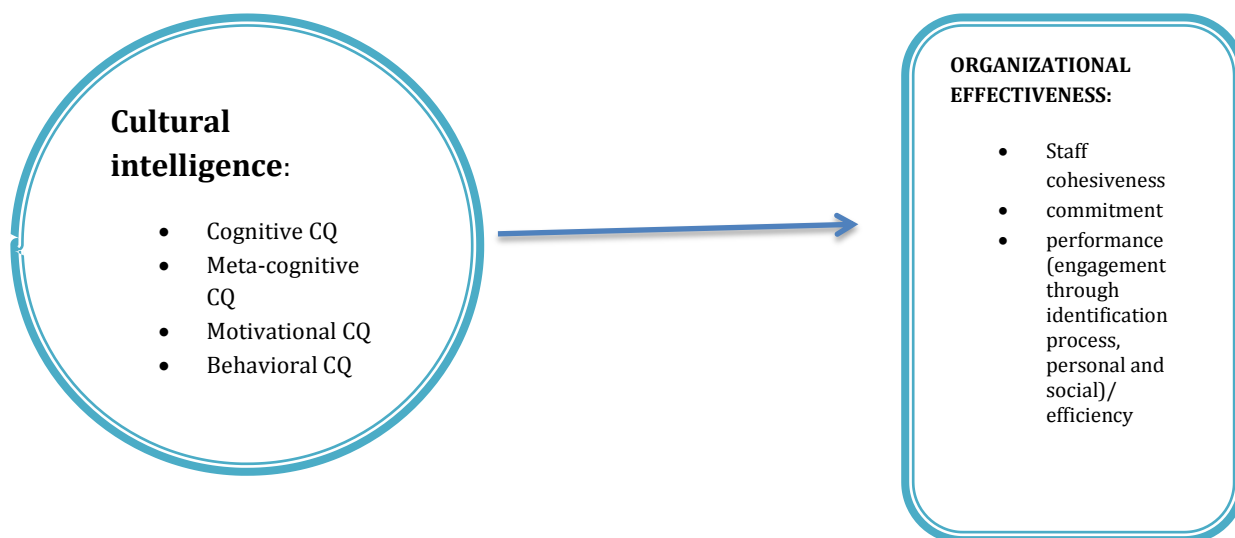
link between the various themes while recording the similarities and differences, and creating a ladder of pertinent issues and evidence for a specific phenomenon (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013)

## 2.18 Major Theoretical Frameworks

The major theoretical frameworks of the study are CQ (Earley & Ang, 2003), and the GLOBE Project. The four elements of CQ, defined by Earley and Ang (2006), are behavioral CQ, meta-cognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, and motivational CQ. Organizational effectiveness includes staff cohesiveness and commitment performance (engagement through identification process, personal and social)/efficiency are linked in the conceptual framework).

### Conceptual framework

*Figure 1.* Conceptual framework.



## **2.19 Summary**

In summary, CQ is important in enhancing OE in multicultural environments. Cultural intelligence is an acquired trait and can develop through stages as outlined by Chin, Gu, and Tubbs (2001). Organizational effectiveness, on the other hand, is a measure of how well an organization meets customer or client expectations; in order to achieve these expectations an organization should first analyze the quality of leader-member exchanges. An effective organization has high-quality relationships between leaders and members. In a multicultural environment, CQ is necessary to develop high-quality relationships that can, in turn, foster OE. With the modern globalization of organizational systems including educational institutions, it is necessary for leaders to develop global skills that can enhance the performance of their work environments. From the literature, it is evident that CQ influences OE, but there is no empirical study that links the two variables. The current study focuses on determining how CQ influences OE. Leaders working in cross-border contexts must cope effectively with contrasting economic, political, and cultural practices. As a result, there is a pressing need for careful selection, grooming, and development of leaders who can operate effectively in our contemporary, globalized organizations (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). To date, research on leadership effectiveness has been mostly domestic in focus and does not necessarily generalize to global leaders (Gregersen, Morrison, & Black, 1998; House et al., 2004). Hence, there is a critical need for research that extends our understanding of how differences in context (domestic vs. cross-border) require different leadership capabilities (Johns, 2006). As the study builds the arguments, it emphasizes the importance of matching leadership capabilities to the specific context.

### **CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY**

This research study will use a comparative case study analysis research approach. Case studies are better suited when the researcher's objective is to examine a phenomenon to better understand or describe it (Stake, 1995). This research methodology is an essential tool in illustrating the role and impact of cultural intelligence in an organizational context. Stake (1995) further explained that this type of methodology selects particular cases and gets to know them with the end goal in mind: not to discover how different they are, but merely why they are different than others. The thick and explicit description of a case study helps the reader to recreate what he could have experienced in person (Stake, 1995). Contrary to other research methods, case studies put the researcher in a position where he or she can perceive and take notes on what is going on while scrutinizing significance and redirecting what was observed to enhance or validate those meanings (Stake, 1995). A qualitative research study can better analyze the way problems are resolved and determine achieved outcomes on how CQ impacts OE.

Research conducted by Yin (2003) indicated that to validate a study, a case study analysis should be outlined in a theory that will be the foundational to the prediction of similar results. This research study will be attached to the Dimensions of cultural intelligence of Earley and Ang (2003), and the GLOBE Project of Dorfman and House (2006), which will allow the researcher to anchor the concept in empirical data (Martin & Turner, 1986).

Three scholarly, peer-reviewed studies have been selected for this research. A fundamental analysis is done utilizing the grounded theory of research design. This method entails identifying an area of interest through collecting data, observations, interviews, and public documents. Additionally, the researcher notes potential interconnections between coded

elements, organizes the codes, conducts a review of literature, and finally writes an emergent theory, (Scott, 2009).

Furthermore, in a qualitative multiple case study analysis, the research has already been performed. The researcher then triangulates the multiple themes, noting converging and diverging concepts and other components, creating a scaffolding of these substantive topics and emergent concepts, creating reflective explanations for the explored phenomenon (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013).

### **3.1 Research Question**

R1: What is the impact of cultural intelligence on organizational effectiveness?

### **3.2 Study One**

**Barakat, Lorenzo, Ramsey, and Cretolu (2015). Global managers, an analysis of the impact of cultural intelligence on job satisfaction and performance.** *Retrieved from*  
[www.emeraldinsight.com/1746-8809.htm](http://www.emeraldinsight.com/1746-8809.htm)

In their research analysis on the impact of CQ on job satisfaction and performance, Barakat et al. (2015) carried out a quantitative study on 332 global managers surveyed from multinational companies operating in Brazil. Their research sought to examine the effect of CQ on the job performance of global managers by investigating the mediating effects of job satisfaction on the CQ-job performance relationship. In total, 71 multinational companies (MNCs) were selected to participate in the study, of which 23 accepted (which constitutes a 32% response rate).

Barakat et al. (2015) tested their hypotheses with a survey of global managers from multinational firms in Brazil. The first hypothesis suggested that CQ is positively related to job satisfaction; the second hypothesis suggested that job satisfaction is positively related to job

performance. Finally, regarding the previously stated arguments, the researchers suggested a third variable: that job satisfaction transmits the effect of the independent variable (CQ) to the dependent variable (job performance). Thus, they posited the third hypothesis that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between CQ and job performance.

The researchers' aim was to bring in three basic contributions to the international business (IB) literature (Barakat et al., 2015). This includes an empirical study to ascertain job satisfaction as a possible outcome variable of CQ within a case study of global managers. Secondly, the researchers associated the job satisfaction and job performance relationship with global managers in a cross-cultural context. This adds to previous research on the job satisfaction-job performance relationship firmly established in the organizational behavior literature (Judge et al., 2001). Finally, they concluded that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between CQ and job performance.

The researchers highlighted the fact that their data was subject to common method bias (CMB), per Conway and Lance (2010) and Podsakoff et al. (2003), since the constructs of their study dealt with attitudes and individual perceptions, thus relying on single-source and self-report data. The researchers also mentioned that, although widely investigated, there was a need for further research on the topic to help address recurrent critiques of inconsistency and inconclusiveness of results (Barakat et al., 2015). The findings suggested that job satisfaction transmitted the effects of CQ to job performance in such a way that global managers who are advanced in CQ exhibited more job satisfaction in an international context, and performed better than their peers (Barakat et al., 2015). Hence, the global managers who are knowledgeable and able to understand and adjust to the cultural differences might develop a more positive attitude about their job, leading to increased job satisfaction.

The findings suggested that job performance is influenced by the effect of job satisfaction as a result of CQ. The researchers pointed out that the higher the CQ exhibition level of the global managers, the better the job satisfaction, and consequently the higher the job performance. Recommendations from the study (Barakat et al., 2015) included being aware of the underlying mechanisms driving job satisfaction and performance, and thus, international Human Resources (HR) managers should select individuals high in CQ, and train those that are not. Secondly, the researchers noted that increasing job satisfaction of global managers in the global context significantly improves the impact of CQ on performance, and thus, increases their performance.

The findings further suggested that CQ is necessary for increasing job performance for a global manager. Also, the researchers mentioned that job satisfaction is related to CQ and job performance. Therefore, a manager exhibiting more CQ in an international setting performs better at his or her job and has a better impact on his or her followers as well.

### **3.3 Study 1 Methodology**

The goal of Barakat et al. (2015) in this study was to cross-examine what effects CQ had on the job performance of managers globally, with Brazil as a case country. In this study, they examined the effect of global managers' CQ on job performance through job satisfaction. Individuals who were able to recognize, understand, and adjust to cross-cultural differences outperformed those who could not (lower CQ). This study was the first to test this relationship among global managers in Brazil, which increases the generalizability of other studies that have looked at CQ and job performance around the globe. Each company sampled from one to 63 individuals, with a total of 364 managers receiving the questionnaire. The response rate stood at 91.2%, with a total of 332 respondents. To be considered having “global responsibilities” individuals must have two or more of the following job characteristics: have at least weekly



interaction with other cultures; travel outside of the base country at least twice a year; be an expatriate; and coordinate global activities (e.g., managing foreign teams, controlling foreign affiliates, managing contacts with foreign clients and suppliers, etc.). These criteria were selected based on an exploratory study with seven Brazilian MNCs. Barakat et al. (2015) established in their findings that job satisfaction is definitely the result of effective CQ. Managerial performance in a cultural and multicultural international setting is therefore relative to CQ. Global managers who exhibit more job satisfaction were high in CQ, and this enabled them to perform better at their jobs. The authors suggested that global managers should endeavor to increase their understanding and in-depth know-how of CQ in order to boost their job satisfaction levels, and to perform satisfactorily in an international context.

### **3.4 Study 2**

**Dirk H. Scholl (2009). The Relationship between Cultural Intelligence and The Performance of Multinational Teams: (A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Business Administration).**

<https://search.proquest.com/abicomplete/docview/305121469/BF0E352026854381PQ/4?accountid=10458>

In this second study review, Scholl (2009) conducted a qualitative study on the relationship between CQ and the performance of multinational teams. He used different types of strategies such as an online survey on a multidimensional cultural intelligence scale (CQS), and other related survey techniques such as CALIBER (Culturally Adapted Leadership for Inspired Business Excellence and Results). The researcher established a correlation analysis of the responses gathered for both research themes and found a relationship between the factors of CQ

and team performance. The statistical analysis resulted in a strong positive relationship between all factors of both themes: CQ and team performance.

Scholl's (2009) research study possibly contributed to the provision of empirical data in the demonstration of the rational link between the factors of cultural intelligence and multinational team performance. To establish a relationship, surveying individuals do an examination with work experiences in multinational teams. Data gathered from this study could assist managers in providing information on assisting them address and mitigate factors that are important for a high performance multinational team. In this research, Scholl (2009) was guided by the research question: "To what degree does the cultural intelligence of team members in multinational teams affect cross-cultural team performance?" (p. 19).

Based on the research questions, a main hypothesis was proposed, backed by an additional alternative hypothesis. The main hypothesis posited was;

"Hypothesis  $H_0$  (Null Hypothesis): There is no statistically significant relationship between cultural intelligence of team members in multinational teams and the performance of their teams".

Hypothesis  $H_A$  (Alternate Hypothesis): "There is a statistically significant relationship between cultural intelligence of team members in multinational teams and the performance of their teams" (Scholl, 2009, p. 535).

There were some limitations noted in this study, such as possible bias from an over-representation of participants from the developed countries over the developing countries. A distortion of results from possibilities of false responses was also identified, as some of the respondents were not proficient in English (Scholl, 2009).

Computation was realized by using the Survey System homepage, a publicly available domain (Survey System, 2008). No hierarchical or functional distinction existed between participants for the purpose of this study (Scholl, 2009). With a few lapses identified by the research sample, further research is recommended with a more inclusive sample, as well as including samples from additional national cultures. Scholl (2009) established that there actually exists a relationship between CQ and the performance of multinational teams. The performed statistical analysis illustrated that there exists a strong positive relationship between all the factors of CQ and the factors of team performance (Scholl, 2009).

Scholl (2009) also established that CQ could provide a means by which individuals' capabilities in a cross-cultural context could be identified. A link was established between the four factors of CQ and multinational team performance measured.

### **3.5 Study 2 Methodology**

As mentioned above, Scholl (2009) put together this qualitative study to explore the relationship between CQ and the performance of multinational teams. The independent variable studied was CQ of individuals with working experience in multinational teams as measured by the Multidimensional Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) survey, with the sub-variables being cognition, metacognition, motivation, and behavior. The dependent variables, on the other hand, were team performance indicators measured using the Culturally Adapted Leadership for Inspired Business Excellence and Results (CALIBER) assessment, with the sub-variables being organizational performance and business results. Members were chosen from both classical and virtual multinational team members working in corporations globally. Individuals from different nationalities were also included in the population.

Primary data were collected and were used in analyzing participants as individuals (Scholl, 2009). Data were collected from individuals working in multinational teams from multinational corporations. A simple sampling technique was used as well in data gathering by a professional sampling service. Sample size totaled 96, identifying a confidence level of 95%, and a confidence interval of 10% after using data from a publicly available domain (Survey System, 2008). A cultural cluster was identified using the research program Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE).

The CQS survey (Ang et al., 2007) consisted of 20 questions measured on a 7-point Likert Scale. The scale ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7(*strongly agree*). Other questions measured sub-variables including behavior, metacognition, motivation, cognition; these entailed three, four, five, and six questions each, respectively. On the other hand, the CALIBER survey involving the measurement of organizational learning and business results consisted of 22 questions measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*to a very little extent*) to 5 (*to a very great extent*). The CALIBER survey is also associated with the measurement of sub-variants including organizational performance and business results, each having 15 and seven questions respectively, and sub-variable organizational performance measures further subdivided into organizational memory, knowledge sharing, internal and external environmental scanning, and knowledge creation; each of these were the subject of 4,4,4, and three questions, respectively. In total, the survey contained 47 questions, and was intended to be answered in between 15 to 20 minutes.

The strength and direction of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables are measured using correlation coefficients. Pearson Correlation and Spearman Correlation analysis were used as well. An analysis was done of the relationship between each

CQS and CALIBER factor, and Scholl (2009) examined the relationship between the cultural background of the population, as well as the four CQS factors: motivational CQ, metacognitive CQ, behavioral CQ, and cognitive CQ. There were 320 samples collected from individuals who work in organizations globally (Scholl, 2009). Data collection was conducted on the basis of gender, age, cross-border experience, organizational position, and educational level. Statistical analytical tools (SPSS and Excel) were use in testing of the research hypotheses mentioned above. Scholl (2009) established that individuals who possess a high level of cultural intelligence can influence positively the performance of a multinational team. The researcher provided empirical data backed by organizational performance and business results to demonstrate this positive relational link between the four factors tested: cultural intelligence, metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral CQ, and multinational team performance.

### **3.6 Study 3**

**Joana S. Story (2010). Testing the Impact of Global Mindset on Positive Outcomes: A Multi-Level Analysis: A Multi-Level Study (Doctoral dissertation).** Retrieved from <https://search.proquest.com/abicomplete/docview/305121469/BF0E352026854381PQ/4?accountid=10458>

The third selected research paper was a doctoral dissertation by Joana S. Story (2010) that examined the relationship between global leaders' mindsets (CQ and global business orientation) and followers' ratings of trust in their leaders. This study also further established the importance of the quality of the leader-member relationship (LMX) and organizational commitment. This paper was selected not only to further buttress the impact of CQ on OE, but to emphasize the aspect of leadership trust. The study also outlined the complexity of global role and distance as moderating variables.

Data collection involved 78 leader participants and 240 raters from a Fortune 100 multinational organization. The research included conducting a multilevel data analysis using hierarchical linear modeling. In summary, no significant relationships were noted between global mindsets and ratings of followers' trust in leaders, or in quality of the leader-member relationship. Similarly, a significant negative relationship was noted between global mindset of leaders and follower OC. Findings from the study support the notion that, without a considerable amount of interaction, global mindset would not impact significantly the ratings of OC. Also, the study (Story, 2010) established that followers who interacted more frequently with the leader than the other group members, and a leader who has a global mindset, reported lower scores on trust in the leader, LMX, and organizational commitment. With participants from collectivistic cultures, findings were indicative that followers would rather be a part of the group than separate from the group, even if that means less interaction with the leader.

The study (Story, 2010) tested individual level outcome variables, including trust in leaders, and organizational commitment as a consequence of a global leader's global mindset. Further research is recommended on the impact of global mindset on individual level and organizational level outcomes as well as global mindset antecedents.

As mentioned above, the complexity of the global role and type of communication were utilized in moderating the relationship existing between global mindset and the outcome variables. As established by Story (2010), the relationship between global leadership and the outcome variables were not moderated by global roles and the physical distance between the leader and his follower. Nonetheless, Story (2010) further mentioned that the frequency of interaction between the latter moderated the relationship. The researcher further points out that

the frequent involvement of interaction between leaders and followers fostered the relationship between global mindset and followers' ratings of OC (Story, 2010).

Limitations were noticed regarding the sample size, which was small. Larger sample sizes, different industries, and measures of cultural differences, were recommended for future research work to improve on this study. Also, adding mediating variables to aid in identified gaps would strengthen the results realized by this study, as well as studying other individual level outcomes.

### **3.7 Study 3 Methodology**

Story's (2010) research paper had as its purpose examining the relationship between global leaders' global mindset and the individual level outcomes of trust in leader, leader-member exchange, and organizational commitment as rated by followers.

The following research questions were identified within the study:

- a. Is a global leader's global mindset positively related to follower ratings of trust in leader, leader-member-exchange, and organizational commitment?
- b. Does the complexity of the global role moderate the relationship between a global leader's mindset on follower ratings of trust in leader, leader-member-exchange, and organizational commitment?
- c. Does leader distance moderate the relationships between a global leader's mindset on follower ratings of trust in leader, leader-member-exchange, and organizational commitment (Story, 2010)?

Organizational layer of the fortune 100 company from which the leaders were selected was a level 1 of the company and they were responsible for multinational teams that were in level 2 of the company (Story, 2010).

The data were collected via an online survey mechanism. The process identified global leaders, who were then contacted by email and asked to participate in the study. The participation was done by using a link sent in the online survey platform, SurveyMonkey, alongside a brief description of the research project (Story, 2010).

In total, 599 surveys were distributed to leaders, and 161 were returned, demonstrating a 27% return rate (Story, 2010). Two hundred eighty-two people completed surveys. Since data from leaders could only be utilized if linked to at least two direct-report responses, just 80 leaders and 243 direct-report surveys were deemed usable. The leaders' gender representation was 30% female and 70% male, with an age average of 44 years. Statistical data were measured using the 7-point Likert-type scale, with a 1 representing "*strongly disagree*" and 7 representing "*strongly agree*."

Since data collection required using both study participants and their raters. Hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) data analysis procedures were also used. This allowed the researcher to examine data from the two levels mentioned (Story, 2010).

The HLM analysis was conducted in two stages (Story, 2010). The first stage entailed the examination of level 1 by creating individual regression equations for each participant and their raters. Result from the different levels is then utilized to examine between unit regression equations on outcome variables. Thus, through this process, it is possible for the researcher to predict accurately the effects of level 1 variables on the outcome, and the effects of level 2 variables on the outcome. Also, this predicts slopes as well as intercepts (means), model cross-level interactions, whereby it becomes possible to understand what explains differences in the relationship between level 1 variables and the outcome (Snijders & Bosker, 1999).



The research study tested the link between global mindset and positive outcomes. The researcher established that global leaders with an international mindset impact followers' trust in them, and therefore improve the quality of their relationship, and consequently the commitment of employees to the organization. The research also contradicts the idea that both metacognitive CQ and cognitive CQ could both, in the same way, impact affect-based trust in leaders (Story, 2010). The strongest findings of this study showed a clear link between global mindset and the combined outcome variables put together with the amount of interaction between leaders and their followers. According to the study, the global mindset alone was not enough and did not impact the outcome variables, but the relationship between global mindset and positive outcomes became more significant when the frequency of interaction within and between was added.

### **3.8 Summary**

The purpose of this qualitative analysis utilizing the grounded theory design method is to examine the impact of CQ on OE by analyzing multiple case study researches. Sandelowski (1995) argued that qualitative sampling was based on quality of information gathered rather than the number per se (Sandelowski, 1995). It is necessary to mention here that as team performance increases, organizational performance is positively improved, confirming the positive impact CQ has on an organization. Therefore, a correlation exists between CQ and OE. The impact can also be felt at the levels of job performance of global managers, as well as the trust level of global leaders.

Chapter IV will utilize the qualitative data matrix to structure and code the data pulled from all three case studies in order to get words and computations to establish a relationship between all studies and enable the researcher to dissect the data already in place in a more systematic and compelling way.



## **CHAPTER IV: FINDINGS**

As Chapter 3 explained, three academic research studies were selected for analysis. They were also used to cross-examine the relationship between cultural intelligence (CQ) and organizational effectiveness (OE). Chapter 3 further emphasized the correlation that exists and examined the impact of CQ on OE. This chapter goes further by establishing some commonalities that were identified between the three studies chosen for analysis. The comparative analysis is aimed at the identification of common themes and outcomes, and a cross-examination of the findings of the three studies. Discrepancies are examined, and incompatible data are mentioned and examined as well. The chapter ends with a comparative figure of all three studies. The qualitative analysis matrix is the main strategy used to develop the commonalities and triangulate data.

The overall goal of all three studies was to explain opinions and observations, resulting in an agreed phenomenon, which established the impact of CQ on an organization's output or performance. Generally, it could be acknowledged that all three studies in some way led us to this conclusion. The results of Barakat et al. (2015) established that CQ positively influences global managers' job performances. Similarly, Scholl (2009) sought to establish a relationship between the CQ of members in multinational teams and their teams' performance. Finally, Story (2010) struggled to identify a relationship between the mindset of global leaders and outcome variables, such as trust in the leaders, leader-member exchange, and organizational commitment.

### **4.1. Study Methodology, Comparison, and Analysis**

All three studies utilized similar qualitative and quantitative approaches, although different qualitative designs were used. Data sources varied between all three studies. Data were sourced from three business and survey platforms: GADEX & GDI (used by Barakat et al.,

2015), PROJECT GLOBE (used by Scholl 2009), and from a study of a Fortune 100 multinational organization (used by Story, 2010).

A key difference lies in the different analysis techniques used by the researchers. The work from Barakat et al. (2015) (GADEX & GDI) was a quantitative, grounded study analyzing data using statistical techniques. The Scholl, (2009) study (PROJECT GLOBE study) was a quantitative correlational study exploring the correlation between the CQ of multinational team members in a global organization and the performance of their teams. The paper by Story, (2010) (the Fortune 100 organizational study) was a multilevel quantitative study, regrouping followers' ratings on their leaders in terms of trust, quality of the leader-member relationship, and organizational commitment.

All three studies used surveys to gather data for analysis. Barakat et al. (2015) conducted a survey targeting global managers from multinational corporations in Brazil. Scholl (2009) used statistical analysis online survey instruments such as CQS and parts of the CALIBER survey. Story (2010) used the HLM data analysis technique in her multilevel quantitative studies.

The GADEX & GDI study (Barakat et al., 2015) conducted a survey with the target being global managers from multinational organizations operating in Brazil. Twenty-three of the 71 multinational companies that were selected agreed to participate in the study. Of the 23 selected companies, 13 were under Brazilian control, and 10 were under foreign control. Thus, researchers leveraged the global nature of the dataset, which was diverse.

First, to be considered as global managers and to have global responsibilities, the individuals had to hold a leadership or managerial position (Barakat et al., 2015). To emphasize the cultural aspect of the data, all participants that wanted to be considered had to have at least two CQ-based characteristics or behaviors out of a list of four: have weekly interactions with

other cultures, coordinate global activities, be an expatriate, and travel at least twice per year out of the base nation (Barakat et al., 2015).

Based on these qualifications, the questionnaire was distributed to a total of 364 managers. A link to the questionnaire was distributed. To ensure a high response rate, follow-ups were done and reminders sent over a 3-month period. There was a 91.2% response rate, with a total of 332 responses. Respondents were from different nationalities, aged between 26 and 64. On average they had worked 13.2 years for the companies. The questionnaires were in two languages, English and Portuguese, to reach out to the Brazilian respondents and cultures abroad (Barakat et al., 2015).

Several previously published standards were used in Barakat et al.'s (2015) survey. To assess CQ of the survey respondents, the researchers used Ang et al.'s (2007) scale, which has four sub-dimensions: motivational-CQ, cognitive-CQ, metacognitive CQ, and behavioral-CQ. They also used the job satisfaction scale created by Agho et al. (1992) to measure job satisfaction. Pearce and Porter's (1986) 5-item scale was used to measure job performance. Cultural intelligence was measured using a 7-point Likert scale, wherein respondents were expected to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement (Barakat et al., 2015).

Data analysis were conducted using the SPSS 20.0 statistical instrument. They took the common method bias into consideration in order to recognize measurement errors.

In his PROJECT GLOBE study, Scholl (2009) purposefully explored the relationship between CQ multinational team members and their team performances. This quantitative correlation research study used a survey to gather data, just like Barakat et al.'s (2015) study. Cultural intelligence in this study was measured using the CQS survey instrument. The

dependent variable, team performance, was measured using the CALIBER survey instrument (Holtbrugge, 2009).

Data was collected using both survey instruments: CQS (Earley & Ang, 2003) and CALIBER (Gorelick & April, 2003). Data included: educational level, cross-border experience, national culture, gender, and organizational position (Scholl, 2009). The survey was administered online. The total number of participants was 320. Similar to the work of Barakat et al. (2015), the CQS survey consisted of 20 questions measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) (Dirk H, 2009). The CALIBER survey consisted of 22 questions, and subvariables. Organizational performance had 15 questions, and business results had seven questions. Measurement was on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*to a very little extent*) to 5 (*to a very great extent*) (Scholl, 2009).

Results from both instruments were then used to perform statistical analyses to test correlations. In addition to the main hypothesis, eighteen additional hypotheses were tested: The Null Hypothesis, denoted as Hypothesis H0 to Hypothesis H8, and the Alternate denoted as Hypothesis HA0 to HA8. Four aspects of CQ were considered and tested for, as it was later done in the study by Barakat et al. (2015): motivational CQ, cognitive CQ, metacognitive CQ, and behavioral CQ (Scholl, 2009).

The 320 participating individuals were sourced from global organizations. They selected individuals working on multinational teams. The differences between the Scholl (2009) study and the Barakat et al. (2015) study lies in the fact that no distinction was made here between the hierarchical or functional backgrounds of the participants. Cultural awareness was also recognized in this study, as participants represented 16 different national cultures (Scholl, 2009).

The survey was conducted online via a publicly available domain system, which is the Survey System homepage (Survey System, 2008). Scholl (2009) used a distribution list from a professional sampling organization. An exploratory email was sent to individuals working in multinational times, using email addresses. A random sampling technique was used to select 231 individuals for the final survey, eliminating 89 individuals. Other statistical instruments used were the randomizing function within Microsoft Excel to select team members who were assigned unique digits beginning from 001, 002, etc., and SPSS. Excel was used as the statistical analytic tool for this research study.

Story (2010) studied a Fortune 100 multinational organization. The work cross-examines the relationship between leaders' global mindset compared to their ratings by followers in terms of trust in the leader, the leader-member relationship, and commitment towards the organization (Story, 2010).

Data were collected from 78 leader participants, and 240 raters from a Fortune 100 multinational organization (Story, 2010). Raters were considered employees from this multinational and were asked to rate the leaders. In this study, the researcher contacted participants with an invitation to participate (Story, 2010). Like the other studies, this one examined an organization with a strong global presence. The survey resulted in 161 responses out of 599 surveys that were distributed to the leaders online. Additionally, 282 direct-report surveys from the leaders. Data pertaining to leaders within the organization could only be used if they could be linked to at least two direct-report responses. Therefore, 80 leaders and 243 direct report surveys were deemed usable (Story, 2010).

This multilevel study examined data using HLM, allowing the researcher to examine the data from two levels (raters at level 1 and leaders at level 2). The data collected from raters were

measured using a 7-point Likert Scale with 1 representing “*strongly disagree*” and 7 representing “*strongly agree*,” as was the case with the previous study. Global business orientation was measured on a five-point Likert scale and type of communication was measured as a dichotomous variable (Story, 2010). Excel spreadsheets were used to track the survey records, which were analyzed using SAS.

The survey was web-based, just like the previous two studies. The identified global leaders at the Fortune 100 company received emails to participate in the study from their HR manager. The Survey Monkey website was used to create the survey questions, and a link was delivered in the aforementioned email. At the end of the leader survey, leaders were asked to email each of their subordinates a link with another online survey (Story, 2010).

Cultural diversity of survey respondents was high, with about 41 nationalities represented in this study. Most participants that showed up for the survey were males, and the researcher needed to consider as many responses as possible. Gender therefore was not considered a major issue as the participants constituted 30% female and 70% male, with an average age of 44 years. Raters were 35% female and 65% male with an average age of 41 years.

Several variables were measured by Story (2010), including trust, leader-member-exchange, organizational commitment, CQ, global business orientation, complexity of global role, leader distance, and demographics. The first three were used as dependent variables, the next five were used as independent variables.

With regards to confidentiality, all three studies were in compliance with human research regulations. Responses were fully anonymous, and participation was voluntary. The lowest age limit in all three studies was 18 years. Consent was requested from participants in every case if



data was to be utilized or otherwise retained in some cases. In the second GLOBE study, all data was to be destroyed by shredding and safe disposal after a 3-year possession period.

#### **4.2. Barakat et al. Study**

The findings for the Brazilian study (Barakat et al., 2015) were obtained primarily by examining the effect of global managers' CQ on job performance through job satisfaction. The researcher mentions that statistical analysis began with discussions on the characteristics of the sample population, and examination of the correlation between variables. Subsequently examination established the effects of overall CQ on job performance through job satisfaction.

The paper further aimed to investigate the mediation effect of job satisfaction on the CQ-job performance relationship. In so doing, it introduced three contributions to the international business literature by hypothesizing three things. First, it introduced job satisfaction as a possible outcome variable of CQ. Second, there was the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. A third hypothesis, is to justify global managers as being subjects in emerging markets, and therefore play the mediating role of job satisfaction on the CQ-job performance relationship. This was referenced in earlier studies, such as Abdul Malek and Budhwar (2013), who examined expatriates based in multinational corporations in Malaysia and found a positive influence of CQ on performance. The final contribution to this research study, therefore, suggests that a third variable, job satisfaction, transmits the effect of the independent variable (CQ) to the dependent variable (job performance).

To assess the mediation hypothesis (H3), the researchers estimated the indirect effect of overall CQ on job performance. They did this by calculating the product of the OLS regression coefficient, estimating job satisfaction based on overall CQ, and job performance based on job satisfaction, while controlling for overall CQ (Barakat et al., 2015).

Job performance was tested in mediating for the CQ-job satisfaction relationship with the SPSS INDIRECT macro. This was to ensure that it was not possible to have reversal of the causal order between the dependent variable and the mediator. Meanwhile, the mediation effect resulted in a partial relationship between CQ and job satisfaction. However, by comparing the model results, the researchers demonstrated that though only partial mediation could be established in both mediation models, significantly higher variances could be explained than in the model in full, with performance as the mediator.

Since the constructs of the study were attitudes and individual perceptions, the researcher opted for single-source and self-report data. Furthermore, the Barakat et al. (2015) study employed several scales in order to decrease the chance of satisficing. The researchers also reversed the order of the dependent and independent variable items (Barakat et al., 2015). To further test for common method bias (CMB), the researchers empirically assessed possibilities of any common source effects that biased their results. Results indicated that the differences between the models was significant, thus suggesting the existence of CMB, although evidence indicated that this wasn't significant enough to threaten the hypothesis testing.

A total of 332 global managers from 23 multinational companies completed the survey, and the results were consistent with the initial predictions. Barakat et al. (2015) concluded that CQ is positively related to job satisfaction and job performance. There is also a positive relationship between job performance and job satisfaction (Barakat et al., 2015).

#### **4.3. The Scholl 2009 Study**

The findings of Scholl (2009) (the GLOBE study) were obtained by conducting statistical analyses on the main hypothesis and on eight other hypotheses as listed below.

Hypothesis H0 (Null Hypothesis): There is no statistically significant relationship between cultural intelligence of team members in multinational teams and the performance of their teams.

Hypothesis HA (Alternate Hypothesis): There is a statistically significant relationship between cultural intelligence of team members in multinational teams and the performance of their teams.

Hypothesis H01 (Null Hypothesis): There is no statistically significant relationship between the metacognitive CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and organizational performance.

Hypothesis HA1 (Alternate Hypothesis): There is a statistically significant relationship between the metacognitive CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and organizational performance.

Hypothesis H02 (Null Hypothesis): There is no statistically significant relationship between the metacognitive CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and business results.

Hypothesis HA2 (Alternate Hypothesis): There is a statistically significant relationship between the metacognitive CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and business results.

Hypothesis H03 (Null Hypothesis): There is no statistically significant relationship between the cognitive CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and organizational performance.

Hypothesis HA3 (Alternate Hypothesis): There is a statistically significant relationship between the cognitive CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and organizational performance.

Hypothesis H04 (Null Hypothesis): There is no statistically significant relationship between the cognitive CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and business results.

Hypothesis HA4 (Alternate Hypothesis): There is a statistically significant relationship between the cognitive CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and business results.

Hypothesis H05 (Null Hypothesis): There is no statistically significant relationship between the behavioral CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and organizational performance.

Hypothesis HA5 (Alternate Hypothesis): There is a statistically significant relationship between the behavioral CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and organizational performance.

Hypothesis H06 (Null Hypothesis): There is no statistically significant relationship between the behavioral CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and business results.

Hypothesis HA6 (Alternate Hypothesis): There is a statistically significant relationship between the behavioral CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and business results.

Hypothesis H07 (Null Hypothesis): There is no statistically significant relationship between the motivational CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and organizational performance.

Hypothesis HA7 (Alternate Hypothesis): There is a statistically significant relationship between the motivational CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and organizational performance.

Hypothesis H08 (Null Hypothesis): There is no statistically significant relationship between the motivational CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and business results.

Hypothesis HA8 (Alternate Hypothesis): There is a statistically significant relationship between the motivational CQ factor of team members in multinational teams and business results.

This correlational study aimed to establish whether there is a statistically significant relationship between both variables mentioned in 4.1 above (CQ and team performance) (Scholl, 2009).

The data analyses included, first, a pilot study to test for question clarity and the survey's ease of use. The pilot test had 12 participants. Feedback from this provided strong evidence that the survey was clearly understood by participants and was easy to use.

Completed surveys were then screened for missing data and conformity to required parameters. Data was also screened by demographical analysis, which confirmed all key demographic groups were represented. The possibility of missing data was later screened using SPSS; SPSS did not locate any missing data, and no conspicuous pattern was found with the supplied data. Data distribution was examined using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, which revealed that the data were normally distributed. Scholl (2009) then performed all hypothesis was then done using a Pearson correlation.

The hypotheses were then tested during a final stage of analysis, using the SPSS 2.0 and Excel statistical analytical tools (Scholl, 2009). In testing each hypothesis to determine the relationship between CQ and team performance, an analysis between the pair of variables was conducted to determine the existence (or non-existence) of a statistically significant relationship. The samples correlation coefficient (denoted by  $r$ ) indicated that there was a positive relationship between the variables (Scholl, 2009).

Five themes were considered in the data analysis. Theme 1, which was the main research hypothesis, analyzed the relationship between overall CQ and overall team performance. The null hypothesis was rejected, as results indicated that a statistically significant relationship ( $r = 0.507$ ) was observed between total CQ ( $M = 96.52$ ,  $SD = 21.475$ ,  $n = 144$ ) and total team performance ( $M = 84.42$ ,  $SD = 13.392$ ,  $n = 144$ ) at a .01 level (two-tailed) (Scholl, 2009). Therefore, findings illustrated that there is a statistically significant relationship between CQ of team members in a multinational team setting and team performance.

The second theme, known as Theme 2, has to do with metacognitive CQ and team performance. The researcher analyzed the influence metacognitive CQ on team performance. Again, a statistically significant relationship ( $r = 0.505$ ) was observed between total metacognitive cultural intelligence ( $M = 21.01$ ,  $SD = 5.074$ ,  $n = 144$ ) and organizational performance ( $M = 57.29$ ,  $SD = 9.248$ ,  $n = 144$ ) at a .01 level (two-tailed) (Scholl, 2009).

The third theme, (Theme 3) cognitive CQ and team performance, analyzed the relationship between cognitive CQ and team performance factors. Results again demonstrated that a statistically significant relationship ( $r = 0.394$ ) was observed between total cognitive cultural intelligence ( $M = 25.15$ ,  $SD = 8.264$ ,  $n = 144$ ) and organizational performance ( $M = 57.29$ ,  $SD = 9.248$ ,  $n = 144$ ) at a .01 level (two-tailed) (Holtbrugge, 2009).

The fourth theme was motivational CQ and team performance, and it analyzed the existence of a statistical relationship between motivational CQ factor team members in a multinational setting and the performance of an organization. Once more, results demonstrated that a statistically significant relationship ( $r = 0.566$ ) was observed between motivational CQ ( $M = 26.13$ ,  $SD = 6.217$ ,  $n = 144$ ) and organizational performance ( $M = 57.29$ ,  $SD = 9.248$ ,  $n = 144$ ) at a .01 level (two-tailed) (Scholl, 2009).

The last theme, Theme 5, centered on behavioral CQ and team performance, and analyzed the existence of a relationship between the behavioral CQ factor of multinational setting team members and the performance of an organization. The results demonstrated that a statistically significant relationship ( $r = 0.388$ ) was observed between total behavioral CQ ( $M = 24.24$ ,  $SD = 6.564$ ,  $n = 144$ ) and the performance of an organization ( $M = 57.29$ ,  $SD = 9.248$ ,  $n = 144$ ) at a .01 level (two-tailed) (Scholl, 2009). The results from the findings indicated the

existence of a positive relationship for all nine hypotheses as seen in section 4.1 above, (Scholl, 2009)

#### **4.4. The Story 2010 Study**

The goal of the Story, (2010) (Fortune 100 multinational organizational study) was to analyze the global mindset of leaders and to determine its impact on their followers. This was based in employees' trust in their leaders, the quality of the relationships between the leader and followers, and the followers' organizational commitment.

As mentioned previously, this multilevel study utilized HLM for data analysis. The researcher requested that scale items be divided into subscales for each variable. Participating leaders completed a CQ measure, a global-orientation measure, and a complexity of the global role measure. Their raters, on the other hand, completed the trust-in-leader measure, a leader-member-exchange measure, an organizational-commitment measure, and a leader-distance measure (Story, 2010).

Story (2010) proceeded with data collection via leaders and their direct reports. Using HLM, the researcher adopted a two-level method to cross-investigate level 1 separately from level 2. All three outcome variables (trust, LMX, and organizational commitment) were separately examined. The leaders' raters were allowed to rate the level 2 variables, which included leader distance (frequency of interaction and physical distance) (Story, 2010).

Data analysis was done using HLM procedures, which was accomplished using SAS PROC MIXED, and fit into HLM models. The researcher then added global roles scores, trust-in-leader scores, and LMX scores, to create a summative score of each. The summative score was also derived by adding metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and global business orientation (Story, 2010).

When it came to scale reliabilities, CQ had a reliability rate of .90, and its subscales also reported acceptable reliabilities: metacognitive CQ ( $\alpha = .79$ ), cognitive CQ ( $\alpha = .89$ ), behavioral CQ ( $\alpha = .89$ ), and motivational CQ ( $\alpha = .83$ ) (Story, 2010). All other sub-variants also had acceptable reliability coefficients. The researcher also mentions that the global business orientation was also significantly correlated to all scores, and negatively correlated to cognition-based trust, ranging from  $r = .19$  to  $.31$ , and ( $r = -.18$ ), respectively, for the negative results. Outcome variables were also correlated between them. Affect-based trust and cognition-based trust were both significantly correlated ( $r = .59$ ), LMX ( $r = .84$ ), as was commitment to the organization ( $r = .38$ ). A correlation also existed between cognition-based trust and LMX, and organizational commitment respectively at ( $r = .69$ ) and ( $r = .44$ ). Finally, significant correlation also existed between LMX and organizational commitment ( $r = .41$ ). The researcher also reported that negative correlations existed between leaders' frequency of interaction and follower, to global business orientation, ( $r = -.22$ ), and leader distance ( $r = -.23$ ). On the other hand, for frequency of interaction between leader and follower, positive correlation existed with effect-based trust ( $r = .35$ ), cognition-based trust ( $r = .15$ ), and LMX ( $r = .38$ ) (Story, 2010).

The researcher noticed a high correlation, ranging from  $r = .38$  to  $r = .83$ , between variables within the study. Correlations existed between metacognitive-CQ, behavioral-CQ, and motivational-CQ, cognitive-CQ, and OE.

Results indicated that there is no significant relationship between global mindset and followers' trust rating in the leader, or quality of the leader-member relationship (Story, 2010). A negative relationship between organizational commitment of the followers and the global mindset of the leaders was also found.



The frequency of interaction between leaders and followers moderated the relationship between global leadership and outcome variables. However, this wasn't the case for variables such as global roles, and for physical distance between leaders and followers. Frequency of interaction between both level participants worked to increase and strengthen the relationship between global mindset followers' ratings of organizations.

Furthermore, Story (2010) discovered that frequent interactions between leaders and followers had an effect on weakening the relationship between global mindset and affect-based trust, Leader Member exchange, and commitment within the organization (Story, 2010). This indicated that when followers had more interactions with their leader than they had with their own working group, this led to the fall-off in trust (Story, 2010). The results supported the notion that where there is an insufficient amount of interaction, organizational commitment rating would not be significantly impacted by global mindset (Story, 2010).

Table 1

*Brief Comparison of the Studies*

Characteristics	Case Study One (Barakat et al. 2015)	Case Study Two (Holtbrugge, 2009)	Case Study Three (Story, 2010)
Theme	Global managers: An analysis of the impact of cultural intelligence (CQ) on job satisfaction and performance (Barakat et al., 2015).	The relationship between CQ and the performance of multinational teams (Holtbrugge, 2009).	Testing the impact of global mindset on positive outcomes: A multilevel analysis (Story, 2010).

Problem	<p>There is a need to address and to better understand the relationship between cross-cultural skills and job performance within a global business context. To investigate the mediation effect of job satisfaction on the CQ-job performance relationship.</p>	<p>There is a need to understand what cultural diversity presents and additional challenges to teamwork. Members of multinational teams need a special set of skills to enable them and their team to perform. To understand specific problems on cultural issues, and their role in the failure of multinational teamwork.</p> <p>To address the shortcomings in the lack of empirical data about a potential relationship</p>	<p>There is a need to gain a shared understanding of what globalized economies have brought as challenges and opportunities to organizations and communities. To aid the field of global leadership and international management by understanding the nuances of global mindset, and how a leader's global mindset impacts follower trust in the leader, the quality of their relationship, and organizational commitment.</p>
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		between CQ and the performance of multinational teams.	
Purpose	The purpose of this paper is to examine the effect of cultural intelligence (CQ) on the	The purpose of the quantitative, correlational research study was	The purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between a global leader's global

	<p>job performance of global managers (Barakat et al., (2015).</p>	<p>to explore the relationship between cultural intelligence of members in multinational teams and the performance of their teams (Holtbrugge, 2009).</p>	<p>mindset and the individual level outcomes trust in leader, leader-member exchange, and organizational commitment as rated by followers (Story, 2010).</p>
Theoretical framework	<p>Data analysis was done using SPSS 20.0, and satisfaction relationship with the SPSS INDIRECT macro. CQ was measured with a seven-point Likert. Job performance was measured with the five-item scale created by Pearce and Porter (1986). Job satisfaction was measured using the overall job satisfaction scale by Agho et al.</p>	<p>To link the two models of cultural leadership with the organizational learning systems model based on systems theory as the theoretical framework for measuring performance. Multidimensional Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) and parts of the</p>	<p>A multilevel data analysis was conducted using Hierarchical Linear Modeling.</p>

	<p>(1992). CQ was assessed with the scale developed by Ang et al. (2007).</p>	<p>Culturally Adapted Leadership for Inspired Business Excellence and Results (CALIBER) survey instruments were used as well. SPSS and Excel were used as statistical analytic tools.</p>	
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Research questions	<p>To investigate the mediation effect of job satisfaction on the CQ-job performance relationship.</p> <p>To address the need to better understand the relationship between cross-cultural skills and job performance within a global business context.</p>	<p>The research was guided by the question: To what degree does the cultural intelligence of team members in multinational teams affect cross-cultural team performance?</p>	<p>This study emanates from three primary research questions:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Is a leader's global mindset positively related to follower ratings of trust in leader, leader-member-exchange, and organizational commitment?</li> <li>2. Does the complexity of the global role moderate the relationship between a global leader's mindset on follower ratings of trust in leader, leader-member-exchange, and organizational commitment?</li> <li>3. Does leader distance moderate the</li> </ol>
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			relationships between a global leader's mindset on follower ratings of trust in leader, leader-member-exchange, and organizational commitment?
Methodology	In order to test the three hypotheses of this	Independent and dependent variables	Data was collected using SurveyMonkey.com.

	<p>study, a survey was conducted to gather data. Other instruments used were: job satisfaction scale, five-item scale, and seven-point Likert-Scale. Data analysis was conducted using data analyses using SPSS 20.0, and SPSS Amos 22.</p>	<p>where extracted using the following survey instruments, and measured by the Multidimensional Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) survey instrument and by the Culturally Adapted Leadership for Inspired Business Excellence and Results (CALIBER) survey instrument.</p> <p>The sampling organization used a simple random sampling technique to collect the data.</p>	<p>Data was analyzed using hierarchical linear modeling procedures using SAS PROC MIXED.</p>
Findings	<p>Findings here established job satisfaction as key in</p>	<p>Findings indicate that, individuals with high cultural</p>	<p>Findings show that there exist a clear link between global mindset and the</p>



	<p>transmitting the effect of CQ to job performance. Global managers should seek to gain experiences in CQ, as global managers that were high in CQ exhibited more job satisfaction in an international setting, and therefore perform better at their jobs.</p>	<p>intelligence positively influence the performance of multinational teams. There is need to keep a positive relational links between the four factors of cultural intelligence, metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral CQ, and multinational team performance measured through organizational performance and business results.</p>	<p>outcome variables when combined with the amount of interaction between leader and follower. The moderating variables were very successful in adding to the relationship. While global mindset alone did not have an impact on the outcome variables. When frequency of interaction between and within were added, these relationships became significant. The model with multifactor global mindset and subscales was able to explain more variance than the single factor of global mindset.</p>
Limitations	<p>The use of cross-sectional data makes</p>	<p>There exists over-representation of</p>	<p>Some significant variability was left</p>

	<p>the interpretation of the findings not possible as proof of a causal relationship among the study variables. Also, the generalizability of the study may be limited, as the sample was focused on MNCs operating in Brazil. Moreover, the use of self-reports might have created a distortion of results.</p>	<p>participants from developed countries over developing nations, which may lead to sample bias leading to a systematic error. Generalizability of results is also noticed here. Postulated relationships are considered on an individual level only. There also exists a limited number of responses, making study validity limited to the reliability of two survey instruments (CQS and</p>	<p>unexplained at both level 1 and level 2. Bias could be attributed to statistical techniques used, e.g. HLM, which are biased towards larger level 2/level 1 ratio. Also, the results can't be generally attributed to all organizations.</p>
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		<p>CALIBER).</p> <p>By applying a self-report questionnaire, the risk of false responses was increased.</p>	
Recommendations	<p>Recommendations from the study entailed being aware of the underlying mechanisms driving job satisfaction and performance, and thus, international HR managers should select individuals high in CQ, and train those that are not. Secondly, the researchers noted that increasing job satisfaction of global managers in the global context significantly improves the impact of</p>	<p>A need exists for further research regarding the correlation between cultural intelligence and the performance of multinational teams. Future research may also explore the relationship on a team level, including input from peers, managers, and subordinates. Another possibility for further research</p>	<p>Larger sample size, different industries, and measures of cultural differences are ways that this study could be strengthened. Adding mediating and different moderating variables may provide more relevant information. Other individual level outcomes should be studied. The relationships between a leader's global mindset and follower ratings of psychological capital</p>

	CQ on performance, and thus, increase their performances.	would be the inclusion of samples from additional national cultures.	(hope, efficacy, resilience, and optimism), sources of motivation, satisfaction, and performance should be examined.
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## Summary

The goal for this grounded research study was to identify previously published observations and opinions that explain how CQ affects OE. Each study reviewed utilized survey techniques and statistical instruments to cross-examine their theme. All three studies considered CQ as a key to OE. Additionally, they confirmed the impact of CQ on OE via leaders' trust, team recognition, cognitive CQ and team performance, leader-follower relationship and more.

The consistency of measurement of all three studies was very well reflected and explained. Also, the methods were tested as highly reliable. The independent variable in all three studies was CQ measured in different quantitative ways. Confidence levels for all three studies were relatively high, with the GLOBE study scoring a confidence rate of 95% and a confidence interval of 10%. The survey methods used were also validated survey techniques. The survey instruments used in these studies were validated using several test results, including the CQS survey (Ang et al., 2007) and the CALIBER survey tested and retested for reliability (Lakhani, 2007). The measuring instruments differed between variables. Among those used were the affect- and cognition-based trust scales, which measure trust based on individual belief of an

individual's dependability and reliability (McAllister, 1995). The linear membership exchange was developed by Scandura and Graen (1984) to measure the quality of the leader-follower relationship as to a rater's perception of the existing relationship. The affective commitment scale (ACS) by Allen and Meyer (1990) was used to measure organizational commitment and attachment.

## **CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION**

Chapter 5 includes discussion of the similarities and conclusions reached by the three studies that were described in Chapter 4 (Barakat et al., 2015; Scholl, 2009; Story, 2010). Chapter 5 also includes discussion of how this model is relevant to this study. Although each of the three studies approached the research problem from a purely formal organizational setting, and a unique perspective, this chapter goes further to evaluate the impact of organizational effectiveness (OE) in a school setting. This is done by cross-referencing all three studies. A retrospective examination is also done on higher education institutions and training centers of the same nature. The researcher also makes recommendations for future research, based on these results. Recommendations are made based on limitations to this study to propose future directions and areas of research. Moreover, the chapter includes suggestions regarding how leaders in an educational system could benefit from this study. It exposes impacts of cultural intelligence (CQ) on OE within a school setting.

Most modern educational institutions contain students from varying walks of life. While this diversity is present in primary and secondary schools, it is even more common in a university setting and other institutions of higher education. With the recent surge in globalization, it is common to find higher education faculty from varying social classes and different cultures—probably as lecturers and visiting professors. Furthermore, students from different cultures as well as different walks of life find themselves in the same classrooms. Therefore, it is vital that both management and lecturers at these institutions understand or grasp insights into CQ, to be able to effectively and mindfully manage their staff and students.

Educational institutions as well as multinational organizations have been filled with these new and diverse cultural challenges. As the introductory chapter explains, Ang et al. (2007)

identified CQ as a complementary mode of intelligence that tries to explain the differences in addressing challenges posed by new and diverse cultural environments. Understanding CQ is therefore a resource to resolve cultural challenges as they occur.

### **5.1. Impacts of CQ on educational institutions:**

As Ang et al. (2007) explained, CQ is a construct that includes intertwined cognitive, metacognitive, behavioral, and motivational dimensions. With the existence of these dimensions of CQ, it is not prudent for organizations and educational institutions to ignore CQ. This is especially crucial when they examine OE and compatibility of team players in organizational structures.

Integrating the notion of CQ and its effectiveness in an educational institutional setting would facilitate educational leaders' comprehension of cultural challenges, especially in a multicultural setting. Previous research strongly supports the notion that educational leaders who integrate CQ better understand and manage effectively their institutions. Integrating CQ in the learning environment would go a long way to boost leaders' understanding of subordinates' needs.

The three studies were selected because they posited a similar question on CQ (Barakat et al., 2015; Holtbrugge, 2009; Story, 2010). Each of the three studies also posited the four-dimensional wings of CQ. They include: metacognitive CQ to denote a person's skill level in understanding and acquiring cultural knowledge (Ang et al., 2006); cognitive CQ to denote one's appreciation of diverse cultures, while taking in account their differences and similarities, (Ang et al., 2006); motivational CQ to denote an instrument of energy that is consciously put to use when examining how diverse environments work (Ang et al., 2006); and behavioral CQ, which

is the skill or capability to demonstrate proper verbal and nonverbal actions in cross-cultural settings (Ang et al., 2006).

Cultural intelligence also impacts institutions of higher learning as a way to manage change. Change management is a common phenomenon in the educational sector, as there is a growing need to address new ways of learning. Moreover, such institutions are home to a host of people from varying cultures. Thus, managing change in related culturally diverse settings necessitates an understanding of CQ. Leaders in related settings need an appreciation of the various diverse cultures they encounter so they can work with cultural differences and similarities (cognitive CQ). In the same way, leaders would need to be acquainted with the motivational dimension of CQ, as this would help them better examine the diversity of their workplace. Doing this would better determine how to best manage CQ levels within institutions of higher learning. In effectively selecting the appropriate administrative staff to manage these diverse, multinational institutions, leaders would have to consider the metacognitive dimension of CQ, as this denotes a person's skill level in understanding and acquiring cultural knowledge. Furthermore, appropriate selection would help to better manage heretofore unrecognized and emerging relationships in diverse institutions.

Another dimension of CQ is its behavioral component. The question is what CQ traits need to be recognized, to allow for positive integration and positive efficacy for administration, tutors, support personnel, and students in the learning environment. The behavioral CQ dimension could certainly provide a clue on this, as it provides the tools to demonstrate proper verbal and nonverbal actions in cross-cultural settings (Ang et al., 2006). This would also go further to answer the question of whether leader distance moderates the relationships between a



global leader's mindset, follower ratings of trust in the leader, leader-member-exchange, and organizational commitment (Story, 2010).

The three studies analyzed for this research provide education leadership practitioners with insightful viewpoints on CQ and its effect on organizational intelligence. Thus, leaders may be afforded further clarity to enhance OE in related multicultural settings, while creating room to support upcoming research in CQ and its relation to OE in an educational setting.

This research study will add to the literature of OE and cross-examine the effects of CQ on the organization's effectiveness in a culturally diverse environment. The results of this research should help fill an existing qualitative gap as regarding research based on previous literature, providing a conceptual framework that could be used as a basis for future research.

Future research could go further, including taking practical cases at regional and national levels. Research could be conducted at specific universities where a CQ-related issue has occurred. Such a study would broaden the applicability of previous findings.

Very little is written on CQ in a school setting, even though they are so diverse and can benefit from CQ research and implementation. More detailed research could be carried out on organizational structures of institutions of higher education to illustrate how they are structured to incorporate CQ and its three dimensions of staff cohesiveness, organizational performance, and commitment (discussed earlier).

Even more research could be done on the integration of CQ into the management of higher educational institutions; for example, with the perspective of African schools characterized by strike actions. The four dimensions of CQ (cognitive CQ, metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ) could be analyzed in this light to provide long-lasting solutions.

## **5.2 Solution to Problems**

The purpose of this research project was to examine the effects of CQ on the job performance of global managers. It is true that all three research studies analyzed the research problem from different perspectives. However, our focus remained committed to identifying the observations and opinions shared within all three studies. We aimed to establish whether there is a relationship between CQ and job performance of global managers, and how this relationship is vital for maximizing the performance of global managers. It was also an opportunity to discover new, unrecognized relationships from the collection and analysis of data. All three studies were selected because they posited a similar overarching question. As Chapter 4 mentions, all three analyzed studies drew logical conclusions in establishing the relationship between CQ and its impact on organizational leaders, teams, and subordinates towards organizational performance.

A grounded methodology was the basis of this research, reproducing results. A literature review was the basis for this research, in establishing a link between previous studies on CQ and organizational performance, and to further emphasize my findings. The criteria for this grounded study made reference to Creswell (2009) and Glaser and Strauss (2006).

## **5.3 Methodology Discussion**

All three studies gathered data by using interview-designed surveys that were administered online. The Brazilian study distributed questionnaires to a total of 364 global managers in order to test the three hypotheses of this study (Barakat et al., 2015). The GLOBE study (Holtbrugge, 2009) was a quantitative, correlational study exploring the relationship between CQ and the performance of multinational teams. Like the Brazilian study, an online survey was conducted consisting of CQS and parts of the CALIBER survey instruments (Holtbrugge, 2009). The third study (Story, 2010) was a multilevel analysis study, and the

research also derived data from web-based survey instruments. All three researchers closely followed protocols described in the literature for the designated study design.

In each case, an empirical study was carried out to test the effect of CQ on another variable, usually global managers. The aim was to see how CQ affected the performance of the organizations. All three studies used SPSS for analysis. To establish whether there exists a statistically significant relationship between the variables, the researchers all looked to the work of Creswell (2009). The nature of the relationships between participants also required a quantitative and correlation research design, which was established in accordance with Creswell (2009). The appropriateness of all three quantitative, correlational designs could be supported by the availability of validated measurement instruments for the variables (Creswell, 2009).

Each researcher carried out a purposeful sample, selected from a proposed organizational cultural environment and human resource needs in line with Creswell (2009). Sample sizes varied for all three studies, with a focus on cultural environment as well as an organizational platform. This was put in place to better align the research participants with the work of Creswell (2009). In the Brazilian study, to test the mediating effect of job satisfaction, 332 global managers were surveyed from multinational companies in Brazil. The third study comprised a multilevel study, using employees in multinational organizations, nested within groups reporting to the same leader (Story, 2010).

In all three studies, participants were chosen first by convenience sampling. The first study used direct questionnaires, while the last two used platforms such as SurveyMonkey to disseminate their questionnaires. All three studies sampled both the global managers, in line with CQ, and their impact on organizational performance. Return rate was calculated as the actual number of surveys completed by the participant leaders. In the third study (Story, 2010), since

the data could only be used if linked to at least two direct-report responses, surveys deemed usable totaled 80 for leaders, and 234 direct-report surveys (Story, 2010). Organizational structures reviewed were closely similar in all three studies; survey instruments and techniques for data collection were also similar. The participant selection procedures were standard procedures as mentioned in Creswell (2009) and Leedy and Ormrod (2013).

In the third study, prior to collecting data for the research study, Institutional Review Board approval was sought and received from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln Office of Research (Story, 2010). Prior to carrying out the survey combining the CQS and the CALIBER survey instruments in the second study, they were pilot tested with 12 participants before use (Scholl, 2009). Ethical considerations were taken into account for all three studies, especially in line with safeguarding privacy of participants' information (Barakat et al., 2015; Scholl, 2009; Story, 2010). This convention was outlined in the literature of Creswell (2009) and Leedy and Ormrod (2013) and can be justified within this regard.

## **5.4 Findings Discussion**

The research questions for each study were used as the basis for ordering the findings. Surveys were the major instruments used in gathering information for all three studies. While the studies varied in their methodology, this could advance the reason each author outlined differently the relationship between CQ and its impact on the organization. This was proven by several hypotheses analyzed by the authors within the studies. Notwithstanding this, a convergence was also realized as they all related to increased performance in the workplace.

Despite variations noticed with the findings of each research, such as disparities in choice of participants, analysis of data, hypothesis development, and presentation methods, the results for all three studies were clearly similar to each other.

The Brazilian study Story (2010), which was designed to be aligned to the work of Earley and Ang (2003), pointed that the job satisfaction of individuals was high in CQ, and that they acted favorably in cross-cultural settings. This was also established in Chen et al. (2011). This study, which included 382 Philippino laborers working overseas in Taiwan, showed a positive correlation between overall CQ and performance. With the data that are presented, we can argue that CQ, driven by a leader's experience, can have a great impact on performance. This could be based on the notion that job performance, as well as job satisfaction, are variables transmitting the impact of CQ on organizational performance.

The relationship between overall CQ and overall performance is further emphasized in the second study (Scholl, 2009). In the first theme analysis of this study, Scholl (2009) further pointed out the relationship between CQ and performance. Regarding overall CQ as an aggregate of the four cultural facets—metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral CQ—a statistically significant relationship was detected, establishing the relationship between total CQ and team performance. This positive relationship further confirms the overall impact that CQ has on organizational performance and business results, which is also highlighted by Scholl (2009). This is further supported by previous studies carried out by Earley and Peterson (2004), announcing that the combination of all four CQ elements provided an individual with the right equipment to succeed in different cultural environments. Scholl (2009) further emphasized that only a high-behavioral CQ individual could be willing and able to act appropriately. Also, the four cultural factors could help an individual understand cultural clues, and engage in more strategic thinking (Scholl, 2009). A person with high overall CQ was seen by Earley and Mosakowski (2004) as a cultural chameleon and denoted them as high in all facets of CQ.

The notion of trust is discussed in the second study. The findings by Scholl (2009) demonstrated that trust has a function as a mediator between CQ and team performance. In their findings, Rockstuhl and Ng (2008) outlined the relationship between trust in team members and high performance. This is further emphasized in the third study by Story (2010), who examined global mindset of leaders, and how this determines followers' trust levels of the leaders. Affect-based trust, as pointed out by McAllister (1995), is demonstrated by care and concern for the welfare of their leaders. The results from the third research paper demonstrated that the frequency of interaction weakens the relationship between global mindset and affect-based trust. Therefore, leaders with a global mindset interacting with a single follower more frequently than average causes a loss in trust by the follower – both personally and emotionally— in the leader (Story, 2010).

## **5.5 Findings Conclusions**

All three studies reasoned and referenced in line with Earley and Ang (2003), that a global manager manifesting a high level of CQ would certainly be satisfied when working in a cross-cultural setting. This relationship has been previously established in organizational behavior literature. This could further be supported by Abdul Malek and Budhwar (2013) with their conceptual model linking CQ to job performance in relation to job satisfaction.

Similarly, this relationship between CQ and job performance was further established by Ang et al. (2007), finding evidence in their study of workers' task performance that there is a CQ-performance relationship. Furthermore, Ramalu et al. (2012), in their investigation of the relationship between CQ and job performance of expatriates assigned to Malaysia, concluded that CQ is positively related to job performance. Wu and Ang's (2011) analysis of expatriates in Singapore revealed that expatriate CQ practices and adjustments were positively related to

performance. Unlike the result of the Brazilian studies, which emphasized the magnitude or importance placed on job satisfaction in CQ-job performance relationship, the researchers reasoned more in line with the study results of Judge et al. (2001). They pointed out that job satisfaction has a moderate relationship with job performance (Wu & Ang, 2011). Probably like Barakat et al. (2015), it mentions that job satisfaction could be a mediating variable but at a much more minimal level (Wu & Ang, 2011). Moreover, job satisfaction can be added to other personality variables such as control, which can be used to demonstrate an incremental validity of CQ's impact over organizational performance.

In the second study, Holtbrugge (2009) pointed out that overall CQ, independent of the scores in the four sub-factors, leads to a better performance of the organization. Furthermore, Holtbrugge (2009) further stated that CQ team members were more able to adapt to heterogeneous teams, as well as uphold all skillsets to drive forward team performance.

Another common point of interest for all three studies is the need for training in the light of the importance of CQ for multinational organizations. Emphasis is placed in all three studies on the measurement of CQ. This highlights the need for empowering staff or teams with high-CQ leaders or skills to further boost organizational performance (Barakat et al., 2015; Holtbrugge, 2009; Story, 2010). Cultural intelligence, therefore, can help an organization in selecting, training, and improving the efficiency of its workforce in a global perspective. Individuals' CQ profiles would have to be identified, and then the organization would need to provide training, where appropriate, to foster performance (Scholl, 2009). Earley and Peterson (2004) presented the concept of CQ as a concept for cross-cultural training programs. Thomas (2006) reviewed the steps for a successful CQ training program, stating that, over time, the three factors of CQ build on one another and enhance performance.

Results for the first study were consistent with the predictions, as CQ was positively related to job satisfaction and job performance (Barakat et al., 2015). The second study—a quantitative correlational study that examined the relationship between CQ of experienced multinational team individuals and performance of their respective teams—concluded that a positive relationship existed for all hypotheses tested (Scholl, 2009).

Another common factor used in all three studies is that of cognitive CQ. Barakat et al. (2015) mostly worked with metacognitive and cognitive CQ, and considered them to have negatively motivated the relationship. On the other hand, Scholl (2009), in this second theme, made mention of cognitive CQ as having an influence on CQ, and upon factors of team performance. Scholl (2009) also mentioned the impacts of metacognitive CQ and motivational CQ on team performance. Story (2010), on the other hand, measured the relationship between metacognitive CQ and affect-based trust, moderating these global roles. Story's (2010) data resulted in an increase in strength of the relationship between metacognitive CQ and affect-based trust.

## **5.2 Relevance of Study**

This study therefore emphasizes the need for global leaders to be comfortable with CQ, to recognize its importance and impact, and to adjust to cross-cultural differences. There is strong evidence that leaders with greater CQ levels outperform those with lower CQ levels in a global organizational setting, which makes a strong case for promoting CQ training and awareness in diverse work settings. This point was emphasized by the work of Barakat et al. (2015), as the researchers advised global or international firms to recruit individuals with high CQ, as well as to train those who did not have it. Moreover, the researchers further emphasized that this could be part of a firm's hiring process.



Additionally, this study does not support studies that have contradicted the impact of CQ on organizational performance. Further studies of this type could be oriented towards challenging the idea that CQ can't be learned. Further research could also provide a CQ learning theory, to promote workplace communication and understanding. Moreover, as Scholl (2009) mentioned, the ability to adapt to different cultures helps in optimizing the approach to teamwork and to ensure better overall performance and results. Furthermore, Berrell, Gloet, and Wright (2002) supported this point with their findings that CQ drives management behavior and approaches towards organizational learning.

With the world becoming more and more like a global village, firms that recruit multinational teams have to consider improving overall CQ as part of the hiring process. Global leaders must be flexible and adaptable when it comes to interacting between different cultures (Javidan et al., 2006). This appeal is supported by Adler (2006), who noted that the globalization increase over the last two decades has brought about leaders within organizations who encounter difficulties on a daily basis with cross-cultural leadership. Business leaders with a high CQ within globally diversified organizations contribute to the overall performance of the organizations (Scholl, 2009). An increase in globalization therefore demands professionals equipped with appropriate skills to manage complex interactions in diverse and emerging markets (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992).

## **5.6 Recommendations for Further Research**

There are currently studies being conducted that demonstrate that CQ can be taught. The expectation is that in the relatively short term, researchers will become more accurate in understanding what techniques work best to train various profiles of individuals.

Future research might reproduce the study with regard to single industries or specific organizational structures, and include

- Future research in the light of trust and the first topic you had in mind.
- More CQ and team relationship study in an African context or organization.

It should also take into consideration

- Other factors that can keep CQ from not impacting organizational performance.
- The samples were too diverse, and a more focused population is advised.
- The context of visualization as a method of harvesting data should be changed with some personal contact with participants to ensure certainty of results.
- It is posited that the three studies analyzed for this research paper will provide leadership practitioners in an educational framework or institution of higher learning with insightful viewpoints on CQ and its effect on organizational intelligence, affording further clarity required to enhance OE in related multicultural settings while creating room for assuring an ongoing incentive for upcoming research in CQ and its relation to OE in an educational setting.
- This research study came to add to the literature of OE and cross-examined the effects of CQ on the organization's effectiveness in a culturally diverse organization. The results of this research study should help fill an existing qualitative gap as regards research based on previous literature, providing a conceptual framework that could be used as a basis for future research.
- Further research could go as far as taking practical cases at regional and national levels or conducting research with specific universities were an incident resulting from a situation

related to cultural intelligence has occurred. This could be done using grounded theory used by these investigations and may well broaden the applicability of their findings.

- Very little is written on CQ in a school setting, whereas such institutions have a great deal of cultural diversity. More detailed research could be carried out on organizational structures of institutions of higher education to illustrate how they are structured to incorporate CQ and its three dimensions of staff cohesiveness, performance, and commitment as discussed in this research study.
- A perspective of further research could be looked at, at the level of integration of CQ into the management at higher educational institutions, with perspective of African schools characterized by strike actions. The four dimensions of CQ (cognitive CQ, metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ), could be analyzed in this light to develop long-lasting solutions.

### **5.3 Concluding Remarks**

The results of this research should be shared with leaders of higher institutions of learning, as well as those holding key management positions. Better comprehension of CQ in related multicultural settings would greatly impact OE positively.

Rather than increasing barriers to globalization, the solution would be to better understand CQ and its impact on organizations. CQ is significant to organizational existence, especially in a diverse and multicultural setting. This would promote global learning and the existence of risk-free learning environments. Promoting partnerships both locally and regionally is vital for educational institutions. With the growing need for exchanges and related programs between institutes of higher learning around the world, cultivating an understanding of CQ would be an

appropriate means to engage in better partnerships nationally and internationally among educational institutions as well as training organizations.

In some cultures, learners of all ages are exploring and manipulating the information environment through texting, instant messaging, social networking, gaming, blogging, and downloading and uploading and creating music and videos. However, this might be different in other cultures. Leaders with better understanding of CQ can therefore understand both cultures and be capable to operate on a greater global scale.

Similarly, CQ provides room for effective communication. Hill (2011) identified communication as a crucial leadership behavior effective in maintaining transparency and visibility for subordinates, as well as allowing increased buy-in, collaborating to solve issues, and celebrating successes. Effective communication would serve within culturally diverse settings as an exceptional interpersonal aptitude that includes consideration and the ability to develop relationships between leaders, and positive interactions with their subordinates, as well as in groups, and thus producing an effective team approach to situations.

The influence of CQ in a cultural setting within the educational sphere requires that the field becomes more dynamic and engaging to give room for effective leadership and a fluid leadership framework. The focus should be on human relationships and their adaptability to the existing culture. Leaders must therefore recognize this phenomenon, to be better acquainted in diverse multicultural organizational settings. Old methodologies that have long existed during the development of public education should be updated. By doing so, they should take into consideration both cultural integration and the growing trends of globalization. Education is also considered as a business, and students and learning could be considered as outputs produced from this business. Cultural intelligence should therefore apply in every educational institution as

they work the same as other organizations. With the increased integration of cultures within institutions of higher learning around the world, this should place greater responsibility on school leaders to integrate CQ within their staff training needs as well as part of their curricula.

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