AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE INFLUENCE OF PERSONALITY FACTORS ON CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE AND THE DIRECT AND MODERATING EFFECTS OF INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE

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ABSTRACT

Globalization has created tremendous opportunities for organizations, but also created challenges due to cultural diversity, highlighting the importance of cross-cultural competencies in becoming successful nowadays.

Cultural Intelligence (CQ) has emerged as an important concept describing the individual capabilities needed to effectively interact across cultures.

Utilizing the theory of evolutionary personality psychology, several relationships are predicted between certain personality traits and factors of CQ. In addition, social learning theory is applied to explain the expected relationships between international experience and CQ.

Thirdly, several hypotheses are developed to investigate if international experience strengthens the relationship between certain personality traits and elements of CQ.

Based on a sample size of 197 employees from a financial services company, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses validate the theorized four-factor CQ model. The results, based on stepwise regression analyses, confirm the expected relationship between international experience and all factors of CQ, except BCQ. In addition, the results reveal several significant relationships between personality factors and CQ. Novel for the research on CQ is the confirmation of several significant correlations between "dark-side" personality traits (which have been characterized as ineffective behaviours) and elements of CQ. This study also shows several moderating relationships, providing new insights and posing important questions for future research, contributing to the accumulating literature on CQ.

In addition, the results of this study provide interesting suggestions for practice, emphasizing the importance of adapting Human Resources policies to recruit, enable and retain those employees who are likely to successfully grasp the opportunities that globalization offers. In order to achieve this, organizations should rely on a broad range of assessment and development tools, focussing on CQ, personality traits and previous international experience, when selecting and preparing individuals for cross-cultural careers.

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I would like to close with a quote from Michael Josephson which has served me well: "Take pride in how far you've come. Have faith in how far you can go, but don't forget to enjoy the journey"

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DEDICATIONS

I dedicate this dissertation to my wife and two sons. To my wife, Judith, for her patience, understanding, encouragement and ability to put things in perspective. She has given me the motivation to continue with this doctoral journey in times of despair, frustration and confusion. To my sons, Sem and Lex, for keeping me grounded and in the present. Without such longstanding support from all three of you, I would not have been able to complete this journey successfully. Words cannot express enough my gratitude and appreciation. Thank you!

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BCQ	Behavioral Cultural Intelligence
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CCQ	Cognitive Cultural Intelligence
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CQ	Cultural Intelligence
CQS	Cultural Intelligence Scale
CJDM	Cultural Judgment and Decision Making
DMIS	Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity
DSM-IV	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders – 4th Edition
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
FFM	Five Factor Model

GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness
GMI	Global Mindset Inventory
HDS	Hogan Development Survey
HPI	Hogan Personality Inventory
HIC	Homogenous Items Composites
IDI	Intercultural Development Inventory
ICSI	Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory
ISS	Intercultural Sensitivity Scale
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure
MCCQ	Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence
MMPI	Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory
MCQ	Motivational Cultural Intelligence
MTMM	Multi-trait Multimethod Analysis
NFI	Normed Index Fit
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling

SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index
US	United States
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The current business environment is strongly under the influence of globalisation (Baruch, 2002; Bücker and Poutsma, 2010), the effects of which have rapidly become an important topic in the global economy (Hawawini et al., 2004). Although globalisation is not new and has been taking place for centuries (Clark and Knowles, 2003; Friedman, 2005; Ricks, 2003), it is increasingly difficult to find a company that does not conduct business across national boundaries (Caligiuri, 2006; Evans et al., 2002; Gandossy and Kao, 2004; Wagner and Hollenbeck, 1992).

Additionally, Husted (2003) notes that the pace at which globalisation happens has increased quite significantly and according to Johnson et al. (2006) this is due to developments like: the collapse of the former Soviet bloc, the creation of a single Europe, liberalisation of trade through the North American Free Trade Agreement and the establishment of the World Trade Organisation. As a result of the liberalisation of trade and opening up of emerging economies, the value of world trade accelerated from $89 billion in 1953 (UNCTAD, 2008 in Schuller et al., 2011) to more than $16 trillion in 2015 (UNCTAD, 2016). It has been predicted that, before 2030, 80% of the world's economic output will happen across borders (Stephenson and Pandit, 2008), making the twenty-first century truly the era of rapid globalisation (Deng and Gibson, 2008).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Today's global economy has created tremendous opportunities, but also a more complex and dynamic environment (Caligiuri, 2006). It has not only changed the way business is conducted, but it has also created the need for organisations to manage their workforces globally (Hall et al., 2001; Tarique and Schuler, 2010). Individuals encounter other cultures on a regular or even daily basis (Ang et al., 2006; Bouquet et al., 2003), and how these individuals

choose to respond can create tremendous organisational opportunities, but may also lead to failure (Bouquet et al., 2003).

Working in a borderless setting implies that managing cultural differences is a key factor in creating and sustaining organizational competitiveness and vitality (Chin and Gaynier, 2006). The ability to operate effectively in multicultural environments has therefore become a crucial differentiator between success and failure (Ma and Allen, 2009; Ng et al., 2009a) and, unfortunately, organisations have not been very successful (Apud et al., 2003; Jokinen, 2005; Kiggundu and Ji, 2008; Ricks, 2009; Sexton, 2013; Tung, 1981). Research (Buckley and Brooke, 1992; Gorchels et al., 1999) has indicated that people lack the requisite 'global' skills and experience, which, according to Chin and Gaynier (2006), is due to ignorance about the impact of culture at all levels of the workplace. A good employee or manager in one organizational context may not be effective when relocated to an international environment where the expectations are different (Harvey, 1997a).

This is probably best illustrated by the fact that traditionally multinational companies have used expatriation in their search to be successful beyond their domestic markets (Shaffer et al., 2006); sending people from the parent company on a foreign assignment has historically been a viable management strategy and seen as crucial by multinational firms. However, research indicates that a significant percentage (up to 70%) of expatriates fail (Anderson, 2005; Dowling et al., 2008; Manning, 2003) and, of those expatriates who stay, less than 50% perform adequately (Copeland and Griggs, 1985; Deresky, 2000). These are costly failures, since the costs associated with expatriation are quite high, representing around five to six percent of the total headcount costs (McNulty et al., 2009) or 5 to 10 times the cost of a local hire (Carraher, 2005). In addition, there are indirect costs which are associated with expat failure, such as loss of market-share, low productivity, etc. (Dowling et al., 2008). Research confirms that expatriate assignments rarely fail because the individual cannot accommodate the

technical skills required in the role, but due to not having a cultural match between the assignment and style of the expatriate (Harvey, 1997b; Marmer Solomon, 1994; Selmer, 2006; Takeuchi et al., 2002).

As organisations are continuously expanding their business across the globe, more and more employees will be exposed to working with other cultures, and not only expatriates from their own country. It is therefore clear that organisations need a new breed of employees and, in response to this, organisations are embracing Global Talent Management as a strategic priority to ensure international success (Iles et al., 2010; Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Michaels et al., 2001). However, research from Strack et al. (2007) found that Global Talent Management, defined as an organisation's efforts to attract, select, develop and retain key talented employees on a global scale (Briscoe et al., 2009; Scullion et al., 2010; Stahl et al., 2007; Tarique and Schuler, 2010), was one of the areas in which firms were least proficient. Additionally, competition for these talented employees is fierce (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 2003; Beechler and Woodward, 2009) and they are rare to find, in part due to the shift in demographic trends, which nowadays shows tremendous reductions in highly skilled workers in some parts of the world (Gordon, 2009). The talent shortage has been and, increasingly, will be a major concern for globally operating companies (Capelli, 2008; Scullion et al., 2010; Zander et al., 2010) especially in Asia due to the opening up of their economies, which will constrain the opportunities of growth for these companies if not managed adequately (Ready and Conger, 2007). Several studies have indicated that internationally operating companies lack a sufficient pipeline of talent to grow (Chambers et al., 1998; Faulconbridge et al., 2009; Ready and Conger, 2007).

Thus, it appears that multinational organisations may not do enough to find and prepare employees for the new business reality of globalisation (Apud et al., 2003; Bird and Osland, 2004; Johnson et al., 2006; Manning, 2003), resulting in a significant gap between the needed cross-cultural competencies and the current level of capabilities (Adler and Bartholomew,

1992; Bartlett and Ghoshal, 2003; Jokinen, 2005). Therefore, it is becoming crucial for multinational companies to understand the required capabilities in order to be effective and efficient in the globalized workplace (Adler, 1986; Caligiuri and Tarique, 2006; Kaifi, 2009; Suutari, 2002).

1.3 GAPS IN EXISTING RESEARCH

Given the current trend of rapid globalisation and the fact that working with different cultures is becoming increasingly common, there has been a steady increase in the study of cross-cultural interaction (Beechler and Javidan, 2007; Dickson et al., 2003; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005; House et al., 2002), attempting to delineate the competencies that are crucial to success (Mendenhall et al., 2008). However, there is still little systematic research (Dorfman, 1996; Gelfand et al., 2007; House et al., 1999; Mendenhall et al., 2003; Steers et al., 2012), which is reflected in several ways.

A first challenge appears to be that there is no generally accepted definition of the construct of cross-cultural competence. Within the literature, researchers are using different terminology to describe similar constructs. Many authors share the view that, although the increasing need for globally competent employees is clear, the specific competencies required are far from clear (Jordan and Cartwright, 1998). From the literature, there appears to be a plethora of identified competencies needed for international business success, which is creating confusion (Holt and Seki, 2012; Perkins, 2009; Soule, 2010). In addition, a lot of the research used students as research subjects and many of the identified competencies lack empirical evidence, since they are based on conclusions drawn from conversations held during consultancy or training sessions with company representatives involved in international activities, or responsible for hiring people for such positions (Jokinen, 2005). Cultural intelligence (CQ) is a relatively new concept which has received considerable attention over recent years (Andresen and Bergdolt, 2017) and has the potential to bring this fragmented field of research together (Gelfand et al., 2008).

A second challenge is that many organisations have the objective of getting their employees ready for international business success through internal development (Guthridge and Komm, 2008; Kramer, 2005; Suutari, 2002). However, these development opportunities are scarce and expensive, as mentioned previously. As a result, the field of intercultural research has recently been focussing more on intercultural effectiveness (Holt and Seki, 2012), but systematic research on personality traits that could improve intercultural effectiveness seems lacking (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008); this leaves an important gap in understanding why some individuals are more effective than others when working with people from other cultures, or with different cultural norms and values (Van Dyne et al., 2009).

There have been several studies investigating the relationship between cross-cultural competencies and personality traits; however, these studies show conflicting results (e.g. Downes et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2005; Li et al., 2016; Shaffer et al., 2006; Smith, 2012). In addition, all this research is related to the 'big-five' personality traits, (McCrae and Costa, 1987) which are so-called "bright-side" personality traits (Hogan and Hogan, 1995), indicating behaviour when people are at their best (Hall, 2006). The literature review revealed no research investigating the relationship between cross-cultural competencies and so-called "dark-side" personality traits (Hogan et al., 2009), which are described as dysfunctional behaviours. This leaves an important gap in current research on intercultural effectiveness, since cross-cultural interactions can create unfamiliar and stressful situations in which "dark-side" personality traits surface (Gaddis and Foster, 2015; Kaiser et al., 2015). Knowing the impact of certain personality traits on cross-cultural effectiveness could, for example, be of tremendous value for organizations in selecting the right individuals for expensive international assignments or providing tailored development for individuals in their quest towards international success.

Being exposed to other cultures involves allowing people to learn to select and apply the appropriate tools, adapting them when and where necessary

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(Johnson et al., 2006). This is confirmed by several studies which indicate that talented employees need cross-cultural training to learn to adapt appropriately for international success (Bhawuk, 1998; Crowne, 2008; Osman-Gani and Zidan, 2001). This may seem somewhat paradoxical compared to the research on expatriation, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, which underlines the importance of investigating the role of international experience in cross-cultural effectiveness. In addition, some research indicates a possibility that prior international experience could strengthen the relationship between cross-cultural competencies and other antecedents (e.g. Lee and Sukoco, 2010; Selmer, 2002; Takeuchi et al., 2002). However the research on the moderating role of international experience in relation to cross-cultural competencies is limited (Lee and Sukoco, 2010) and there is no research available examining the moderating role of international experience in relation to personality traits and cross-cultural competencies, which leaves an important knowledge gap.

Organizations lack an adequate, consistent and proven understanding of how intercultural competent behaviour functions and there is much more that organizations operating in an international and intercultural environment need to discover about what people can do to effectively meet these challenges (Dean, 2007; House et al., 1999). Cross-cultural research is needed and the potential value of research filling some of these existing knowledge gaps would be difficult to overestimate (Mendenhall et al., 2008).

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This dissertation aims at contributing towards closing some of the important gaps in the existing research. As the previous paragraph shows, it is important to select the most appropriate construct amongst the many available in the literature. After a broad review of the various models and frameworks on cross-cultural competence, it was decided to adopt the Cultural Intelligence model proposed by Earley and Ang (2003).

CQ was introduced to explain the differences in the effectiveness of individual interactions across cultures (Earley, 2002; Earley and Ang, 2003; Earley and Mosakowski, 2004; Earley and Peterson, 2004) and offers a novel approach in preparing people for cross-cultural encounters (MacNab, 2012). The idea is that individuals with a higher CQ are more effective in understanding cultural clues, dealing with cultural differences and adjusting their behaviour accordingly, based on high motivation to perform effectively across a wide range of cultures (Alon and Higgins, 2005; Chin and Gaynier, 2006; Clapp-Smith, 2009; Earley and Mosakowski, 2004; Thomas, 2006).

Previous studies (Ng et al., 2012) have demonstrated that CQ plays an important role in measuring a person's intelligence to adapt to new cultural situations and that CQ is operationalized as a four-factor model that includes metacognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioural dimensions (Ang et al., 2007). The construct of CQ has gained a lot of traction in the last decade and has emerged as a crucial concept in relation to cross-cultural effectiveness in explaining why some individuals are more effective than others (Thomas et al., 2008). A review of the research on cross-cultural competencies, the motivation for adopting the CQ construct, and gaps in existing research are covered in the next chapter.

Research has challenged the hypothesis that everybody benefits equally from development activities (Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009) and Ramalu et al. (2010) argue that many people do not possess the personality traits needed to handle cultural differences effectively. Several experts have, therefore, suggested that individual traits and attributes influence cross-cultural competence (e.g. Brislin et al., 2006; Caligiuri, 2000a; Cushner and Brislin, 1996; Harrison et al., 1996; Moody, 2007; Triandis, 1997; Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2001; Van Velsor et al., 2004; Ward and Chang, 1997; Ward and Fischer, 2008) and, more generally, multi-cultural development (Burke et al., 2009; MacNab and Worthley, 2012; Ponterotto et al., 2002) leading to the first research question:

RQ 1: "To what extent are the four dimensions of CQ associated with different facets of an individual's personality?"

Organisations will continue to use international assignments as a way of developing their most talented employees. Several studies (e.g. Chang et al., 2013; Engle and Crowne, 2014; Morrell et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2009a; Takeuchi et al., 2005) found that people will be influenced and can learn a lot about appropriate behaviour through experiencing situations. This indicates that cultural exposure through international experience can positively enhance the development of cultural effectiveness, leading to the second research question:

RQ 2: "To what extent are the four dimensions of CQ related to international experience?"

However, as indicated by the research on expatriation, international experience by itself might not be sufficient for individuals to become effective in different cultural settings. Therefore, it is important to study the relationship between international experience and CQ, as per the second research question, but perhaps even more important to investigate if international experience can strengthen the relationship between certain personality traits and dimensions of CQ, leading to the third and last research question:

RQ3: "To what extent does international experience moderate the relationship between the four dimensions of CQ and different facets of an individual's personality?"

1.5 RESEARCH ENVIRONMENT AND METHODOLOGY

The defined research questions will be addressed, adopting a deductive approach to develop hypotheses and subsequently testing these hypotheses, using data collected from professional managers from Prudential Corporation Asia, which is part of Prudential plc. As a financial services company, Prudential plc offers a wide range of financial savings and protection products across Asia, the US and the UK. It serves around 24 million

customers and has £562 billion of assets under management (Prudential, 2016). Through its life insurance and asset management operations, Prudential Corporation Asia operates in 13 countries, selling insurance and financial products through more than 400,000 agents and employees (Prudential, 2016).

To conceptualize and measure individuals' personality, the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI) and Hogan Development Survey (HDS) will be adopted. The HPI is a measure of normative personality, based on seven dimensions, and has its foundation in the five-factor model (Hogan et al., 2007b), which is named the "big five" and recognized as a valid taxonomy of personality traits (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004). The HDS assesses 11 personality derailers, which are counterproductive behaviours that could interfere with an individual's ability to perform effectively (Pendleton and Furnham, 2012). Around 400 employees from Prudential Corporation Asia used the HPI and HDS for development purposes and, to examine the research questions, these employees were invited to participate by providing permission to use their data from both the HPI and HDS. Additionally, these employees were asked to fill in an online version of the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) to measure their CQ on the four different dimensions, supplemented by some demographic data and their international experience to address the second and third research question. Hypotheses were developed to address the research questions, building upon theoretical foundations from evolutionary personality psychology and social learning theory. The quantitative methodologies used in this research to test the hypotheses will consist of inferential and correlational statistics.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE AND INTENDED CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The concept of CQ is developing rapidly and, while more research is becoming available, it is still a relatively new concept. It holds a lot of promise, but more research is needed. The proposed research questions potentially offer several contributions to the field of research and practice.

From a practical perspective, organisations operating in Asia, like Prudential Corporation Asia, are under no illusion that attracting and retaining talent in these emerging markets is a tremendous challenge. With high demand, double digit employee turnover and the growing importance of Asia within the global economy, it is increasingly important to have a clear approach and system for managing talented employees to secure international business success (Murray, 2008).

The globalization phenomenon has particularly affected the Asia region, where the talent war is severe (Tan and Lui, 2002; Tarique and Schuler, 2010) for the reason mentioned previously. Additionally, the insurance industry will be affected more than other industries due to an imminent talent shortage (Fei-qiong, 2011; Johannsdottir et al., 2014; Singh and Singh, 2015), which makes it interesting to address the research questions using data collected from Prudential Corporation Asia and puts greater emphasize on the importance of CQ. Therefore, this study will be helpful to all organizations operating across national borders in selecting the right employees for expensive international assignments. In addition, it will provide valuable insights for recruiting and developing employees based on their personality traits and current levels of CQ.

From a research perspective, this dissertation will examine the correlation between employees' CQ and their personality dispositions. Personality traits, which describe what an individual does across time and situations (Costa and McCrae, 1992), are broad and relatively stable individual constructs that influence choices of behaviour that could shape CQ (Earley and Ang, 2003). Although there have been a few studies examining the causal relationship between CQ and personality traits (e.g. Moody, 2007; Ng et al., 2012; Van Velsor et al., 2004) and there have been signs of a renewed interest in the relationship between personality and culture (Hofstede and McCrae, 2004), more research is needed, especially into ways that certain individual dispositions influence CQ (MacNab and Worthley, 2012) both positively and negatively. Establishing the nature of the relationship between CQ and

personality traits might offer support and insights regarding the selection of people for international development opportunities within organisations. This is important, since Goldstein and Smith (1999) note that cross-cultural development opportunities are not widely available in the corporate world but are still considered a necessity and a crucial component of an organisation's strategy to expand successfully internationally (Aycan, 2001; Forster, 1997; Yan et al., 2002). Therefore selecting the right individuals for these interventions is crucial (Caligiuri, 2006; Caligiuri and Tarique, 2006; Scullion et al., 2010).

Takeuchi et al. (2005) argue that international experiences are likely to influence people's behaviour, and several studies have indicated that international experience might influence cross-cultural effectiveness (e.g. Black and Gregersen, 1991; Chang et al., 2013; Selmer, 2002). However, its relationship with CQ has revealed inconsistent results (e.g. Crowne, 2008; Shannon and Begley, 2008; Tay, 2010), emphasizing the importance of addressing this in this study. Additionally, it could well be that international experience is important for developing CQ, but only if individuals possess certain personality traits. The literature review revealed no research regarding the moderating role of international experience and, therefore, it would be very beneficial to the field of intercultural research to investigate if international experience strengthens the relationship between certain personality factors and CQ.

A secondary objective of this study is to evaluate the validity of the four-factor model of CQ, using professional managers working in Asia. The outcomes might provide further insight regarding the construct validity of the CQ model, since research has shown contradictory results, with some research confirming the four-factor structure (Gianasso, 2011; Moon, 2010; Ward et al., 2009) and others not (Bücker et al., 2016; Moody, 2007; Sawhney, 2014). Additionally, CQ is a relatively new measure and, therefore, the functioning of this construct in applied settings needs to be further evaluated (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008; Earley and Ang, 2003; Gelfand et al., 2008; Ward et al., 2009).

As organisations grow their share of business across national borders, their ability to attract and develop people that not only effectively perform cross-cultural activities, but also actively influence and motivate people across national cultures, provides a key source of competitive advantage (Bird et al., 2010; Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009; Mendenhall et al., 2008). This dissertation will contribute to understanding which personality traits are required or counter-productive in achieving this competitive advantage, and if previous international experience both influences levels of CQ and moderates the relationship between personality traits and CQ. It will support organisations in the identification and selection of the right individuals and focus development interventions appropriately, but it also responds to the importance of asking new questions to lead the trend in global identification and development of cross cultural capabilities.

1.7 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

After this introductory chapter, the second chapter will focus on reviewing the available research to get an overview of the status of research concerning the challenges raised, highlighting the most crucial findings to serve as a starting point for the development of specific hypotheses in the subsequent third chapter. The research context, sample and methodology will be discussed in the fourth chapter and chapter five will present the results of the descriptive, inferential statistics and other statistical procedures. The last chapter will consist of a discussion of the results, including implications, limitations and suggestions for further research.

1.8 SUMMARY

It is difficult to deny that rapid globalisation is occurring (Colakoglu and Caligiuri, 2008) and that having adequate cross-cultural competencies is not only useful for those who travel and work abroad, but also to every individual in the workplace and those who work and live with people from other cultures (Matsumoto et al., 2001). While some people may never work outside their home country, many will interact with customers, clients, suppliers and co-

workers who are themselves outside their home country. Therefore, individuals need to develop multicultural awareness, knowledge and skills to respond in an appropriate way to the challenges and opportunities of globalization (Nagai, 2008).

Consequently, in order to be successful in this complex globalized context, organisations need a global perspective and to understand the competencies which define success for their workforce across national cultures (McLean, 2009). Current research in this field appears to be of little help, since it is limited, fragmented and inconsistent, which emphasizes the importance of understanding the drivers of cross-cultural capabilities like CQ (Gelfand et al., 2008)

CQ is a new theoretical construct and has the potential to be a significant development regarding understanding cross-cultural differences and how to respond in an effective manner (Thomas et al., 2008). Additional research is needed (Gelfand et al., 2008; MacNab, 2012) to provide more usefulness to both research and practice (Ang et al., 2007).

This thesis aims at closing some of the important gaps within the field of intercultural research. Especially, investigating the causal relationship between CQ and personality traits and the direct and moderating effects of international experience could be very important to organisations in their search for international success.

2 INTERCULTURAL RESEARCH

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the business environment of today, work is becoming more intercultural in orientation, since organizations are increasing their international reach (Griffith et al., 2008; Schröer, 2009; Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2001; Vaughn and Phillips, 2009). Bodacigiller and Adler (1991) claim that culture is the main challenge for organizations to become successful and that intercultural competencies are needed for appreciating, and effectively responding to, other people's perspectives and values.

Research on culture spans many disciplines, and researchers have come to some common ground with respect to defining culture. Culture can be conceptualized as shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations (House, 2004). As such, culture provides "a structure of meaning that is external to individuals and this structure influences the cognitive development of individuals as they make sense of their worlds guided by the patterned relationships of their culture" (Fiske et al., 1998 in Clapp-Smith, 2009, p.28).

Building on this, scholars and practitioners not only seek to understand culture, but also try to understand the interfaces between cultures through identifying the cross-cultural competencies needed to reduce friction at these interfaces in order for individuals to be successful across cultures. This is a complex task, highlighted by the fact that scholars and practitioners have been working on these problems for more than a century. This has led to a stream of research around the construct of "cross-cultural competence", which is often conceived as a form of individual skills, knowledge and traits. According to Stephan and Stephan (2012), a lot of progress has been made, but there is still much more to learn. Johnson et al. (1996) reviewed the concept of cross-cultural competence and concluded that there is a clear lack

of agreement on what constitutes cross-cultural competence. This has resulted in a plethora of constructs in international management, cross-cultural psychology, intercultural communication, diversity and cross-cultural management literature; intercultural sensitivity (Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2001), cross-cultural adaptation (Anderson, 1994), cross-cultural sensitivity (Pruegger and Rogers, 1994), cultural intelligence (Earley, 2002), cross-cultural adjustment (Benson, 1978), intercultural awareness (Kohls and Knight, 1994) and global mindset (Rhinesmith, 1992), to name a few. Although these constructs are often named differently, they are used to describe similar competencies or have some degree of overlap, without consensus on their meaning and operationalization in the literature (e.g. Chen and Starosta, 1996; Levy et al., 2007; Morley and Cerdin, 2010).

Because of this conceptual diversity, numerous psychometric tools have been developed to assess and select candidates for international assignments or training purposes (Holt and Seki, 2012) in order to support organisations in their search for international business success. This chapter begins with an overview and critique of the main cross-cultural competence approaches, based on relevance (e.g., a significant body of academic literature and their attempt to integrate the construct into a theoretical framework); it examines intercultural sensitivity, global mindset and CQ. This section will be followed by a closer examination regarding the distinctiveness of the CQ and the relevance of adopting this construct. Finally, this chapter concludes by discussing the gaps in current research on CQ in relationship to personality and international experience, providing insights regarding the research direction for this thesis.

2.2 INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY

The first concept to review is intercultural sensitivity, which is described as the ability to distinguish how others differ in their behaviour, perceptions or feelings (Bronfenbrenner et al., 1958). Since the seminal study of Bronfenbrenner (1958), the construct has been defined in many ways

(Bhawuk and Brislin, 1992; Caligiuri and Tarique, 2006; Chen and Starosta, 2000; Hammer et al., 2003; Lustig and Koester, 2003; Shapiro et al., 2007), of which a few prominent models will be discussed below.

2.2.1 Intercultural sensitivity by Bennett (1993)

A first theoretical construct that has gained significant academic and practitioner attention is Bennett's developmental model of intercultural sensitivity (Bennett, 1986; 1993; 2004), which has been developed as a framework to understand and explain "an individual's ability to discriminate and experience relevant cultural difference" (Hammer et al., 2003, p.422). According to this construct, cultures are significantly distinct (Klak and Martin, 2003) and, therefore, "the crux of the development of intercultural sensitivity is attaining the ability to construe cultural differences in more complex ways" (Hammer et al., 2003, p.423). In consequence, the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity (DMIS) is designed as a progressive and developmental process (Pedersen, 2010), in which an individual transforms gradually, affectively, cognitively and behaviourally (Chen, 2007; Chen and Starosta, 1997).

Hammer et al. (2003) argue that the DMIS constitutes a progression of a person's worldview (on the assumption that an individual's understanding of cultural differences becomes more sophisticated over time through training and experience); they conceptualize six orientation stages of increasing sensitivity to cultural differences along a continuum, as shown in Figure 1.
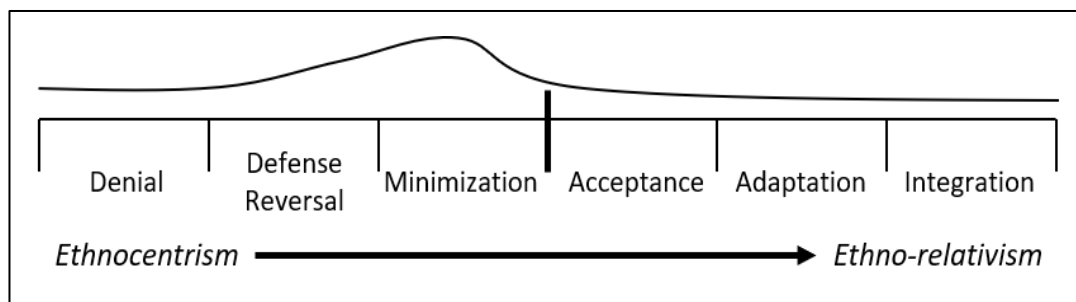
Figure 1: Developmental Model of intercultural sensitivity (Hammer et al., 2003)

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Three of these stages are ethnocentric (Denial, Defense/Reversal and Minimization), referring to a person's own culture, and three are ethnorelative (Acceptance, Adaptation and Integration), where one's culture is experienced in relation to other cultures (Bennett, 1986; Bennett, 1993; Bennett, 2004). According to this model, individuals develop their intercultural sensitivity simultaneously, indicating that one can move to the next stage without completely resolving the issues in the previous stage (Bennett, 1993). It is therefore hypothesized (Bennett, 1993), that this sensitivity is developed through experience and is not an innate capability.

To measure the development phases which individuals pass through, the intercultural development inventory (IDI) was introduced in 1998 to represent a theoretically grounded measure for intercultural sensitivity, based on the DMIS. The IDI allows participants to assess their effectiveness in diverse intercultural interventions by measuring their change in intercultural sensitivity through a 50-item questionnaire (Hammer, 2011). Academics have been interested in scales that could be used to measure intercultural sensitivity for research purposes; however, the approach to intercultural sensitivity as a developmental construct is quite novel (Paige et al., 2003).

Research results show that the IDI possesses strong validity and reliability across-cultural groups (Bennett, 1993; Hammer, 2011) with Cronbach alpha coefficients between .80 and .85 (Hammer et al., 2003). Confirmatory factor analysis confirms the basic orientations as intended in the DMIS (Hammer, 2011). Paige et al. (2003) suggest that the instrument is sound and a satisfactory way of measuring intercultural sensitivity. However, the same authors noticed that factor analyses provided strong empirical support for the broader two-factor structure (ethnocentric and ethnorelative), but only modest support for the six-factor structure that the IDI is intended to measure.

2.2.2 Intercultural sensitivity by Bhawuk and Brislin (1992)

Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) offered another definition of intercultural sensitivity as the capability to understand different cultures and point of views, and

adjust behaviour based on cultural context: "To be effective in other cultures, people must be interested in other cultures, and then also willing to modify their behaviour as an indication of respect of other cultures" (p. 416).

They borrowed the concept from the intercultural communication literature based on three dimensions: (1) understanding of the different ways in which people can behave; (2) open-mindedness in relation to the differences one comes across and; (3) the level of behavioural flexibility one portrays in a different new culture.

Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) operationalized intercultural sensitivity as a four-factor model comprising flexibility, open-mindedness, individualism and collectivism. In order to measure someone's inclination and knowledge to adjust behaviour in appropriate ways across cultures, the intercultural sensitivity inventory (ICSI) was developed by Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) from 100 critical incidents. The ICSI is based on 46 Likert scale items, developed and tested among graduate students at the East-West Center in Hawaii and validated by a panel of experts who worked closely with the research participants. The ICSI was found to have good reliability across two independent samples (Cronbach alpha of .82 and .84) and showed distinctive internal and predictive validity (Graf and Mertesacker, 2010).

2.2.3 Intercultural sensitivity by Chen and Starosta (1996)

A third definition of intercultural sensitivity comes from Chen and Starosta (1996), who defined the concept as "an individual's ability to develop a positive emotion towards understanding and appreciating cultural differences that promotes appropriate and effective behaviour in intercultural communication" (p.5). Chen and Starosta (1996) argue that intercultural competence encompasses three dimensions; affective, cognitive and behavioural, and that the affective dimension specifically relates to intercultural sensitivity.

Following this, a model of intercultural sensitivity was formulated, consisting of six elements: (1) self-esteem; (2) self-monitoring; (3) open-mindedness; (4) empathy; (5) interaction involvement and; (6) non-judgement (Chen, 2007). This model integrates elements of attitude and behavioural skills and has gained significant attention from scholars (Fritz et al., 2002).

To measure the six elements, Chen and Starosta (2000) developed an instrument labelled the intercultural sensitivity scale (ISS). The original 73-item questionnaire went through three stages of empirical validation, leading to a final 24-item instrument. The ISS is divided into five factors, named: Interaction Engagement, Respect for Cultural Differences, Interaction Confidence, Interaction Enjoyment and Interaction Attentiveness (Chen and Starosta, 2000) with an overall Cronbach Alpha of 0.88. Fritz et al. (2002) conducted a study to validate the five-factor model in a different cultural context and confirmed satisfactory results.

2.2.4 Empirical studies on intercultural sensitivity

In terms of antecedents of intercultural sensitivity, several studies have looked at the impact of international study programs on intercultural sensitivity (as measured by the IDI) and the results have been mixed; whereas, in some cases, significant improvements in intercultural sensitivity were observed (Anderson et al., 2006; Paige et al., 2003; Vande Berg, 2004), a study by Pedersen (2010) measured no improvements.

In addition, there have been a small number of additional studies using the IDI. Hammer (2011) showed that intercultural sensitivity has predictive validity towards bottom-line results of organizations in terms of achieving diversity and inclusion objectives in recruitment and staffing. Findings from a study by Garrett-Rucks (2014) contribute to the understanding of the advantages of measuring intercultural sensitivity of language students (beginner level) in an structured learning environment. Results show that Bennett's (1993) developmental model of intercultural development supported incremental changes in response to pedagogical interventions.

Altshuler et al. (2003) indicate, in a small sample-size study, that intercultural sensitivity is an important competence in a diverse medical practice; they showed that cultural training increases an individual's level of intercultural sensitivity. Straffon (2003) utilized the DMIS to show that levels of intercultural sensitivity were positively related to the length of time that high school students attended international schools. Lastly, Yamamoto (1998) asserted that Japanese students do not perceive cultural differences as facts, suggesting that developmental differences shown by the DMIS are due to perceptual differences.

Research by Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) showed that individuals high in intercultural sensitivity are highly capable of effective interaction across cultures, enjoy complex tasks which require intercultural interaction and have spent at least three years living in another culture. They concluded, utilizing the ICSI, that cross-cultural training programs do encourage people to adjust their behaviour in order to have a greater chance of achieving their objectives. In addition, there have been a relatively small number of studies utilizing the ICSI. A study by Sizoo et al. (2007) suggests that "intercultural expertise does not significantly increase by simply living in a foreign country, or by getting older, or by simply getting the dos and don'ts of culture" (p 93). The researchers used the ICSI among students in an introduction course regarding international business and argued that intercultural sensitivity requires specific training interventions on cross-cultural skills. Elkins (1997) explored whether experiential learning is effective at impacting affective learning and concluded that it takes time to develop a student's intercultural sensitivity.

In contrast to the very few empirical studies employing the ICSI, there has been more research regarding intercultural sensitivity employing the ISS. A study from Coffey et al. (2013), used a modified version of Chen and Starosta's ISS to compare how individual elements of intercultural sensitivity are affected by a virtual environment versus a web environment. They concluded, using a sample group of undergraduate students in the United

States, that an individual's willingness and effort in trying to understand an intercultural interaction has the most statistical significance in intercultural sensitivity outcomes. Jantawej (2011) used the ISS to investigate the intercultural sensitivity of foreign teachers in Thai public schools. The results indicate that adjusting to the Thai educational tradition can reduce a teacher's cultural discomfort. Kim (2004) investigated the relationship between motivation and intercultural sensitivity in English teaching (EFL) achievement and argued that Korean students are higher motivated to learn English when they exhibit a moderate level of intercultural sensitivity. A similar study by Hou (2010), aiming to assess the intercultural sensitivity of EFL learners in China, found significant room for improvement of the research subjects' intercultural sensitivity in order to prepare them better for their upcoming responsibility. Finally, Bernardo et al. (2014) studied intercultural sensitivity among young people in Spain. The results show that, generally, young people have a medium to high intercultural sensitivity score, which made the researcher reflect on "how the context, especially of employment, influences young's people perception of cultural diversity and particularly on the foreign population" (p.318).

2.2.5 Critique of the intercultural sensitivity concept

Bennett (1993) argues that intercultural sensitivity, as measured through the IDI, ultimately leads to the development of a new identity which is different from one's own cultural background. However, according to Sparrow (2000), it is not possible to build a completely new cultural identity, disposing of one's native culture, and Shaules (2007) argues that it is not possible to reach an end-state of intercultural development in which individuals go through rigid stages of development. In addition, the IDI has shown weak transferability across languages and cultures (Greenholtz, 2005), implying it is not culture-free, contradicting research from Hammer (2011) claiming strong content and construct validity across culture groups. Although the IDI is a strongly supported concept, most research has been exploratory making it less suitable for quantitative research purposes.

Regarding the intercultural sensitivity inventory (ICSI), Kapoor and Comadena (1996) argued that the items used to measure intercultural sensitivity are abstract and therefore ineffective unless the individuals are familiar with a specific culture. It is, therefore, not surprising that additional research to test the validity and reliability of the ICSI has not been very productive (Blue et al., 1997; Comadena et al., 1999; Kapoor et al., 2001; Matsumoto and Hwang, 2013) and has been limited.

The intercultural sensitivity scale (ISS) has been examined in various cultural samples (e.g., US, Chinese, German and Malaysian) and, although the internal consistency levels were acceptable in most studies, the reliability coefficients of some subscales were unacceptable (Awang-Rozaimie et al., 2013). For example, McMurray (2007) found that certain items, like "I think my culture is better than other cultures" had very high standard deviations. Several studies (Tamam, 2010; Wu, 2015) failed to replicate the proposed five-factor structure, which suggests that a number of scale-items might not be applicable in the Asian context (Wang and Zhou, 2016). Several researchers, therefore, argue that the ISS is not a culture-free scale (Fritz et al., 2005; Fritz and Möllenberg, 1999; Tamam, 2010) and has limited validity across cultures.

More generically, several scholars have argued that intercultural sensitivity is a prerequisite for achieving intercultural competence (Bhawuk and Brislin, 1992; Chen and Starosta, 2000; Hammer et al., 2003). However, this might be one of the biggest challenges, since a significant amount of the research on intercultural sensitivity lacks a clear conceptualization (Fritz and Möllenberg, 1999; Fritz et al., 2002) or suffers from construct overlap with other concepts, like intercultural awareness and intercultural competence (Comadena et al., 1999; Foronda, 2008). While numerous scales have been developed to measure someone's intercultural sensitivity, very few researchers have addressed the issue of clear terminology (Bönte, 2014). As a result, the concept lacks a clear and broadly accepted definition (Bhawuk and Brislin, 1992; Chen, 2007; Hammer et al., 2003) and it is not surprising

that different measurements of a similar concept, like intercultural sensitivity, lead to inconsistent results (Kauffman et al., 1992)

Although the concept has frequently been discussed in relation to task effectiveness and cross-cultural adjustment (Blue et al., 1997), little empirical research is available on the antecedents of intercultural sensitivity (Bönte, 2014). This might be because intercultural sensitivity differs from other related constructs, in that it finds the development of interest, sensitivity and respect more important than immediate priorities such as, for example, accomplishing task-related objectives (Bhawuk et al., 1999). The fact that little empirical evidence is available clearly imposes a challenge to the relevance of the construct.

Finally, the literature review reveals that there are few reliable and valid instruments to measure the concept of intercultural sensitivity (Bhawuk and Brislin, 1992; Bönte, 2014), despite several attempts as indicated in this section.

2.3 GLOBAL MINDSET

Another construct which has gained significant traction amongst scholars is global mindset, which is argued to be crucial for people to develop their organisation's current and future international success (Jeannet, 2000; Lovvorn and Chen, 2011; Murtha et al., 1998). The construct of global mindset originates from the early work of Perlmutter (1969); however, since this seminal study, it took until the nineties before this construct really gathered momentum, receiving substantial attention from both scholars and practitioners. This led to numerous definitions of a global mindset (e.g. Gupta and Govindarajan, 2002; Kedia and Mukherji, 1999; Rhinesmith, 1995), which indicates that understanding this construct requires a close examination of these viewpoints. In the next sub-sections, the seminal work of Perlmutter (1969) will be discussed alongside the work of Rhinesmith (1993) and, more recently, Beechler and Javidan (2007). Also, briefly, a few other models based on the work of these scholars will be touched upon to

provide a holistic view regarding the literature on the global mindset construct.

2.3.1 Global mindset by Perlmutter (1969)

As indicated at the beginning of this section, the construct of global mindset originates from the early work of Perlmutter (1969), who was the first to explain the concept of a global mindset. Perlmutter (1969) illustrated various ways in which an executive manager or organization can perceive the world, by defining three attitudes: ethnocentric (home country orientation); polycentric (host country orientation); and geocentric (world orientation). According to Perlmutter (1969), these attitudes, which were introduced as the EPG profile (see Figure 2), influence and shape international organisations. Individuals with a geocentric perspective are comfortable with uncertainty, since they are open and, therefore, tend to drive for a broader business perspective, since they value diversity and accept contradictory views as an opportunity. In this concept, global mindset is operationalized through managerial attitudes and indicators, such as the number of foreign nationals in key positions in an organization (Bouquet et al., 2003). According to Perlmutter (1969) geocentrism is hypothesized to make "a more powerful total company, a better quality of product and services, worldwide utilization of best resources, improvement of local company management, and last but not least, more profit" (p.16).

Perlmutter's seminal work on geocentrism became the foundation of the construct of global mindset (Gupta and Govindarajan, 2002; Lane et al., 2004; Levy et al., 2007). As a result, there have been numerous definitions of a Global Mindset (e.g. Gupta and Govindarajan, 2002; Kedia and Mukherji, 1999; Rhinesmith, 1995) in the last decade to formulate this concept in the context of cross-cultural skills and abilities (Bücker and Poutsma, 2010; House et al., 2002; Javidan et al., 2006). These definitions all have in common the view that individuals need to overcome the ethnocentric perspective and act easily between cultures and countries, becoming true

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cosmopolitans through integrating foreign values and habits (Adler et al., 1986; Levy et al., 2007).
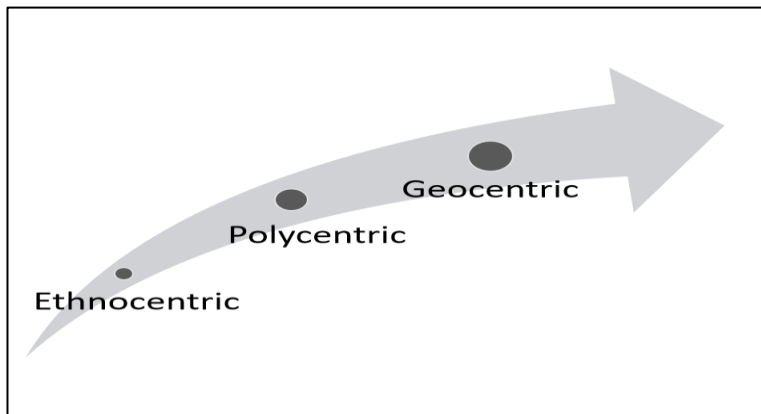
Figure 2: EPG profile (adapted from Perlmutter, 1969)

Bartlett and Ghosal (2003) emphasize the importance of a global mindset as a necessary strategy for global leadership across national borders, introducing the concept of the transnational organization. It refers to the complexity produced by globalization and, in the literature, is often also referred to as cognitive complexity (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 2003; Caligiuri and Tarique, 2012; Levy et al., 2007), which has been proposed as an important dimension of a global mindset (Boyacigiller et al., 2004). Based on a 5-year study, Bartlett and Ghoshal (2003) hypothesized that a transnational mindset leads to superior long term value and superior performance. According to the authors, a transnational mindset results in understanding business challenges and opportunities from both local and global perspectives, due to a willingness to collaborate well with others, in contrast to an ethnocentric perspective.

Building on the research of Bartlett and Ghoshal (2003), Jeannett (2000) defines global mindset as "a state of mind that is able to understand a business, industry or particular market on a global basis" (p. 46). Jeannett (2000) argues that individuals with a global mindset can look beyond domestic viewpoints and can focus on commonalities across national

markets, instead of focussing on differences. This definition stresses the importance of global strategic thinking through assessing global markets, integrating differences and providing adequate strategic solutions. In other words; organizations and individuals must think globally and domestically simultaneously, recognize situations with compelling elements both globally and locally and strike a balance between thinking globally and acting locally (Begley and Boyd, 2003; Murtha et al., 1998).

This is in line with Kefalas and Weatherly (1998), who contend that individuals who achieve strong local results with a global mindset are the ones best suited for international leadership positions. Kefalas (1998) conceptualized global mindset through two dimensions: conceptualization and contextualization. Conceptualization is related to describing the main characteristics of a phenomenon and identifying the key connections between them. Contextualization is needed to adapt to the local environment, based on a conceptual framework. Kefalas (1998) distinguishes four categories of individuals: misfits, nationals, expatriates and globals (Figure 3), which is very similar to the work of Baird (1994), who identified four mindsets:

1. The defender, which represents a traditional, internally-focused mindset orientated to the domestic market and its needs.
2. The explorer is aware there might be market opportunities in foreign markets, although his mindset is still mostly inward orientated.
3. The controller is even more externally focused than the explorer and wishes to lead in foreign markets, but follows an ethnocentric approach.
4. The integrator is the individual with a real global mindset and orientation, based on enhanced knowledge and skills. This profile can hold various cultural perspectives.
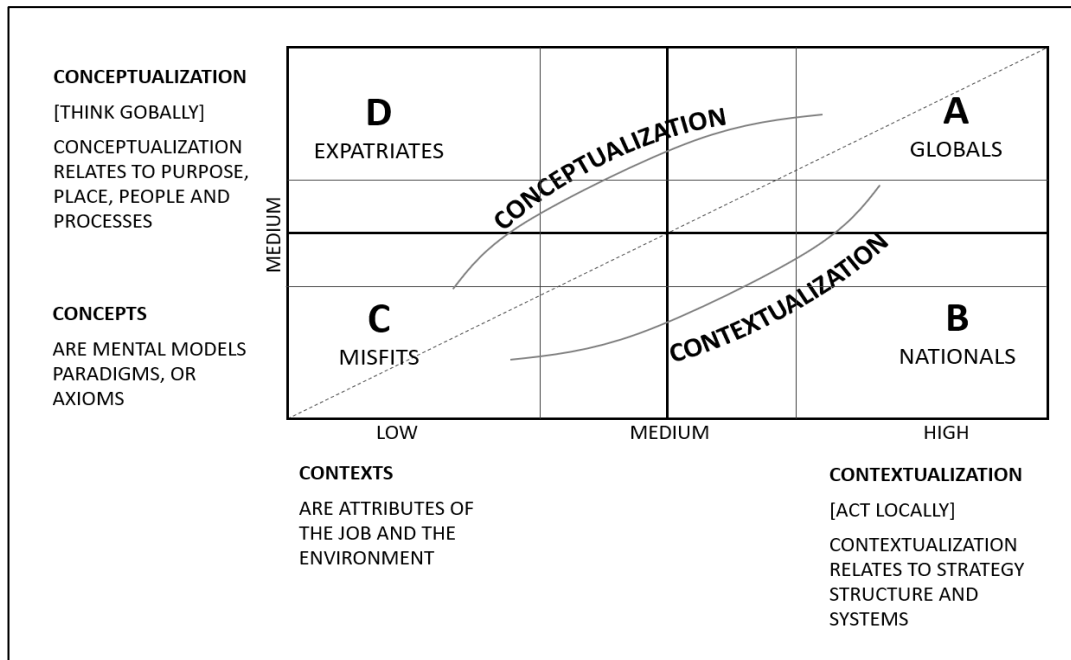
Figure 3: Conceptual Model of a global mindset according to Kefalas and Weatherly (1998)

Finally, Govindarajan and Gupta (1998) also stress the ability to concurrently consider national and transnational dynamics as elements of a global mindset, in a very similar way to Perlmutter's concept. They argue that a global mindset leads to increased market opportunities and competitive advantage, and conceptualize a global mindset as a knowledge structure defined by strong differentiation and integration, based on the theory of cognitive filters (Gupta and Govindarajan, 2002). The authors propose that high scores on both elements of differentiation and integration indicate that an individual or organization has a global mindset, as indicated in Figure 4. They operationalize the construct in the following ways: curiosity with a strong commitment to learning about the world; possessing insight of their current mindset through exposure to complexity and diversity and; integrating these insights into knowledge about markets and cultures. Govindarajan et al. (2001) additionally build upon previous research, suggesting several interventions to cultivate a global mindset, such as international assignments, cross border teams and projects, using different locations for meetings and cross-cultural learning programs.
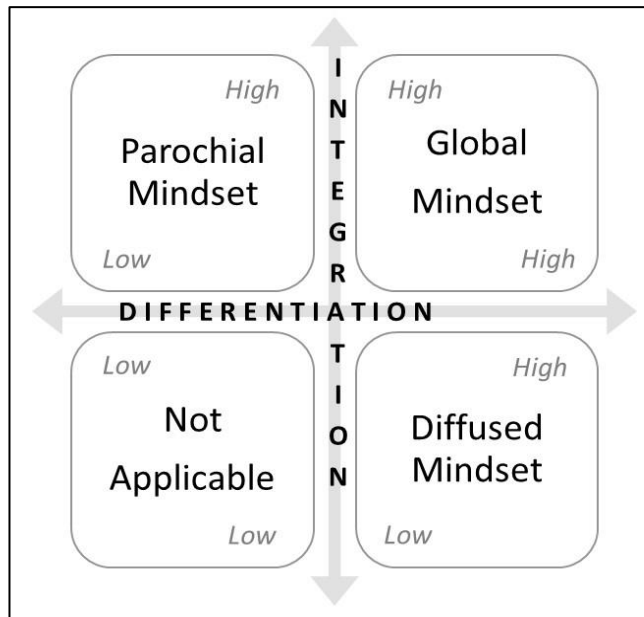
Figure 4: Conceptual Model of a global mindset according to Govindarajan and Gupta (2002)

2.3.2 Global mindset by Rhinesmith (1992)

In contrast to the research stream based on the work of Perlmutter (1969), this approach to global mindset includes additional characteristics beyond cultural dimensions and is influenced by the work of Rhinesmith (1992; 1993; 1995), whose explanation of global mindset integrates aspects from both a cultural, strategic and individual perspective. According to Rhinesmith, a global mindset "is the ability to scan the world from a broad perspective, always looking for unexpected trends and opportunities that may constitute a threat or an opportunity to achieve personal, professional or organizational opportunities" (1993, p. 24). Having a global mindset is crucial in understanding the interdependence of the global marketplace.

Rhinesmith (1992) describes global mindset at an individual level and argues that global mindset is a way of viewing the world holistically. Rhinesmith's (2003) approach is shown in Figure 5 and entails two components: global intellectual intelligence and global emotional intelligence. The first component, global intellectual intelligence, is built from the ability to overcome ambiguity (business acumen) and the capacity to overcome

challenges (paradox management). The second component, global emotional intelligence, is related to cosmopolitanism and consists of the ability to collaborate effectively (personal management) and having cultural acumen, which is necessary to work effectively across cultural boundaries.
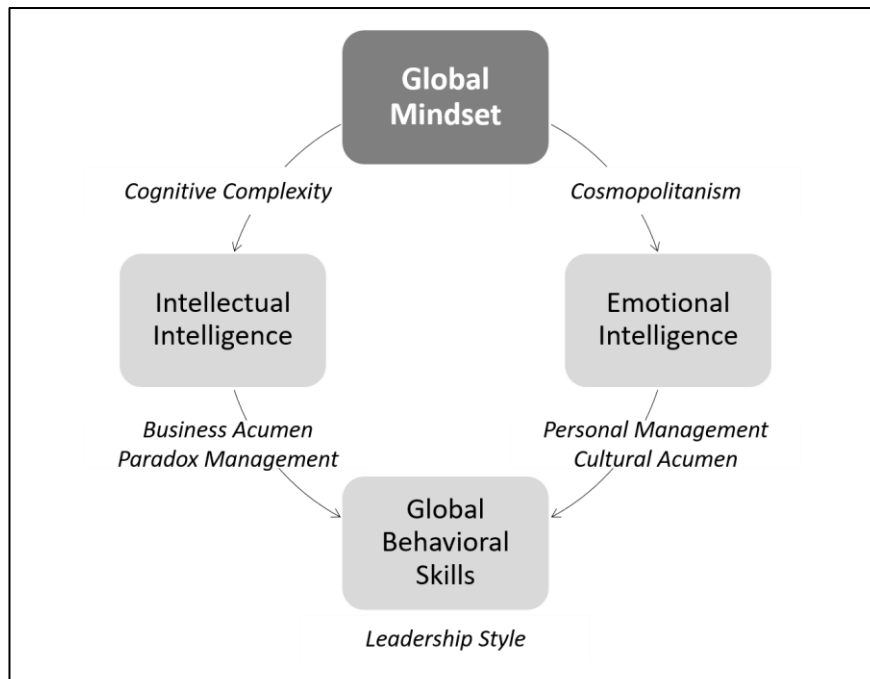
Figure 5: Conceptual Model of a global mindset according to Rhinesmith (2003)

A global executive must, therefore, have strong cognitive capabilities and the ability to balance conflicting realities and demands. In his research, Rhinesmith (1993) described six traits that differentiate managers with a global mindset from those who take a domestic mindset; (1) having a bigger and broader picture; (2) balancing paradoxes; (3) trusting processes over structure; (4) valuing differences; (5) managing change and; (6) seeking lifelong learning.

Kedia and Mukherji (1999) build upon Rhinesmith's (1995) description, arguing that, within the organization, an individual's global mindset provides him or her with the insight to recognize the organisation's interdependence on the global economy, even though the activities appear to be focused around the domestic market. Global managers should adopt a more global

mindset by changing their paradigm, and the authors describe that managers with a global mindset can develop global strategies through integration of global forces, like competition, local/regional pressures and integrated functions, into effective decision making. Kedia and Mukherji (1999) conceptualize global mindset through a two-pillared model (see Figure 6) and claim that only two dimensions are sufficient to enrich and sustain a global mindset: knowledge and skills. Their model implies that having a global mindset allows for having a broader perspective and the ability to scan the environment to evaluate opportunities and threats to achieve objectives.
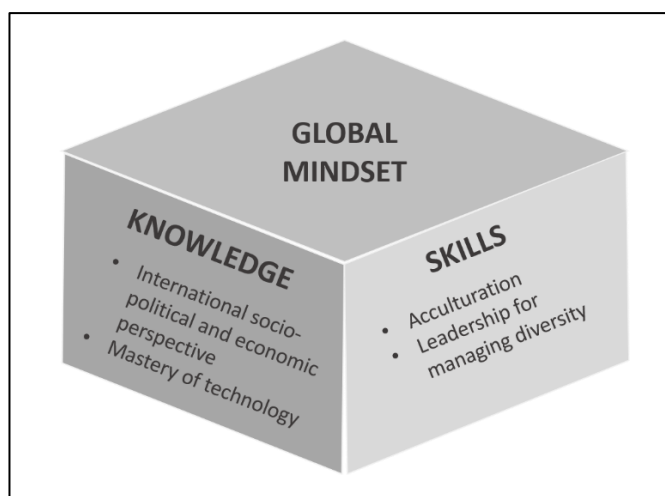
Figure 6: Developing a global perspective according to Kedia & Mukherji (1999)

Extending the work of Rhinesmith (1993) and Kedia and Mukherji (1999), Levy et al. (1997) view global mindset as an individual-level construct that captures and represents a unique multidimensional cognition (see Figure 7). They define global mindset as openness to and capability to articulate various cultural and strategic realities, on a local, regional and global scale, whilst having the skills to integrate these multidimensional perspectives. Elaborating on this definition, global mindset is characterized by three corresponding elements: (1) an openness to and awareness of multiple interpretations and actions; (2) complex exemplification of underlying cultural and strategic forces and; (3) intermediation of ideals and actions oriented both globally and locally. Levy et al. (2007) argued that executives with this

"global mindset" possess the ability to manage the friction between global integration and local responsiveness effectively, suggesting that having a global mindset drives globalisation and, thus, the ability to grasp global market opportunities.
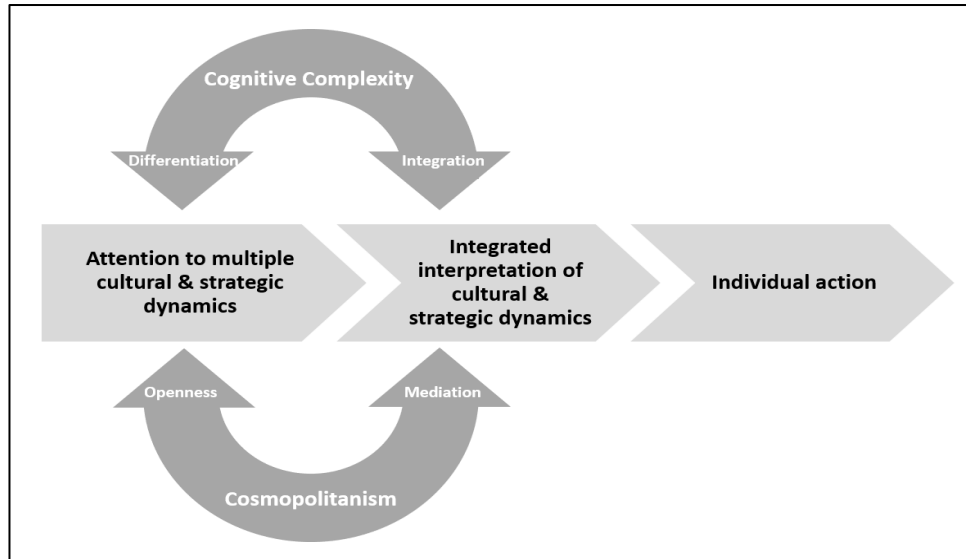
Figure 7: Conceptual Model of a global mindset according to Levy et al. (1997)

2.3.3 Global mindset by Beechler and Javidan (2007)

A more recent addition to the literature on global mindset has its foundation in the global leadership and organizational behaviour effectiveness (GLOBE) research project, which is arguably the most extensive study from a global perspective to date. With 160 academic scientists and management scholars from over 60 cultures, the GLOBE project worked with around 17,000 middle managers from more than 900 corporates (House et al., 2002). Based upon this research, Beechler and Javidan (2007) have begun working on the global mindset construct, in the context of both historical and technological elements which have led to the increasing need for both individuals and organizations to be successful in the global world (Stokke, 2013). Beechler and Javidan (2007) developed the framework supported by cultural, strategic and multidimensional perspectives which they describe as "the stock of (1) knowledge, (2) cognitive and (3) psychological attributes that enable a global

leader to influence individuals, groups and organizations (inside and outside the boundaries of the global organization), representing diverse cultural/political/institutional systems to contribute towards the achievement of organizational goals" (p. 154).
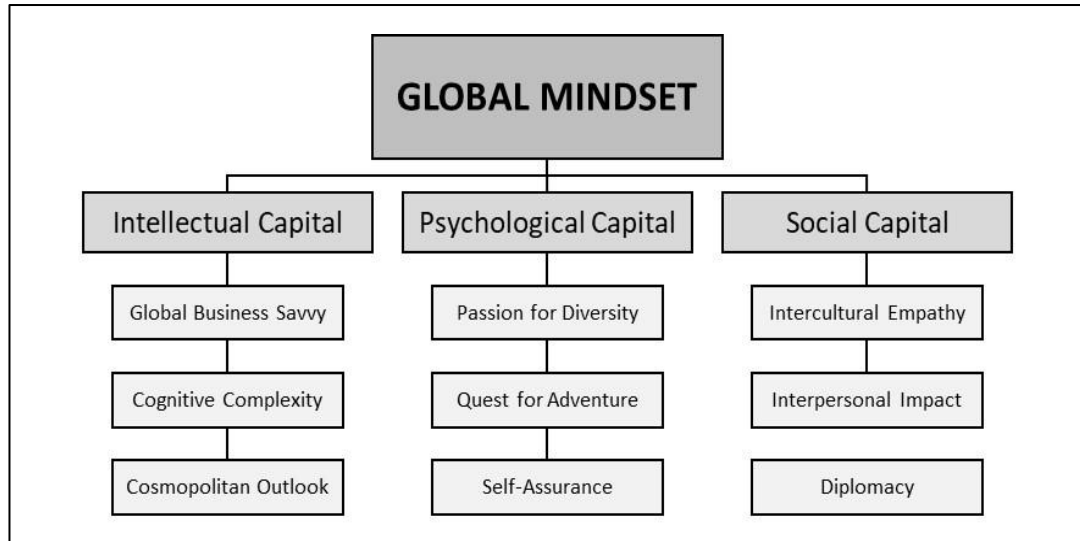
Figure 8: Global Mindset according to Beechler and Javidan (2007)

The model (see Figure 8) is built upon three components: intellectual capital, social capital, and psychological capital. Intellectual capital refers to intellectual and cognitive capabilities to understand global business and consists of several key elements: knowledge of global industries; understanding value networks and organizations; understanding complex global issues and; possessing cultural acumen. Social capital is the capability to build relationships inside and outside the organisation, with people from different cultures and consists of: international connections; interpersonal competence needed to develop new relationships; and leadership skills required to mobilize employees at the global level. Thirdly, psychological capital, which refers to cosmopolitanism, is about being passionate for cross-cultural encounters and having a positive psychological profile. This element consists of several key attributes: respect for diverse cultures; open attitudes toward diverse cultures; passion for learning about and exploring other

cultures and; positive personality traits, such as resilience, curiosity and confidence.

Based on these components, Javidan and Teagarden (2011) developed the global mindset inventory (GMI) at Thunderbird's Najafi Global Mindset Institute as a set of individual characteristics to measure and predict the performance of individuals in global leadership positions through an internet-based questionnaire. More than 8000 individuals and managers from more than 200 organizations around the world have completed the survey, which was developed by a panel of scholars. According to Javidan and Teagarden (2011), the GMI has strong reliability scores and multidimensional validity properties. Also, all three components of a global mindset have a good internal reliability score (ranging from .90 – 0.95) confirmed by factor analysis (Javidan et al., 2010).

2.3.4 Empirical studies on the global mindset construct

The first contemporary empirical study to examine the construct of Global Mindset, as defined by Perlmutter (1969), was from Kobrin (1994), who measured geocentrism through measuring the judgments, attitudes and expectations of Human Resources managers. The results – based on data from American manufacturing multinational companies – indicated a relationship between a geocentric mindset and the geographical scope of the organisation. However, the research did not provide any insights into the direction of the causality between an organisation's strategy, structure and geocentric orientation. Beechler et al. (2004) also used Kobrin's measure and found, in a study of 521 employees working in two Japanese multinational organizations, that geocentrism is positively related to an employee's level of commitment.

Nummela et al. (2004) reported a significant relationship between global mindset and the global market orientation of an organisation, and Hsu et al. (2008) found that SMEs believe that having a global mindset plays a critical role in international markets. Calof and Beamish (1994) noticed that

organisations who characterized themselves as geocentric, based on a survey of 38 Canadian firms, had significantly greater success in the global marketplace than those who reported an ethnocentric or polycentric approach. Adding to this, Carpenter et al. (2001) found that the international experience of a CEO positively predicts an organisation's financial performance as measured by return on assets and stock returns.

Calori et al. (1994) found a significant relation between the geographic scope of the organisation and the CEO's cognitive complexity based on interviewing CEO's of 12 French and 14 British companies. Sambharya (1996) studied global mindset as "believes and values" and a "cognitive state" and reported a significant positive correlation between the diversity in terms of international experience of the top management within a company, and the extent of the organisation's international diversification, based on a study of 54 manufacturing multinational companies. This is consistent with research from Peyrefitte et al. (2002), who found a significant relationship between the experience of top management and the level of internationalization, based on 87 US Fortune 500 firms.

Based on the model of Kefalas (1998), Arora et al. (2004) found that managers are better in thinking globally (conceptualization) than in acting locally (contextualization). In their study of 65 managers in the textile industry, they found significant relationships between global mindset and demographic dimensions like level of education (positive), international training (positive) and age (negative). Their research also concluded that American managers scored significantly lower on global mindset than non-American managers.

Contrary to researchers who concluded the more global mindset the better, Bouquet et al. (2003) reported a curvilinear relationship between company performance and the attention to international strategic issues. Initially, the curve rises to optimal outcomes and then the performance declines or even becomes negative when leaders focus too much on global business.

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Lastly, Levy (2005) studied global mindset over an eight-year period testing the relationship between top management's attention patterns and the organisation's international strategy. Levy (2005) concluded that if top management pay more attention to the external environment, organisations are more likely to develop globalization strategies and organisational outcomes.

2.3.5 Critique of the global mindset concept

Although the global mindset concept has been present for several decades, it has only gained significant traction amongst scholars in the recent past. As the literature review reveals, the concept is widely used and one of the key points to highlight is the confusion surrounding the definition and different elements constituting the construct. There are many definitions (Pobat, 2012) and conceptualizations (Levy et al., 2007), leading to diversity both within and across research streams, as well as conceptual ambiguity in the field (Javidan and Teagarden, 2011; Levy et al., 2007).

As a result, the global mindset has become a construct at organizational, group and individual level which entails everything from attitudes, skills, competencies and behaviours. Since the research on global mindset has been conducted on multiple levels of analysis, it can be considered as a multilevel construct, leading to both conceptual and methodological issues (Boyacigiller et al., 2004; Lafayette, 1985; Levy et al., 2007; Maznevski and Lane, 2004).

Another reason for methodological concern is the operationalization of the construct. Scholars have operationalized global mindset in a variety of ways, using diverse data sources (e.g. industry context) within and across theoretical levels (Begley and Boyd, 2003; Gupta and Govindarajan, 2002). This variety of conceptualization has led to significantly more conceptual articles in the literature than empirical ones. From the literature, there appears to be limited empirical evidence on the construct (Levy, 2000; Ransom, 2007) and available assessments are often untested or little

evidence is available regarding the results of the published studies (Beechler and Javidan, 2007). Additionally, empirical studies report inconstant and contradictory results (Konyu-Fogel, 2011; Levy et al., 2007), in part due to this conceptual confusion (Andresen and Bergdolt, 2017). For an extensive overview regarding previous research on the construct of global mindset see Levy et al. (2007).

As stated previously in this section, several studies indicate that a higher global mindset leads to superior organizational performance; however, according to Bouquet (2003), these indications lack empirical evidence and several scholars argue that a lot of the global mindset research lacks rigor (Beechler and Javidan, 2007; Stokke, 2013). According to Osland et al. (2006), most authors provide more normative advice on the topic of global mindset than attempts at tackling theoretical and empirical challenges. Therefore, few conclusions can be drawn about the empirical relationships between global mindset and outcomes, on individual, group or organisational level.

Global mindset, as defined by intellectual, psychological and social global capital, holds a lot of promise (Beechler and Javidan, 2007). All scales of the Global Mindset Inventory have acceptable reliabilities; however, second order factor analysis produces a two-factor structure instead of the theoretically-developed three-factor structure (Javidan and Teagaarden, 2011), with the social global capital dimension failing to emerge (Thomas, 2006). Additionally, the literature review reveals limited availability of empirical evidence and mixed results to support its predictive validity (Hough et al., 2008).

2.4 CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE

The last construct to be addressed in the literature review is cultural intelligence (CQ) which may be described as relatively new in the scientific literature (Gelfand et al., 2008). It was first described in 2003 by Earley and Ang and was developed by a group of interdisciplinary academics (Earley

and Ang, 2003; Earley et al., 2007). Whilst the concept originated from organisational psychology, it was picked up by international management literature soon after its inception (Thomas, 2006), when a validated scale was developed to measure an individual's CQ. Since the development of the cultural intelligence scale (CQS) numerous empirical studies across various disciplines have been published, leading to a lot of attention from both scholars and practitioners, providing a lot of promise.

Although the concept has been addressed by a small group of scholars, there are several definitions reflecting CQ, which include: the behaviours that are considered intelligent from the perspective of people in different cultures (Brislin et al., 2006); the individual's ability to effectively engage with people from other cultural backgrounds (Thomas, 2006); and the ability to successfully adjust to other cultural settings (Earley & Ang, 2003).These definitions (see Thomas et al., 2008 for an overview) are derived from two perspectives of CQ, by Earley and Ang (2003) and Thomas and Inkson (2004). One perspective views CQ as contributing to cultural adjustment through the dimensions of meta-cognition, cognition, motivation, and behaviour (Ang et al., 2004; Earley and Ang, 2003). The other perspective views behaviour as an outcome of CQ, and thus considers the cognitive aspects of culture to indicate CQ (Thomas, 2006; Thomas and Inkson, 2004).

There are many similarities between the two perspectives, since both refer to CQ as individual capabilities which enable one to interact effectively with others from different cultural backgrounds and in different cultural environments (Brislin et al., 2006); however, there are also some important differences. Hence, in the next section, both perspectives will be discussed in more detail.

2.4.1 CQ by Earley and Ang (2003)

In this perspective, the CQ model is grounded in Sternberg's (1985) model of multiple intelligences, which was first introduced by Gardner (1993) as having the potential and ability to manage challenges that exist in specific cultural

environments. Sternberg (1985) suggested several core mental processes that transcend environmental context: (1) recognizing the existence of a problem; (2) defining the nature of the problem; (3) constructing a strategy to solve the problem; (4) mentally representing information about the problem; (5) allocating mental resources to solve the problem; (6) monitoring one's solution to the problem, and; (7) evaluating one's solution to the problem. According to Sternberg and Detterman (1986), metacognition, cognition and motivation are mental capabilities that reside in the mind, while overt actions are behavioural capabilities.

Drawing on this multi-dimensional perspective of intelligence, Earley and Ang (2003) define CQ as "a person's ability to adapt effectively to new cultural contexts" (p.59). The authors initially conceptualized CQ as a multidimensional construct consisting of different but interrelated dimensions (Ang et al., 2004), which allow for specific culture-related behaviours that are important for effective interactions in cross-cultural settings (Van Dyne et al., 2008). These dimensions are cognition, motivation and behaviour (Ng and Earley, 2006), as shown in Figure 9. Earley and Ang (2003) operationalized this three-faceted model into four factors dividing the cognitive dimension into a cognitive and meta-cognitive factor in later work (Ng and Earley, 2006).
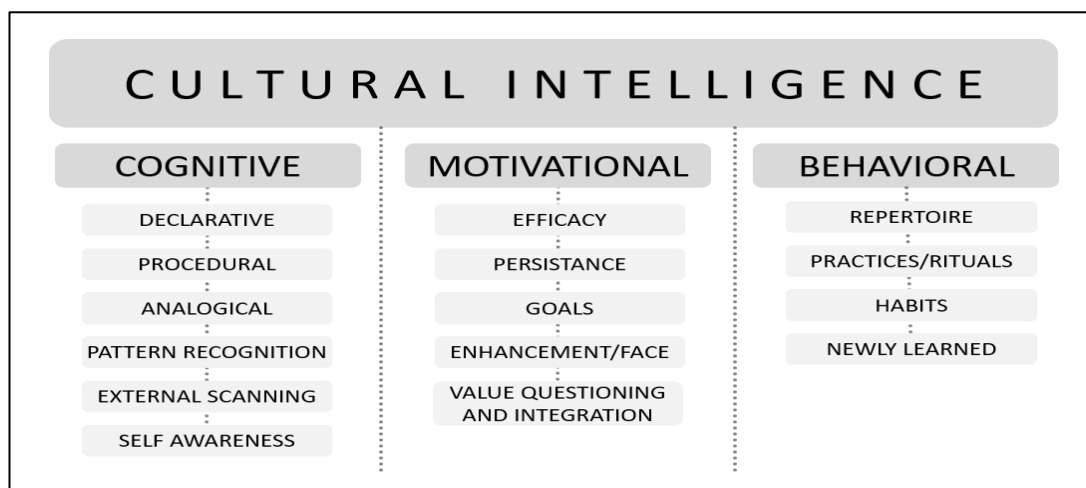
Figure 9: Conceptual framework of cultural intelligence by Earley and Ang (2003)

The first factor is related to the cognitive aspect of CQ (CCQ) and refers to the level of knowledge of a certain cultural environment (Triandis, 1994). According to Ang and Van Dyne (2008), CCQ is important because gained knowledge about a specific culture supports the behaviour in understanding social interactions. It is a crucial aspect since, to a large degree, an individual's cognition is influenced by the level of knowledge about other cultures. Therefore, individuals with a higher level of CCQ are better capable to effectively interact with those from other cultures (Ang et al., 2007; Kim and Slocum, 2008), are less likely to wrongly read cultural clues (Triandis, 1995) and have a better appreciation and understanding of differences and similarities found between different cultures (Imai and Gelfand, 2010).

The second dimension of CQ is called metacognition (MCCQ) and reflects cognitive processes that people use to acquire and understand knowledge (Gianasso, 2011). Flavel (1979) defined metacognition as knowledge of and control over an individual's thinking and learning undertakings, with two distinct elements: knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition. Metacognition helps to develop and strategize plans for intercultural encounters (Van Dyne et al., 2010) and is defined as "an individual's cultural consciousness and awareness during interactions with those from different cultural backgrounds" (Ang et al., 2004, p.5) . It is an essential element of CQ and people who are high in MCCQ can slow down during intercultural interactions, reflect and question their own cultural knowledge and make appropriate adjustments resulting in trust (Ang et al., 2007; Brislin et al., 2006; Triandis, 2006).

In addition to cognitive capabilities that enhance understanding of other cultures, CQ also includes the motivational capability (MCQ) to cope with complex and ambiguous cross-cultural settings. MCQ is conceptualized as a person's curiosity, aspiration and drive in experiencing and adapting to other cultures. This includes the ability to direct attention and energy towards learning about and functioning in different cultures (Ang et al., 2007; Ng et al., 2009b). MCQ therefore goes beyond recognizing cultural differences,

dealing with the motivation behind cognitive processes (Templer et al., 2006). Being familiar with another person's culture-specific way of interacting is therefore inadequate without being motivated to apply this knowledge. Individuals who possess high MCQ have a strong desire to meet intercultural challenges, tolerate frustration and feel confident in their own capabilities, leading to better adaptability (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008). They channel attention and energy towards cross-cultural situations based on intrinsic interest and confidence across cultural boundaries (Bandura, 2002).

The fourth and last dimension is the behavioural aspect of the cultural intelligence construct (BCQ). Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) argue that individuals must be interested in other cultures to communicate effectively, possess a certain degree of sensitivity to notice cultural differences and adapt their behaviour to show respect for individuals from other cultures. This is in line with Hall (1959), who recognizes that mental capabilities for cultural understanding and interest (motivational) must be complemented with behavioural flexibility to exhibit appropriate actions, based on cultural values of specific settings. Building upon this, BCQ is the capacity to show appropriate behaviour based on a broad range of verbal and nonverbal capabilities, such as displaying culturally appropriate words, tones, gestures, kinesics and facial expressions (Earley and Ang, 2003; Gudykunst et al., 1988; Kim et al., 2008; Livermore, 2009; Selmer, 2006). It has been defined as an individual's flexibility in demonstrating the appropriate actions when interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds (Ward and Fischer, 2008). Those with high BCQ demonstrate flexibility in their cross-cultural encounters, adjust their behaviour and facilitate effective interactions (Rockstuhl et al., 2011) and, therefore, gain easier acceptance, which supports better interpersonal relationships (Ang et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2011).

Based upon a broad review of the intelligences and intercultural literature, complemented by interviewing executives with extensive international experience (Van Dyne et al., 2008), the cultural intelligence scale (CQS) was

developed (Van Dyne et al., 2008). Firstly, the initial item pool of 53 questions was reduced to 40 items by a panel of subject experts. The questions were all positively phrased, to avoid methodological artefacts (Van Dyne et al., 2008).

This was followed by an initial study to endorse the four CQ dimensions through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and to retain only those items with strong psychometric properties. This study confirmed the four factors as conceptualized and resulted in a final 20-item scale (Ng et al., 2012). The next study, a non-overlapping sample of undergraduate students, confirmed the four-factor structure with strong internal consistencies (meta-cognitive CQ α = 0.77; cognitive CQ α = 0.84; motivational CQ α = 0.77; behavioural CQ α = 084). A third study, a cross-validation sample from the previous study, was conducted four months later, confirming test-retest reliability (Van Dyne et al., 2008).

The next study tested invariance, using CFA, and confirmed the superiority of the four-factor model across countries (Singapore and the US). The last study tested generalizability across methods, comparing self and observer ratings and, multi-trait multimethod analysis (MTMM), providing evidence of convergent, discriminant and criterion validity of the CQS (Van Dyne et al., 2008).

2.4.2 CQ by Thomas and Inkson (2004)

In this approach, Sternberg's (1997) view is also embraced, in the sense that intelligence is a system of interacting abilities, also building upon the idea of multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1993). Thomas and Inkson (2005) define CQ as "being skilled and flexible about understanding a culture, learning increasingly about it, and gradually shaping one's thinking to be more sympathetic to the culture and one's behaviour to be more fine-tuned and appropriate when interacting with others from the culture" (p. 7). In this definition CQ is the ability to adapt and eventually shape a cross-cultural interaction (Thomas, 2006), which is consistent with the definition adopted by

Earley and Ang (2003). There are more similarities, but also some important differences which will be addressed hereafter, when discussing the three parts that form CQ (see Figure 10) in this approach: Knowledge, Mindfulness and Skills.

The first part is knowledge about what a certain culture is, how it differs and how it affects behaviour. It refers to a content and process component of knowledge, in which the content element refers to knowledge about cultural identities, attributes, values and practices and the process side of knowledge is about the processes through which cultural variation affects behaviour (Thomas, 2006). This first part of CQ is about learning from people from other cultures and "is the result of reflective observation, analysis and abstract conceptualization, which can create new mental categories and re-categorize others in a more sophisticated cognitive system" (Thomas et al., 2008, p. 129).

As with the knowledge part, the skills part of CQ is similar to behavioural CQ as described in the model of Earley and Ang (2003). Because CQ is broad, skills are categorized into perceptual and interpersonal skills, whereas perceptual skills entail learning from intercultural experiences by giving attention to critical differences in cultures and the background of others and self. The interpersonal skills involve the capability to adopt behaviour that is either chosen from a developed skillset or quickly developed during an intercultural encounter (Thomas et al., 2015).

Mindfulness is the last element of this CQ construct and finds its origin in Buddhism (Thich, 1993 in Thomas, 2006), and is a mediating link between the other two parts of CQ. According to Brown and Ryan (2003) mindfulness is the ability to be present in the moment through a strong awareness and is defined as a specific metacognitive strategy regulating cognition (Thomas, 2006). Perhaps this is the reason that, in later publications, mindfulness was changed into Cultural Metacognition (Thomas et al., 2008), in line with the CQ construct of Earley and Ang (2003).

Based upon the model of Thomas and Inkson (2004), Thomas et al. (2008) argued that "any single approach to measurement of Cultural Intelligence is likely to be inadequate" (p. 136). As a result, an online measurement was developed and pre-tested (Thomas et al., 2012) based on items from a variety of existing assessments, like the intercultural sensitivity scale (Chen and Starosta, 2000) and the cross-cultural adaptability inventory (Kelly and Meyers, 1992). The initial results from this study (the literature review revealed only this empirical study) have shown positive results (Thomas et al., 2012); however, more research is needed to prove its reliability and validity.
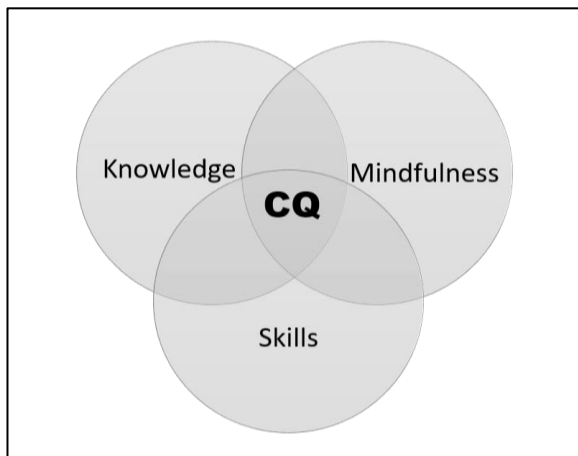
Figure 10: Conceptual framework of cultural intelligence by Thomas and Inkson (2004)

2.4.3 Empirical studies on CQ

A significant body of research has been published confirming the four-factor model of CQ by Earley and Ang (2003), using CFA across national cultures and samples (e.g. Imai and Gelfand, 2010; Khan and Hasan, 2016; Khodadady and Shima Ghahari, 2011; Kim et al., 2008; Mahembe and Engelbrecht, 2014; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Şahin et al., 2013; Ward et al., 2009), providing support for CQ as a culture-free, rather than a culture-specific construct (Gelfand et al., 2008). Additionally, several studies have been conducted to investigate the discriminant validity of CQ from other forms of intelligence, like general mental ability, emotional intelligence and

social intelligence (Ang et al., 2007; Crowne, 2009; Kim et al., 2008; Moon, 2010; Rockstuhl et al., 2011) or personality (Ang et al., 2006; Ang et al., 2007; Şahin et al., 2013; Ward et al., 2009), providing evidence for strong construct validity (Matsumoto and Hwang, 2013).

Research on antecedents of CQ has been concentrated mainly around personality and international experience (Ng et al., 2012) and several studies have been conducted to investigate how personality traits shape CQ. Ang et al. (2006) found that openness to experience, which is defined as the tendency to be creative, imaginative and adventurous (Costa and McCrae, 1992), correlates positively to all four factors of CQ, which is consistent with other research (Li et al., 2016; Moody, 2007; Presbitero, 2016; Smith, 2012). However, research from Li et al., (2016) found that three facets of CQ (BCQ, MCQ and CCQ) were positively related to openness to experience when agreeableness is high and this correlation was insignificant when agreeableness was low, offering new insights. Also, Ang et al. (2006) found only openness to experience to correlate to all four subdimensions of CQ, whereas Presbitero (2016) also found extraversion to be correlated to all four CQ dimensions. All studies related to personality and CQ are based on the five-factor model of personality traits and so far no studies have utilized other personality measures, which leaves an important gap in current research.

Several studies have investigated the correlation between CQ and international work and nonwork experience. Crowne (2008) argued that international work experience predicts all CQ factors except MCQ. Shannon and Begley (2008) only found MCCQ and MCQ to be predicted through international work experience and Tay et al. (2008) found only CCQ to be related to the length of international work experience. Regarding international nonworking experience, Tarique and Takeuchi (2008) found that the number of countries visited predicted all four CQ dimensions, whilst Crowne (2008) established that the number of countries visited predicted only behavioural and cognitive CQ. Interestingly, Moon et al. (2012) found, in a study of Korean expatriates, that not work but nonwork experience predicted CQ.

Based upon learning styles from Kolb (1984), Li et al. (2013) found a positive correlation between the length of an international experience and CQ when global leaders have a divergent learning style. Finally, Wood and St. Peters (2014) found that short term study tours enhanced all CQ dimensions except the behavioural dimension.

There are numerous studies investigating the consequences of CQ and this number is growing significantly, providing considerable evidence in support of the criterion validity of CQ. Studies on CQ can be clustered into cognitive, psychological, behavioural and performance outcomes (Ng et al., 2012). One consequence is cultural judgment and decision making (CJDM), referring to the value of choices with regards to intercultural interactions (Ang et al., 2007). Ang et al. (2007) found a significant relationship where CCQ and MCCQ predicts CJDM. Prado (2006) investigated CQ in relation to perceived environment uncertainty and found a positive relationship between MCCQ and perceived product/market demand uncertainty and that CCQ is positively related to perceived product/market competition.

In the psychological research on CQ, cultural adjustment, which refers to generic well-being when living in another culture, is considered a significant outcome of CQ (Ng et al., 2009a). There have been several studies indicating that CQ has an impact on cultural adjustment. Research from Lin et al. (2012) demonstrated that all four factors of CQ have a positive effect on cultural adjustment, whereas Ang et al. (2007) found MCQ and BCQ to be predictors of cultural adaptation.

Williams (2008), on the other hand, found MCQ to be predictive of psychological and sociocultural adjustment and CCQ only a predictor of sociocultural adjustment. Ramalu et al. (2010) found that MCQ is the only factor of CQ that is significantly correlated to general, interaction and work adjustment. Although Gudmundsdottir (2015) found some significant relationships between CQ and adjustment (whether general, work or interaction), the conclusion was that CQ did not contribute positively to

sociocultural adjustment and BCQ even related negatively to work adjustment.

Ward and Fischer (2008) suggest that MCQ may "channel" flexibility to increase general adjustment. Huff et al. (2014) found, in a study of 154 expatriates in Japan, that MCQ can explain variance in general, interaction and work adjustment over and beyond the five-factor model of personality. Templer et al. (2006) demonstrated a positive relationship between MCQ and general adjustment, over and above realistic job and living conditions prerequisites. Wu and Ang (2011) showed that MCCQ and CCQ negatively moderates the connection between expatriate supporting practices and adjustment, whereas MCQ had a positive moderating effect.

Lee et al. (2013) found that CQ positively moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and expatriate adjustment. Lastly, the results from Abdul-Malek and Budhwar (2013) found a direct relationship between expatriates' CQ and general, interaction and work adjustment; however, these results were based on a two-factor CQ model (CQ awareness and CQ interaction) after confirmatory factor analysis. Despite a wide range of results, these studies indicate that CQ is related to adjustment and, especially, MCQ can enhance cultural adjustment.

Trust is another important psychological outcome which has received some traction. Moynihan et al. (2006) were the first scholars to suggest that CQ predicts intragroup trust. This was confirmed by another study indicating that team level trust (in virtual teams) significantly contributes to the increase in CQ (Erez et al., 2013). Rockstuhl and Ang (2008) found that individuals with higher MCCQ and CCQ are more likely to trust their partner when they themselves have a higher BCQ and only when both parties are from different cultural backgrounds. This is in line with research from Chua and Morris (2012), who showed that overall CQ increases creative collaboration, mediated by affect-based trust among culturally diverse team members only.

These studies demonstrate that CQ enhances the capability to build trusted relationships with individuals from different cultural backgrounds .

Anxiety and emotional exhaustion are also important psychological outcomes, especially with the increased work pressure placed on individuals in the global work environment. A study of 225 Chinese managers working for international multinational companies showed that CQ plays an important role in reducing anxiety (Bücker et al., 2014). A study from Tay et al. (2010) found a negative correlation between CQ and emotional exhaustion amongst international business travellers.

There have only been a few studies investigating the behavioural outcomes of CQ. Elenkov and Manev (2009) showed that CCQ and BCQ plays a moderating role in the visionary-transformational leadership behaviours that strongly influence organizational innovation. Imai and Gelfand (2010) found, in a study of 124 American and East Asian negotiators, that those with higher CQ showed more integrative information and cooperative relationship management behaviours which, in turn, positively predicted joint profits.

Lastly, regarding performance outcomes, the number of studies has grown, especially in recent years. Ang et al. (2007) showed that MCCQ and BCQ predicts task performance amongst foreign professionals as rated by their supervisors. Chen et al. (2011) showed that the performance of workers from the Philippines was positively related to CQ, in line with research results from Nafei (2012) who found all four CQ factors to be correlated to employee job performance. Amiri et al. (2010) explored also the relationship between performance and CQ in a multicultural environment and found MCCQ, CCQ and MCQ to be related significantly.

Another study, in Malaysia, found that expatriates with higher MCCQ and BCQ progressed better in terms of contextual performance (Abdul Malek and Budhwar, 2013). In terms of team performance, a study from Scholl (2009) demonstrated strong positive correlations with all four CQ factors. Lee et al. (2013) predicted that CQ moderates the relationship between

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transformational leadership and expatriate performance and another study found that CQ mediates the relationship between openness to experience and adaptive performance (Oolders et al., 2008). Finally, Groves and Feyerherm (2011) predicted perceptions of followers regarding leadership and team performance outcomes. The results indicate that (elements of) CQ significantly relates to performance in specific domains (e.g. leadership) of work.

2.4.4 Critique of the CQ concept

Despite having received a positive reception from scholars, the CQ concept is not without criticism (Elenkov and Manev, 2009). An important weakness concerns the inconsistent relationship with other variables, like the antecedents of CQ. For example, the results from a study by Ward et al. (2009) failed to show a clear distinction between CQ (as measured by the CQS) and Emotional Intelligence, whereas Ang et al. (2007) claim that CQ and emotional intelligence are distinct. Additionally the relationship between CQ and personality traits show inconsistent results, which is similar to the results on studies investigating the correlation between CQ and international experience, indicating the need for further research.

Despite all the empirical studies on the CQ construct of Ang and Earley (2003), there appears to be limited empirical evidence on its predictive validity (Ward et al., 2011), in spite of calls for longitudinal research on CQ (Lee and Sukoco, 2010). Research findings are not always consistent, raising some important questions, with Matsumoto and Hwang (2013) calling for further psychometric testing across cultural samples of different demographics.

Perhaps because of these observations, Gelfand et al. (2008) advocate consideration of all intelligences simultaneously, rather than simply use other intelligences for statistical control. This is in line with Lee and Templer (2003), who also argue for using multiple methods to fully assess an individual's CQ, which, in subsequent publications, seems lacking (Thomas

et al., 2015). Using this argument, Thomas et al. (2008) have developed a measurement based on the Thomas and Inkson (2004) concept, which has its foundation in (components of) several other assessment models. Whilst the measurement of CQ through the CQS has received a lot of attention from scholars and shows a lot of promise (Ang et al., 2007), the measurement based on the CQ concept of Thomas and Inkson (2004) provides very limited empirical evidence and is in clear need of more validation to determine its usefulness.

Another point of attention in the construct of Earley and Ang (2003), already briefly mentioned, deals with the conceptualization and research of the four factors of CQ. Studies provide contradictory and inconsistent results, with some studies focusing on the dimensional level of CQ and others on the overall construct, which raises conceptual questions regarding the multidimensionality of the construct (Thomas et al., 2008) as initially argued by Earley and Ang (2003). In later work (Ng et al., 2012), it was noted that the four dimensions may or may not interlink; however, no further clarification was found in the literature.

There is still limited research on how individuals develop their CQ and, although several studies have shown its connection with an individual's cross-cultural experience (Ng et al., 2012), Blasco et al. (2012) raise questions whether CQ is a capability which can be easily learned. The CQ concept also does not necessarily account for individuals with the ability to adapt to different cultures without this experience or training, implying that CQ does not differentiate between having CQ and knowing when to use this intelligence.

2.5 REFLECTION AND DISTINCTIVENESS OF CQ

Reflecting upon the different constructs, it appears that CQ, as defined by Earley and Ang (2003), is significantly different from intercultural sensitivity and global mindset. The literature review reveals similarities between the different constructs, but also a lack of consistency, resulting in a fragmented

list of capabilities needed for effectiveness across cultures (Kayes et al., 2005). This section will touch upon the differences and similarities between CQ and the other two concepts; however, it focuses on the distinctiveness of CQ, explaining why this construct is best suited for addressing the proposed research questions.

The constructs of intercultural sensitivity and CQ are similar in the way that both concepts view cross-cultural skills as developmental and, therefore, trainable. Both concepts entail elements of cognition, motivation and behaviour; however, an important difference is the process approach of developing intercultural sensitivity. This requires a commitment to a certain, predefined path of developing intercultural relationships, whereas CQ is more functional, due to its skill-based approach. An important distinction appears to be that the intercultural sensitivity concept is focussed around the individual and the importance of developing higher levels of intercultural sensitivity, versus defining success through outcomes like job performance or cross-cultural adjustment.

CQ and global mindset are more closely related, having two major areas of overlap in terms of their cognitive structure and including a motivational dimension. However, there are also some important differences, with CQ being focussed more on differences between cultures and how to behave accordingly. Therefore, most scholars describe cultural intelligence as being narrower than global mindset (Clapp-Smith, 2009; Levy et al., 2010; Story, 2010), since global mindset includes not only cultural differences, but also social and religious differences (Earley et al., 2007) and global business orientation (Levy et al., 2010; Story, 2010). Further, CQ emphasizes metacognition, or the capability to recognize individual elements of cultural differences and to move beyond them to the general ability to understand and make sense of any example of diversity. In contrast, the global mindset literature is surrounded with inconsistencies about the key dimensions of the concept (Levy et al., 2007).

Another point of divergence is that CQ focusses on, and incorporates, behavioural dimensions, whilst global mindset is more limited to cognition and motivation but not actually its manifestation in behaviour. At the extreme, an individual may possess a high level of global mindset (being able to understand and create effective cross-cultural strategies), but a low level of CQ (unable to adapt behaviour to interact effectively with other cultures).

The integration of intelligence and culture offers a novel framework for understanding cross-cultural competencies and provides several conceptually distinctive contributions to a fragmented field of research (Ang et al., 2007; Gelfand et al., 2008). A core element in the CQ construct is the explicitness of what it entails and does not. CQ expands on the idea of multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1993) and suggests that different loci of intelligences are present within an individual's mental and behavioural capabilities. CQ has been developed as an etic construct (Earley et al., 2006) to determine an individual's capability to understand, reason and behave effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity (Ang et al., 2007). This makes CQ conceptually distinct from other forms of intelligences (Brislin et al., 2006; Earley and Peterson, 2004), since these are culture-specific (Thomas, 2006) and lose some of their meaning outside of their original cultural setting (Berry and Ward, 2006; Sternberg and Grigorenko, 2006; Triandis, 2006). Therefore, other forms of intelligence (e.g. Emotional Intelligence and Social Intelligence) are more a cognitive ability (Vinogradov and Kolvereid, 2006), while CQ is a multifaceted construct. This is confirmed by Earley and Ang (2003), who argue that CQ is distinct from other forms of intelligence, in that it requires people to switch national contexts and rely on their ability to learn new patterns of social interactions and exhibit the right behavioural responses to these patterns.

Another important distinction is that CQ is a set of individual abilities that relate to the capability to perform certain behaviours and it is malleable, meaning that CQ can be enhanced through intercultural training and exposure or experience. Therefore, CQ is also clearly different from

personality, which comprises relatively stable traits like individual differences (Ang et al., 2006). This makes CQ different from other intercultural competency constructs. Ang et al. (2007) found that most cross-cultural concepts mix ability and personality.

The empirical evidence supports the claim that CQ is a culture-free construct and does not compare cultures in terms of relative intelligence. CQ is viewed at individual level and, therefore, "reference to cultural intelligence as if some cultural groups, societies, or nations are more culturally intelligent than others is wholly inaccurate" (Earley and Ang, 2003, p.6), which makes it very different from other cross-cultural competency models (Smith, 2012). The empirical research on both intercultural sensitivity and global mindset confirms inconsistent results concerning their ability to transcend cultures. CQ can, therefore, be considered a theoretical framework for recognizing and understanding skills, knowledge and behaviour necessary to perform effectively in culturally diverse environments (Livermore, 2009).

Perhaps one of the main contributions of the CQ construct to the current body of research on cross-cultural competence is that it offers parsimony or "the scientific goal of choosing the simplest theory among a set of otherwise equivalent theories in explaining a given phenomenon" (Gelfand et al., 2008, p.376). The conceptual basis of CQ offers a comprehensive and cohesive foundation for considering the multifaceted nature of cross-cultural competencies based on a small number of dimensions at a higher level of general abstraction, versus many dimensions at a more specific level (Gelfand et al., 2008).

Furthermore, CQ has received considerable attention from scholars, which has resulted in a steady stream of research providing empirical evidence for construct validity but also indicating some gaps or inconsistent results that provide directions for future research. This is clearly in contrast with other constructs, like intercultural sensitivity and the global mindset. It is not always clear how these constructs have been operationalized; empirical research is

limited or not easy accessible, and results regarding construct validity are often inconsistent, as the literature review reveals.

In summary, empirical evidence indicates that the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) to measure CQ is easy to use, reliable and provides strong construct validity above and beyond other cross-cultural constructs (Gianasso, 2011).

2.6 CQ AND PERSONALITY

A major contribution of the CQ construct is that it provides a theoretical framework that can be used to integrate previous fragmented research on cross-cultural competencies (Gelfand et al, 2008), creating several opportunities for further exploration. Research on antecedents of CQ has been concentrated mainly around personality and international experience (Ng et al., 2012); however, results have been inconsistent, as mentioned before, which requires a closer inquiry.

Research on personality and how it could be operationalized for scientific scrutiny began with the work of Allport (1942, in Bernard et al., 2005), who argued that personality is a complex construct with many meanings. It took almost half a century before researchers came to a widespread agreement that all different personality traits can be clustered into five overarching factors, providing a complete overview of an individual's cognitive, affective and behaviour character (McCrae and Costa, 1997), labelled the "big five" (Goldberg, 1990). These five personality traits have been confirmed in numerous empirical studies (Goldberg, 1993; McCrae et al., 2004), remaining stable over time (Costa and McCrae, 1992), providing reliability (Oishi and Roth, 2009) and predictive validity of the behaviour of individuals (McAdams and Pals, 2006). The "big five" personality traits are defined as:

1. Agreeableness is characterized by traits of kindness, warmth and trust reflecting cooperation and social harmony;
2. Extraversion concerns traits like assertiveness, talkativeness and engagement with the external environment;

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3. <u>Conscientiousness</u> concerns the way in which we manage our impulses and is characterized by, for example, thoroughness and reliability;

4. <u>Neuroticism</u> includes traits like nervousness, moodiness and temper, referring to the tendency to experience negative feelings and;

5. <u>Openness to experience</u> contrasts conventional individuals with people who are imaginative, curious and creative (Barrick and Mount, 1991).

Triandis (1997) argues that the research field of personality is the oldest facet of cross-cultural research and the question if personality is culture-free has been of interest to researchers for quite some time. It has led to numerous studies which have established that these five factors are generizable across cultures (Allik and McCrae, 2002; McCrae and Costa Jr, 1997; McCrae et al., 1996; McCrae and Terracciano, 2005; Paunonen et al., 1992; Rolland, 2002), confirming the "big five" to be culture-free personality traits.

As a result, the research on personality has more recently begun to explore how personality traits and culture interact to shape the behaviour of individuals (McCrae, 2000). Scholars have been studying the effect of personality on cross-cultural effectiveness (Shannon and Begley, 2008; Van Oudenhoven and Van der Zee, 2002), providing empirical evidence for the effect of certain personality traits on a range of cross-cultural outcomes, including performance (Aycan, 1997; Caligiuri et al., 2009; Mol et al., 2005; Ones and Viswesvaran, 1997), leadership (Gupta and Govindarajan, 2002; Morrison, 2000) and adjustment (Huang et al., 2005; Matsumoto et al., 2006; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2012; Shaffer et al., 2006; Ward et al., 2004).

More specifically, previous research on the relationship between personality traits, as measured by the "big five", and CQ found openness to experience to be positively related to all four CQ factors (Ang et al., 2006; Li et al., 2016; Moody, 2007). However, relationships with the other "big five" personality traits show inconsistent results, leading to important questions on the

relationship between CQ and personality factors. For example, Oolders et al. (2008) and Smith (2012) only found openness to experience significantly correlating to CQ whereas the correlation with the other "big five" traits were weak. Presbitero (2016) found a significant relation between all four factors of CQ and extraversion, whereas Ang et al. (2006) found CCQ, MCQ and BCQ to be significantly related to extraversion, raising important questions. Interestingly, Li et al. (2016) found a positive relationship between openness to experience and three factors of CQ (metacognitive, cognitive and behavioural) only when agreeableness is high, but not when agreeableness is low.

While there is a significant amount of literature around personality, as measured by the "big five" personality traits, there is little research on the "dark-side" of personality, meaning more negatively connotated traits (Hogan and Hogan, 2001). The conceptual difference between these two different perspectives of personality comes from Hogan et al. (1994), in which the "big five" traits are referred to as the "bright-side" of personality, which surfaces when individuals are performing at a high level (Foster and Gaddis, 2014). In contrast, "dark-side" traits represent behaviours which individuals may over-use in stressful circumstances that challenge self-regulation and social vigilance (Gaddis and Foster, 2015), which could undermine trust and interpersonal relationships, leading to potential derailment or failure (Hogan and Hogan, 2001; Moscoso and Salgado, 2004; Winsborough and Sambath, 2013). In consequence, dysfunctional behaviours interfere with a person's ability to capitalize on the strengths coming from the "bright-side" personality dispositions (Nelson, 1996).

Bentz (1990, in Gaddis and Forster, 2014) is one of the first researchers on personality flaws. Using data over a 30-year horizon, Bentz noted that half of the participants in the study failed, despite being socially skilled and bright, due to elements like: being unable to construct effective teams; being slow to learn; being reactive and tactical; letting emotions cloud their judgment; inability to maintain relationships, etc. The "dark-side" of personality leads to

a decrease in effectiveness over time (Hogan, 2007), due to individuals developing coping strategies to deal with insecurities (Hogan et al., 2009; Padilla et al., 2007). Therefore, "dark-side" personality characteristics might prevent individuals from fully exploiting the strengths revealed through the "big five" assessment (Nelson and Hogan, 2009), as shown by research from Hogan and Hogan (2001), who found that high scores on the "dark-side" personality factors predicted performance in professional and leadership jobs in a negative manner beyond scores on the "big five". However, Furnham (2008) argued that high scores on some of the "dark-side" measures may be advantageous for business success.

Recently, a growing number of scholars have published papers on "dark-side" traits in a business environment, mainly around leadership, providing promise for this new direction of research (Furnham et al., 2013; Furnham et al., 2012; Gaddis and Foster, 2015; Gentry et al., 2013; Jonason and Webster, 2010; Khoo and Burch, 2008; Resick et al., 2009; Spain et al., 2014). Furthermore, dysfunctional conduct is more likely to appear in unfamiliar and ambiguous circumstances (Koch, 2003 in Nelson and Hogan, 2009), like cross-cultural encounters; however, the literature review revealed no empirical research investigating the relationship of the "dark-side" personality measures to CQ. Thus, the potential value of research identifying traits that could lead to deviant behaviours (Khoo and Burch, 2008), meaning negatively impacting cross-cultural effectiveness, should not be underestimated.

Earley and Ang (2003) argued that CQ is a malleable capability that can be shaped by trait-like individual differences, like the "big five", which are relatively stable patterns of how people feel, think and behave (Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999; Ramalu et al., 2010). According to evolutionary psychology theory, the behaviour of individuals has been learned and adjusted over time in order to survive (Buss, 1991). According to Caligiuri (2000a), this theory can be applied to predict cross-cultural effectiveness and, therefore, certain big-five personality traits should be able to predict and explain differences in

CQ amongst individuals (Moody, 2007). A more complete and holistic understanding of the impact of personality measures could provide a more robust framework for understanding intercultural effectiveness, supporting decisions on selection, training and development of individuals for cross-cultural assignments or roles (Caligiuri, 2006; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2012).

2.7 CQ AND INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE

International experience is a topic that has been studied for centuries (Rogers et al., 2015) and research from Ghemawat (2012) has demonstrated that it provides opportunities for learning. According to several studies (Ng et al., 2009a; Phillion, 2002), international experience stimulates reflection and exploration, which are important elements for learning. According to Earley and Peterson (2004, in Crowne, 2008): "An individual learns from these experiences that intercultural encounters differ from normal experiences, in that they challenge a person's assumptions and thinking" (p. 393). As a logical consequence, researchers have argued that previous international experience supports individuals in preparing themselves for new cross-cultural encounters (Chang et al., 2013; Gowan, 2004; Moon et al., 2012; Takeuchi et al., 2005).

Although the importance of international experience is "undebatable", questions remain on the level of effectiveness of these experiences (Ng et al., 2009a). Not every individual will obtain enhanced cross-cultural competencies based on acquiring international experience. A new cross-cultural interaction is often a confusing, disorientating experience (Kim, 2002), and while some might see this as a great learning opportunity, others will struggle to adjust to this "cultural shock" (Adler, 1987), indicating that personality traits influence how people adjust to international experiences. By living in a foreign country, an individual will gain experience of that specific culture; however, if he or she lacks certain personality factors, like the openness and flexibility to accept and respond to cultural differences, the experience itself would not necessarily lead to an increased level of cross-

cultural competence (Lovvorn and Chen, 2011). This raises important questions on the role of international experience in relation to personality traits and CQ.

Prior research suggest that investigating personality and CQ would benefit from an interactive approach (Li et al., 2016) and there is no empirical research regarding the moderating role of international experience in relationship to CQ and personality, which is an interesting gap in the current research on antecedents of CQ. Therefore, Gaddis and Forster (2015) argue the importance of considering possible moderators when examining the relationship between personality factors and antecedents of culture. So far, only Sahin et al. (2014) have examined the relationship between personality traits (as moderating variables), CQ and international experience. They found that individuals who score high on extraversion improved their MCCQ and BCQ more during a six-month international experience than individuals who score low on extraversion. This is also true for individuals high on openness to experience, who developed their MCQ more than individuals low on openness to experience. These research findings add force to the plea of Gelfand et al. (2008) to "specify the causal relationship between CQ antecedents as an important research priority" (p.380).

Crowne (2008) argues that cultural exposure, through international experiences, is likely to contribute to a higher CQ. Past research has indeed accumulated important results on the effects that different forms of international experience have on CQ (Crowne, 2013; Engle and Crowne, 2014; Lee and Sukoco, 2010; Moon et al., 2012; Morrell et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2009a; Shannon and Begley, 2008; Shokef and Erez, 2008; Tarique and Takeuchi, 2008) and more international experience is likely to lead to a higher level of CQ (Li et al., 2013), although research has produced different results, as indicated earlier in this chapter.

2.8 SUMMARY

An important observation is that the research on cross-cultural competencies is suffering from conceptual diversity. Levy et al. (2007) claim that there is diversity both within and across different research directions, as well as conceptual ambiguity. Studies vary widely in their conceptualization and definition, level of analysis and operationalization of the different constructs. Contributing to this conceptual diversity, newly defined constructs regularly show up, to disappear again after some publications, to be replaced by a more promising construct. Despite the hard work of constantly developing new terms and constructs, the growth in publications related to the various constructs describing cross-cultural competencies has not yet added up to a coherent body of knowledge.

Cultural Intelligence is such a new construct which has gained significant traction from scholars in the last decade and, as a result, the body of empirical research is growing significantly. The construct of CQ is distinctive, since it is culture-free and parsimonious, being comprehensive and theoretically precise. Research on CQ could contribute to the validity and reliability of this construct, which has the potential to bring this fragmented field of intercultural competencies together (Gelfand et al., 2008).

Nevertheless, it is not without criticism and there are important gaps in the current research. The research on antecedents of CQ provide unreliable results; several studies indicate a correlation between CQ and personality, however the relationships between, for example, Extraversion, and the different CQ dimensions shows inconsistent research findings. Also, from the literature review, it appears that the results are not consistent and that not all personality factors might influence the different CQ dimensions. Additionally, building upon research from Li et al. (2013), the impact that other variables can have on the relationship between certain personality traits and the different CQ dimensions provides an interesting research direction. Several studies investigated the correlation between international experience and

CQ; however, the results are not consistent and it is not clear what moderating role International Experience plays in the relationship between personality and CQ. Lastly, there has been no research investigating the relationship between CQ and possible "dark-side" personality characteristics, leaving an important gap in the research between personality and cross-cultural competencies.

3 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, an overview of the current literature and empirical research on cross-cultural competencies was presented. Although it is important to appreciate the outcomes of CQ, it is also important to investigate the antecedents of CQ. For example, there is a lack of conceptual frameworks that specify what types of individuals are most likely to benefit in cross-cultural situations (Ng et al., 2009a). Earley and Ang (2003) distinguish CQ from personality traits: ''in the broader nomological network of cultural intelligence, personality characteristics are conceptualized as antecedents or causal agents of cultural intelligence" (p. 160). Personality characteristics have traditionally played an important role in the research on cross-cultural effectiveness (Ward et al., 2004): they are considered stable, trait-like individual differences that influence the choice of behaviours and could act as predictors of proximal state-like individual differences, like CQ (Chen, 2007).

Research suggests that extensive exposure to other cultures provides people the opportunity to learn from these experiences and develop a better comprehension of a different culture, since it challenges their assumptions and thinking (Crowne, 2008; Earley and Peterson, 2004). International experience provides social context that can influence an individual's CQ (Şahin et al., 2014) and research has resulted in interesting findings regarding the effects of international experience on CQ (Ng et al., 2012).

Building upon this, the literature review has also shown that CQ has meaningful relationships with personality characteristics and international experience; however, empirical results are inconsistent, as indicated in the previous chapter. In addition, the field of cross-cultural competence is in need of a more holistic and interactive approach (Li et al., 2016). Therefore, more research is warranted, and the purpose of this dissertation is to address this need by exploring the relationship between CQ, personality traits and

international experience, and if international experience can strengthen the relationship between certain personality traits and CQ.

This chapter will provide theoretical explanations for the likely shape and nature of the relationships among certain individuals' personality traits, their international experience and CQ, and the moderating role of international experience on the effects of personality traits and CQ based on theoretical foundations which appears to be mostly lacking in previous research to explain hypothesized relationships to CQ (Ott and Michailova, 2018). The development of hypotheses will be based upon insights from the literature on evolutionary personality psychology and social learning theory.

3.2 EVOLUTIONARY PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

With the increasing acceptance of evolution as an overarching theory for psychology, an increasing number of personality psychologists are, in the last two decades, trying to capture personality within an evolutionary context (Cervone, 2000; Penke et al., 2007). Michalski and Shackelford (2010) argue that "there is no scientifically viable alternative for understanding the historical origins of human personality …and this conceptualization provides for novel and valuable reinterpretations of several areas of personality psychology, including individual differences in personality…. and textual determinants of personality…" (p. 509).

Each single theory of human personality adopts the view that personality is constructed of psychological mechanisms (Symons, 1987). Buss (1991) argued that the main objective in the development of evolutionary psychology as a discipline is to differentiate "psychological mechanisms and behavioural strategies as evolved solutions to the adaptive problems our species has faced over millions of years" (p.459). Evolutionary personality psychology suggests that personality characteristics, such as the "big five", are universal adaptive mechanisms and have developed and evolved in humans to solve adaptive problems in order to ultimately reproduce and preserve life (Buss, 1991). These "adaptive mechanisms" allow individuals to learn their social

position in society (Extraversion), provide motivation to cooperate (Agreeableness), capability for performing adequate work and commitment (Conscientiousness), ability to cope with stress (Emotional Stability) and intelligence in solving problems (Openness) (Buss, 1991 in Caligiuri, 2000a).

Personality traits represent universal mechanisms that allow individuals to face the pressures of their psychological, social and cultural environments and, therefore, predispose people to behave in certain ways to accomplish goals in particular situations (MacDonald, 1998). Nevertheless, Buss (1989), who was the first scholar to build a link between personality and evolutionary psychology, argued that individuals vary in the extent to which they possess these personality traits needed for success. Those who possess certain personality traits suited for a given role in a certain social environment, like cross-cultural situations, will adapt more effectively than those that do not possess the necessary personality traits for that same role. Human personality is, therefore, best conceptualized within the framework of evolutionary psychology (Buss, 1991).

Modern evolutionary approaches seek to understand behaviours in which people differ within (Michalski and Shackelford, 2010) and across cultures. Buss (2009) argues that a significant majority of social adaptive problems can be explained by individual differences. Explaining personality from an evolutionary standpoint has resulted in insights about the functioning of "social information" through the perspective of the big-five personality traits. The main argument is that individual differences are contingent upon the surroundings to which the individual is exposed (Michalski and Shackelford, 2010). Virtually all personality dimensions show heritability and substantial cross-time stability (Cervone, 2000; Saudino, 1997), without implying that these dimensions are not modifiable (Tooby and Cosmides, 1990). As such, a person's behaviour in various situations is a result of adaptation over time and varies amongst individuals; it is, therefore, best explained from an evolutionary psychology perspective.

Caligiuri (2000a) applied the theory of evolutionary personality psychology to explain the role of personality characteristics as a predictor of expat success, but also to explain the outcomes of expatriates' assignments. It is argued that the "big-five" personality traits provide people the opportunity to successfully fill different roles in society (MacDonald, 1998), thereby facilitating success in cross-cultural situations (Johnson et al., 2002). According to Caligiuri (2000a), people who possess certain personality traits needed in cross-cultural situations would be more effective in these situations than those who are lacking these individual dispositions. The results of this study implied that extroversion, agreeableness and emotional stability are negatively correlated to the desire of an expat to end their assignment and that conscientiousness is positively correlated to the performance on the expatriate assignment as rated by the supervisor.

In a similar way, it is expected that, building upon evolutionary personality psychology, certain personality characteristics should be able to predict and explain differences amongst individuals (Johnson et al., 2002) in levels of CQ.

3.3 THE BRIGHT SIDE OF PERSONALITY

The conceptual difference between "bright" and "dark" side personality originates from Hogan et al. (1994) and refers to the traditional "big-five" as the "bright-side" traits. However, it should be noted that Hogan utilizes seven scales to measure the "bright-side" of personality (see Table 1), and these scales are closely linked to the traditional "big-five", showing strong convergent validity with the "big-five" (Hogan et al., 2007b).

Applying the evolutionary theory of personality psychology could provide valuable insights regarding the relationship between personality characteristics and cross-cultural capabilities, as illustrated by the study by Caligiuri (2000a). Therefore, this theory will be applied to develop detailed hypotheses to examine the relationship between some of the "bright-side"

personality characteristics and certain dimensions of CQ for which the theory provides possible explanations.

Table 1: The seven scales of the Hogan personality scale

	HPI Scale	Description
I	Adjustment	Calm and even tempered or conversely, moody and volatile. High scorers seem confident, resilient and optimistic. Low scorers seem tense, irritable and negative.
II	Ambition	Leaderlike, seeks status, and values achievement. High scorers seem competitive and eager to advance. Low scorers seem unassertive and less interested in advancement.
III	Sociability	Talkative and socially self-confident. High scorers seem outgoing, colorful and impulsive, and they dislike working by themselves. Low scorers seem reserved and quiet: they avoid calling attention to themselves and do not mind working alone
IV	Interpersonal Sensitivity	Social skills, tact, and perceptiveness. High scorers seem friendly, warm and popular. Low scorers seem independent, frank and direct.
V	Prudence	Self-control and conscientiousness. High scorers seem organized, dependable, and thorough; they follow rules and are easy to supervise. Low scorers seem impulsive and flexible. They tend to resist rules and close supervision; however, they may be creative and spontaneous.
VI	Inquisitive	Curious, adventurous, and imaginative. High scorers tend to be quick-witted and visionary, but they may be easily bored and not pay attention to details. Low scorers tend to be practical, focused, and able to concentrate for long periods.
VII	Learning Approach	Enjoys academic activities and values education as an end in itself. High scorers tend to enjoy reading and studying. Low scorers are interested in hands-on learning on the job.

- *Adapted from Hogan et al. (2007b)*

3.3.1 Interpersonal sensitivity

Based on evolutionary personality psychology, it is expected that individuals with high *interpersonal sensitivity* will also show higher levels of MCQ.

Individuals with a high level of agreeableness tend to be described as warm, friendly, cooperative, helpful, kind and flexible (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Costa and McCrae, 1992). Evolutionary personality psychology claims that people form shared social alliances to preserve their social position, which is achieved through agreeableness (Buss, 1991 in Caligiuri 2000a). People who are high in agreeableness tend to strive for common understanding and, therefore, agreeableness primarily focuses on *interpersonal sensitivity* capabilities as being considerate and skilled at maintaining relationships

(Hogan et al., 2007a). *Interpersonal sensitivity* is related to agreeableness (Ones and Viswesvaran, 1997) and Witt et al. (2002) found that employees who score high on agreeableness exhibit higher levels of interpersonal skills.

According to Hogan and Hogan (2007b) people high in *interpersonal sensitivity* are characterized as considerate, friendly, sincere, trustworthy and diplomatic. Individuals who score high on *interpersonal sensitivity* cultivate relationships, enjoy interacting with others (Hogan and Hogan, 1995) and strive for mutual understanding (Black, 1990). They are intrinsically motivated (Walker et al., 2005) to avoid social conflicts in order to be accepted, which suggests that people with high *interpersonal sensitivity* are keen to display higher levels of MCQ, since this dimension is defined as the ability to direct attention and vigour towards knowledge about appropriate responses and effectiveness in cross-cultural environments, in order to be recognized and preserve their social position. Therefore, it is predicted that:

H1:   Interpersonal sensitivity will be positively related to MCQ.

3.3.2   Sociability

Utilizing evolutionary personality psychology theory leads to an expectation that individuals who score high on *sociability* portray higher levels of MCQ and MCCQ.

Individuals who are high in extraversion are seemingly talkative, spontaneous, entertaining, socially bold and self-confident (Barrick et al., 2002; Goldberg, 1992). According to evolutionary personality psychology, Buss (1991 in Caligiuri, 2000a) argues that individuals high in extraversion achieve greater success because of their ability to immerse and navigate themselves through the hierarchy of their social environment. Hogan (2007b) argues that extraversion is strongly related to *sociability*. Individuals who score high on the *sociability* scale are considered approachable, talkative, outgoing and dynamic (Hogan et al., 2007b).

Due to their outgoing nature, individuals high in *sociability* are more likely to expose themselves to novel situations and participate in cross-cultural situations (Ones and Viswesvaran, 1997). Their nature implies a need to be curious, ask questions and seek feedback (Tams, 2008). As a result, individuals high on *sociability* excel during interpersonal interactions (John and Srivastava, 1999). This suggests a positive relationship with MCCQ, which refers to an individual's level of cultural awareness during intercultural encounters. Being actively engaged in novel cross-cultural situations provides opportunities for social learning (Tams, 2008) and people who are strong in MCCQ consciously question their own cultural assumptions, reflect and change their cultural knowledge when interacting with people from different cultures (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008).

Additionally, people high in *sociability* like to be in the centre of attention and meet strangers well (Hogan and Hogan, 1995), due to their motivation to build relationships pro-actively by engaging themselves into new situations (Rose and Kumar, 2008). This is strongly aligned with MCQ, described as an individual's ambition, curiosity and awareness in adapting to fit in with culturally different situations (Earley and Ang, 2003). As a result, it is also assumed that there is a positive relationship between MCQ and *sociability*.

Therefore, the following relationships are hypothesized;

H2   Sociability will be positively related to MCCQ (H2a) and MCQ (H2b).

3.3.3 Prudence

It is expected that high levels of *prudence* will lead to higher levels of MCCQ and BCQ, based on the theory of evolutionary personality psychology.

Individuals who are high in conscientiousness are predisposed to take ownership in problem solving and are characterized as being methodical and precise in their work (Witt et al., 2002). Highly conscientious individuals have the tendency to be organized, orderly and trusted by the organisation, which allows them to perform better at work (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Barrick et

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al., 1993; Mol et al., 2005). Moreover, they possess a greater sense of commitment to their responsibilities and are strong-willed (Moody, 2007). This personality trait from the "big five" factor model shows strong convergent validity with the *prudence* dimension from the HPI (Hogan et al., 2007b). Hogan and Hogan (1995) describe individuals high on *prudence* as reliable, dependable, organized and orderly, which is, indeed, very similar to the "big five" dimension of conscientiousness.

According to Caligiuri (2000a), conscientiousness is an adaptive mechanism to strengthen an individual's reputation within the organisation, which affects their status and social acceptance based on their trustworthiness. It is, therefore, argued that *prudence* is related to MCCQ, which is defined as an individual's cultural conscientiousness and awareness during cross-cultural interactions (Ang et al., 2004). Metacognitive skills include self-regulation, which is a key element of *prudence* (Paine et al., 2015). Denissen and Penke (2008) propose conscientiousness as a strategy of tenacity and those high in conscientiousness will use their strategic thinking and planning abilities to question their own cultural assumptions, reconsider their views during cross-cultural encounters, and try to make appropriate adjustment in order to accomplish the task at hand (Shaffer et al., 2006; Witt et al., 2004). This is related to behaviour CQ, reflecting "the ability to utilize culturally sensitive communication and behaviour when interacting with people from cultures different from one's one" (Kim et al., 2008, p. 72). Therefore, it is argued that;

H3   Prudence will be positively related to MCCQ (H3a) and BCQ (H3b).

3.3.4 Adjustment

According to the perspective of the evolutionary personality psychologist, individuals with high levels of *adjustment* will be better equipped to adapt their behaviour appropriately in cross-cultural encounters, resulting in a higher level of BCQ.

Individuals high in *adjustment* know how to handle stress by staying calm under pressure and refrain from over-reacting. These individuals are confident in their own abilities and others will value their resilience. *Adjustment* is strongly correlated to the emotional stability factor within the "big five" (Hogan et al., 2007b), which, according to evolutionary personality psychology, is perceived as a universal adaptive mechanism enabling humans to cope with stress in their environment (Buss, 1991 in Caligiuri, 2000a). Therefore individuals who are high in *adjustment* or emotional stability are mostly even-tempered in dealing with stress occurring in daily life (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Hogan and Hogan, 1995).

This trait is regularly investigated from the opposite perspective, neuroticism, which is characterized by a tendency to experience negative feelings due to moodiness, nervousness and pessimism. Emotional stability has been considered an important characteristic for achieving intercultural effectiveness (Kelly and Meyers, 1992; Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2001) and, therefore, may be considered an important attribute for individuals in cross-cultural situations (Moody, 2007). Individuals who are high in *adjustment* should be better equipped to handle stress that comes with unfamiliar events, like cross-cultural encounters, due to their ability to remain calm and portray behaviours that will positively influence others and make them feel at ease in cross-cultural settings (Ang et al., 2006). They will also listen to others and apply their suggestions and feedback (Hogan et al., 2007b), making it more likely to observe behavioural flexibility (Tufekci and Dinc, 2014). Based on this, it is expected that *adjustment* is positively related to BCQ, which reflects "the capacity to acquire new behaviours appropriate for a new culture" (Earley and Ang, 2003, p. 82), hence;

H4   Adjustment will be positively related to BCQ.

3.3.5 Inquisitive

Using the theory of evolutionary personality psychology, it is hypothesized that a higher level of *inquisitiveness* is positively correlated to both CCQ and MCQ.

The *inquisitive* scale measures the level of creativity, brightness and interest in intellectual matters. Those with high scores on this scale tend to be adventurous, open-minded, curious and focussed on the bigger picture, with a strong ability to think strategically in innovative ways (Hogan and Hogan, 1995). Inquisitiveness shows a significant convergent validity with the "big five" dimension of openness to experience (Hogan and Hogan, 1995), which is described as being creative, curious, broadminded, inventive, interested in intellectual matters and having wide interests (McCrae et al., 1996).

From an evolutionary personality psychology perspective, individuals must have the capability to correctly sense their social environment, which is critical to ensure self-preservation (Caligiuri, 2000a). This is quite challenging in situations which are unknown to the individual, like cross-cultural encounters. However, those who are highly *inquisitive* should be able to adjust successfully, since "a culturally intelligent individual is able to switch between cultural settings with relative ease and accurately interpret social signs that are embedded in cultural context. It seems logical that one of the raw ingredients for acquiring those skills would be openness" (Oolders et al., 2008, p. 147). In order to be effective across cultures, people should be open, have enough sensitivity to note cultural differences and be motivated to portray behavioural flexibility (Bhawuk and Brislin, 1992; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2012).

People who are high on inquisitiveness are interested in intellectual matters, curious and broadminded. This supports them to increase the cognitive dimension of CQ when provided the opportunity to engage with people from other cultures (Tufekci and Dinc, 2014) and, therefore, enable highly *inquisitive* individuals to become more knowledgeable about certain aspects

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of other cultures (Kim et al., 2008). Additionally, individuals with a high level of inquisitiveness are curious and motivated to learn new things and seek new experiences, since they have an inherent motivation for engaging in cross-cultural interactions (Huff et al., 2014). This suggests a positive relationship between *inquisitive* with MCQ, which is defined as "an individual's interest and drive to learn and adapt to new cultural surroundings" (Tay et al., 2008 p. 127). Therefore, the following hypotheses are defined:

H5   Inquisitive will be positively related to CCQ (H5a) and MCQ (H5b).

3.4 THE DARK SIDE OF PERSONALITY

Assessment derived from the "big-five" personality traits might be described as the "bright-side" of personality, whereas there is also a so-called "dark-side" of personality which are dysfunctional dispositions. The indication is that, according to evolutionary psychology theory, under stress, people who are high on certain personality derailers are prone to act in dysfunctional ways (Furnham et al., 2007) as a result of anxiety, in order to avoid danger (Price, 2013). Interest in the "dark-side" of personality has increasingly become popular in the last two decades (Furnham and Taylor, 2004; Hogan and Hogan, 2001; Khoo and Burch, 2008), especially around leadership (Babiak and Hare, 2006; Bass and Avolio, 1995; Hogan et al., 1996; Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006; Van Velsor and Leslie, 1995). However, up to date, no research is available investigating the relationships between these "dark-side" traits and dimensions of CQ. This justifies utilizing the Hogan Development Scale since personality measurements based on the FFM are focussing on the "bright-side" of personality (Gaddis and Foster, 2015; Moscoso and Salgado, 2004; Nelson and Hogan, 2009).

Dysfunctional behaviour is more likely to appear in situations that are ambiguous (Nelson and Hogan, 2009), like intercultural encounters, making it important to explore those relationships between these "dark-side" traits and CQ for which evolutionary personality psychology provides insights.

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Table 2: The eleven scales of the Hogan development scale

	HDS Scale	Description
I	Excitable	Moody hard to please, with intense but short-lived enthusiasm for people and projects. High scorers are sensitive to criticism, volatile, and unable to generate respect from subordinates due to frequent emotional displays
II	Skeptical	Cynical, distrustful, and quick to doubt others' true intentions. While acutely sensitive to organizational politics, high scorers are easily offended, argumentative and ready to retaliate for perceived mistreatment
III	Cautious	Reluctant to take risks or initiative due to fear of failure or criticism. High scorers are good 'corporate citizens' but avoid innovation, offering opinions, taking controversial positions, or making decisions.
IV	Reserved	Aloof, detached, uncommunicative, and disinterested in the feelings of others. High scorers work poorly in groups, are reluctant to give feedback, are insensitive to social cues, and often appear intimidating.
V	Leisurely	Independent, resistant to feedback, and quietly resentful of interruption or others' requests. High scorers can be pleasant but difficult to work with, due to procrastination, stubbornness, and unwillingness to be part of a team.
VI	Bold	Unusually self-confident, reluctant to admit shortcomings, and grandiose in expectations. High scorers feel entitled to special treatment, are reluctant to share credit, and can be demanding, opinionated, and self-absorbed.
VII	Mischievous	Charming and friendly, but impulsive, non-conforming, manipulative and exploitative. High scorers test limits, ignore commitments, take ill-advised risks, and resist accepting responsibility for mistakes.
VIII	Colorful	Expressive, dramatic, distractible, attention seeking, and disorganized. High scorers confuse activity with productivity, are unable to allow others to offer suggestions, and are intuitive, rather than strategic, in decision making.
IX	Imaginative	Creative, eccentric, impractical and idiosyncratic in thoughts and ideas. High scorers avoid details, are easily bored, lack awareness of their impact on others, and often fail to see practical limitations of their suggestions.
X	Diligent	Meticulous, perfectionist, critical and inflexible about rules and procedures. High scorers micromanage their staff, find it hard to delegate, and have difficulty setting meaningful priorities for themselves and their subordinates.
XI	Dutiful	Eager to please, reliant on others for guidance, and reluctant to take action independently. High scorers have difficulty making decisions on their own, may not stick up for subordinates, and promise more than they can deliver

- *Adapted from Hogan et al. (2009)*

The "dark-side" of personality consists of eleven different factors, which are described in more detail in Table 2.

According to Buss (2009), personality, until recently, had received little attention in respect of evolutionary psychology and there is no research on "dark-side" personality traits utilizing this approach, despite a clear need. Nettle (2006) argues that comparative advantages and disadvantages of different levels of personality traits represent stable evolutionary strategies (in that no absolute optimization is possible) and could provide a valuable framework for reflections on "dark-side" personality traits. Therefore, based on insights from evolutionary personality psychology that imply relationships between the "bright-side" of personality and CQ (as discussed in the previous paragraph), it is suggested that some of the "dark-side" personality traits will also show correlations to different CQ dimensions. In addition, it is important to point out that, whilst there are a host of studies on managerial failure, there are some studies suggesting that certain "dark-side" personality traits are positively, rather than negatively, associated with work success (Board and Fritzon, 2005; Bollaert and Petit, 2010; Furnham, 2006; Furnham et al., 2012; Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006). This indicates that deviating behaviour does not necessarily lead to failure or derailed performance.

3.4.1 Imaginative

Utilizing the theory of evolutionary personality psychology, it is expected that higher scores on the *imaginative* scale will be negatively correlated with BCQ.

Individuals who have high scores on the *imaginative* scale are characterized by acting in creative and sometimes unusual ways (Hogan and Hogan, 2001). They have a tendency to look at the world in different ways and like entertaining people with their original insights (Hogan et al., 2009). Others often perceive highly *imaginative* individuals as innovative, bright and insightful (Hogan et al., 2009), but they could get easily bored and often do not foresee the consequences and limitations of their ideas (Hogan et al., 2009). Highly *imaginative* individuals are, therefore, also considered careless (Hogan and Judge, 2013), and unaware of how their actions affect others

(Hogan et al., 2007b), since they often have a tendency to make judgments and decisions through hunches (Gountas and Gountas, 2008).

According to evolutionary personality psychology, action and perception towards differences are important in order to solve the problem of survival and reproduction (Buss, 1991). Therefore, an individual's ability to pro-actively assess the social environment, in order to safeguard self-preservation, is crucial (Awais Bhatti et al., 2013), which is more complicated in cross-cultural situations due to ambiguous or uninterpretable social cues (Caligiuri, 2000b).

Since people who score high on the *imaginative* scale are insensitive to social cues (Nelson and Hogan, 2009) and careless about the consequences, they would probably focus their energy towards new situations, engaging themselves in cross-cultural encounters without hesitation, because of their intrinsic interest and confidence. However, due to their lack of judgment and careless nature, they might lack the ability to demonstrate behavioural flexibility during cross-cultural interactions, leading to a lack of credibility and having trouble in getting their views and ideas accepted (Hogan et al., 2007b). Due to this tendency to be unconcerned about the impact of their behaviour, it is suggested that higher scores on the *imaginative* scale indicate a negative relationship with BCQ, which is concerned with having the flexibility to behave appropriately in different cultural settings. Therefore, it is expected that:

H6   The imaginative dimension will be negatively related to BCQ.

3.4.2   Reserved

Applying the theory of evolutionary personality psychology, it is expected that the personality trait of being *reserved* will be negatively related to both CCQ and MCQ.

According to evolutionary psychology, people are inherently social and are group-living animals, with each group having a status hierarchy. Every

individual knows where they are in the hierarchy, which suggests that challenges in life concern building relationships and achieving status (Hogan et al., 1994). This is particularly a challenge for individuals who score high on the *reserved* scale. They tend to struggle with communicating, coming across as aloof, introverted and detached (Hogan et al., 2007b; Hogan and Judge, 2013). According to Nelson and Hogan (2009), they lack social sensitivity, which is referred to as the ability to sense the feelings and needs of other individuals.

In consequence, it is assumed that in stressful situations, like intercultural encounters, highly *reserved* people will display these characteristics, which will hamper them from building cultural aspect and knowledge of the environment. Therefore, highly *reserved* individuals will probably lack context specific cultural knowledge and it is also expected that they will be less motivated to learn and adapt to new cultural settings, due to their tendency to operate in isolation and lack of inherent interest to emerge themselves into cross-cultural interactions. Therefore, it is expected that:

H7   Reserved will be negatively related to CCQ (H7a) and MCQ (H7b).

3.4.3 Leisurely

Utilizing evolutionary personality psychology theory leads to an expectation that higher levels of *leisurely* will show a negative relationship with all four dimensions of CQ.

The possession of certain personality traits might provide individuals the opportunity to emerge and perform well. Evolutionary personality psychology argues that certain traits present advantages for survival fitness; however, these same traits might become counterproductive when the situations change (Judge et al., 2009), like cross-cultural interactions.

Individuals with high scores on the *leisurely* scale, are perceived as hard to coach, inconsiderate (Hogan et al., 2007b), stubborn and prone to procrastination (Nelson and Hogan, 2009).They believe they have the right to

pursue their own agenda (at their own pace) and refuse support from others who are successful, but "at the same time [resent] them and [maintain] an illusion of self-sufficiency and self-respect by covertly resisting expectations" (Nelson and Hogan, 2009, p. 11). This suggests that people high on the *leisurely* scale lack the motivation to cooperate and adapt to different situations, suggesting a negative relationship with MCQ. Based on this, it is assumed that highly *leisurely* individuals lack valuing the benefits that can be reached through cross-cultural interactions.

As a result of early socialization experiences, people with high scores on the *leisurely* dimension refrain from expressing their frustration or aggravation (Nelson and Hogan, 2009), but express their bitterness indirectly through excuse-making. When individuals who score high on *leisurely* are in unfamiliar situations and stress increases, they have a tendency to become irritable, unresponsive and uncooperative (Hogan et al., 2009), and when asked for more results or effort, they have a propensity to slow down even more (Hogan et al., 2009). This will lead to ineffective verbal and non-verbal actions, which are important sub-dimensions of BCQ (Livermore, 2009), leading to the hypothesis that *leisurely* is negatively related to BCQ.

As mentioned in paragraph 2.4.1., the meta-cognitive dimension is defined as "an individual's cultural consciousness and awareness during interactions with those from different cultural backgrounds" (Ang et al., 2004, p.5). Individuals who score high on the *leisurely* scale are characterized as unresponsive, cynical and resentful (Hogan and Judge, 2013). They lack the willingness to follow through (Hogan et al., 2009) and ignore constructive feedback (Hogan et al., 2007b), which could lead to a lower level of self-awareness. A lack of consciousness about self could prevent individuals from developing their MCCQ, since individuals high on the *leisurely* scale would probably not question their own cultural assumption or respond appropriately during or after cross-cultural encounters. In the same manner, this will also probably negatively affect the ability to develop CCQ abilities, since CCQ refers to the knowledge component of CQ. It includes knowledge of

differences amongst cultures, but also "knowledge of oneself as embedded in the cultural context of the environment" (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008 p.5). They will probably not invest in building knowledge to function effectively in a different cultural setting. Hence, it is expected that:

H8   Leisurely will be negatively related to motivational (H8a), behavioural, (H8b), meta-cognitive (H8c) and cognitive CQ (H8d).

3.4.4 Sceptical

Based on evolutionary personality psychology, it is suggested that individuals who score high on the *sceptical* dimension will also show higher levels in all four CQ dimensions.

Evolutionary personality psychology suggests that personality dimensions emerge in the "social landscape to which humans have had to adapt" (Buss, 1991, p.471), due to the fact that people decide on different tactics to adapt and achieve goals to survive. Some people respond through prosocial means (e.g., being collaborative and constructive), while others use more socially aversive strategies (Jonason and Webster, 2010).

People who score high on the *sceptical* scale use more socially aversive strategies. They can come across as argumentative, unkind, suspicious and insensitive to criticism (Hogan et al., 2009; Nelson and Hogan, 2009). On the other hand they are perceptive, thoughtful and bright, although critical (Hogan, 2009). Additionally, highly *sceptical* individuals are alert (since they expect to be mistreated) and insightful (Hogan, 2007), which indicates that being *sceptical* can also have positive implications for CQ.

Hogan (2007) argues that *sceptical* people, because of their perceptiveness, have strongly-developed views of the world and are strong at making sense of these views intellectually. They probably think about other cultures when being exposed and probably continuously question their cultural assumption where these experiences do not confirm their current perspectives. This points to a positive relationship with MCCQ, since this CQ dimension is about

accurately interpretation of cultural information (Livermore, 2009) and refers to intellectual processes to acquire and interpret this knowledge (Tay et al., 2008). But also, because of their intellect and thoughtfulness, they might have the ability to correctly sense their environment and acquire knowledge about cultural aspects as embedded in the specific cultural setting, which indicates a positive relationship with CCQ.

MCQ is defined as being attentive and energetic regarding learning and performing in situations which are characterized by cultural differences (Earley and Ang, 2003). Individuals who score high on the *sceptical* scale are very alert to being deceived or mistreated in any way (Hogan et al., 2009; Hogan, 2007). They mistrust other people's intentions and, consequently, they are very motivated to look for meanings and objectives of others, leading to an inherent motivation in experiencing different cultural settings to confirm their *sceptical* views, which indicates a positive connection with MCQ. However, because of these traits, highly *sceptical* individuals are also very astute, politically savvy and difficult to fool (Nelson and Hogan, 2009). According to Hogan (2007) "they are very insightful about organizational politics and the motives of their counterparts and they can be a source of very good intelligence regarding the real agendas of others, and the real meaning of events" (p. 120), indicating a positive relationship with BCQ.

In conclusion, it is expected that:

H9   Sceptical will be positively related to meta-cognitive (H9a), cognitive (H9b), motivational (H9c) and behavioural CQ (H9d).

3.5   THE DIRECT AND MODERATING EFFECTS OF INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE

Utilizing the principles of social learning theory, it is expected that international experience will be positively related to all four dimensions of CQ. In addition, it is also expected that international experience moderates the relationship between *interpersonal sensitivity* and MCQ and BCQ;

between *sociability* and MCQ and CCQ and; between *leisurely* and MCQ and CCQ.

Exposure to different cultures allows an individual to become familiar with norms and values of that culture and it has been argued that CQ is enhanced by international experience (Klafehn et al., 2008; Ng et al., 2012). Phillion (2002, in Crowne, 2008) found that people will be influenced and can learn a lot about appropriate behaviour through experiencing situations, which indicates that cultural exposure through international experience can positively enhance the development of cultural effectiveness.

The theoretical grounding for these assumptions can be found in social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), which argues that individuals learn by observing others and, through this observation, acquire an understanding of which behaviours are effective and which are not. Central to this theory is the belief that individuals learn and develop by engaging with their environment and having the opportunity to practice newly learned knowledge, skills and behaviours in a multicultural setting, in order to be effective in these settings (Yamazaki and Kayes, 2004). This suggests that contact with others will lead to positive attitudes towards individuals from another culture (Amir, 1969). Individuals must have an understanding of thoughts and behaviours of people in different cultures from their own and, therefore, interacting with people from other cultures will create positive attitudes towards these people (Thomas et al., 2008). It will provide opportunities to identify, learn and apply culturally appropriate behaviours that will contribute to the development of CQ.

Having lived abroad provides individuals the opportunity to consciously examine their own cultural assumptions and to reflect before, during and after cross-cultural interactions. The opportunity to immerse yourself in another culture can positively impact an individual's knowledge and understanding of that culture (Crowne, 2008; Crowne, 2013) and therefore improve both MCCQ and CCQ (Engle and Crowne, 2014). Tay et al. (2008) posit that

people with more international experience have more occasions to develop a deeper understanding of the norms and values of a certain culture, acquiring metacognitive strategies and knowledge of specific cultural differences.

Additionally, having lived abroad can also increasingly build confidence in an individual's ability to select and use the appropriate behaviours to function in the culture of that country (Johnson et al., 2006). Phillion (2002) argues that people have the ability to learn about appropriate behaviours by experiencing and observing cross-cultural situations. Having cross-cultural experience has a noticeable impact on people's behaviour (Hart, 1999 in Shannon and Begley, 2008) assuming a relation with BCQ.

Although it is not clear that international experience will also motivate an individual, it could, according to Engle and Crown (2014), increasingly create some appetite to continue to learn about other cultures, especially if someone is living in a different culture and has to function on a daily basis. Therefore, it is hypothesized that;

H10   International experience is positively related to meta-cognitive (H10a), cognitive (H10b), motivational (H10c) and behavioural CQ (H10d).

Despite these hypotheses and the expected importance of international experience in developing cross-cultural capabilities, this effectiveness has been a point of concern (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005), as described in the introductory chapter. The research has revealed inconsistent results (Crowne, 2008; Moon et al., 2012; Shannon and Begley, 2008; Tarique and Takeuchi, 2008; Tay et al., 2008), which raises the question whether having international experience is enough to predict intercultural effectiveness (Chang et al., 2013; Kealey, 1989; Kobrin, 1994; Lovvorn and Chen, 2011) and develop the different facets of CQ.

Cross-cultural experience is multidimensional, encompassing many potential dimensions (Crowne, 2008), and perhaps simply being abroad may be too simplistic to explain how people develop their CQ. The different results in the

research on international experience suggest a need for theoretical enhancement. Gelfand et al. (2008) argue that research would benefit from considering certain variables as moderators, influencing other relationships involving CQ. It might well be that certain personality factors have a more significant impact on CQ, strengthened by the opportunity to engage with people from other cultures through international experiences. Interacting in a new culture can be a puzzling experience (Li et al., 2013), and individuals differ in their level of engagement and the degree to which they embrace experiences (Black, 2005) as an opportunity to learn and enhance their cross-cultural capabilities like CQ. It is suggested that this difference can be explained in personality variations amongst individuals and especially personality dimensions which are driven by intrinsic motivation, like *interpersonal sensitivity* and *sociability*.

It is anticipated that people high in *interpersonal sensitivity* will show a positive relationship with MCQ as mentioned in paragraph 3.3.1. However, it is also expected that international experience will provide individuals high in *interpersonal sensitivity* to opportunity to strive for common understanding (Black, 1990), which will support them to be better equipped to avoid social conflict and portray behavioural flexibility (Ang et al., 2006). In addition, people with high scores on the *interpersonal sensitivity* scales cultivate relationships, due to their ability to direct attention to achieve effectiveness in cross-cultural environments. It is, therefore, expected that individuals high in *interpersonal sensitivity* are intrinsically motivated (Walker et al., 2005) to make the appropriate adjustments to their behaviour in order to initiate, build, sustain and enhance effective relationships with locals which is strengthened by the continuous opportunities that international experience provides. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H11   International experience moderates the relationship between interpersonal sensitivity and MCQ (H11a) and BCQ (H11b).

Sociability (see paragraph 3.3.2.) is expected to correlate positively with MCQ. Individuals who score high on this scale are characterized as extraverted, energetic, easy to connect with and talkative (Hogan and Hogan, 1995). They meet strangers well and like to be at the centre of attention (Hogan and Hogan, 1995), due to their intrinsic motivation and ability to build relationships pro-actively (Peltokorpi and Froese, 2012). According to Caligiuri (2000a), international experience will stimulate sociable individuals to actively seek cross-cultural experiences, further enhancing their MCQ . In addition, having lived abroad provides people high on the *sociability* scale more opportunities to build and sustain relationships with locals due to the depth of this cross-cultural experience. It is, therefore, expected that longer periods of intercultural exposure will support individuals high in *sociability* to develop their cultural knowledge enhancing CCQ. This extended exposure to a different culture provides opportunities to learn and know the norms and values of other cultures, being more sensitive to cultural differences and communalities (Şahin et al., 2014). Therefore, it is expected that:

H12   International experience moderates the relationship between sociability and motivational (H12a) and cognitive CQ (12b).

Lastly, individuals who have a tendency to score high on the *leisurely* personality dimension believe in the right to be independent and, for instance, pursue their own agenda (Nelson and Hogan, 2009). As the score on this dimension increases, for example due to the stress of being in unfamiliar situations, these individuals become more uncooperative, unresponsive to requests from others and reluctant to be part of a team (Hogan et al., 2009), behaving in passively resistant ways (Hogan and Judge, 2013) and therefore being unrewarding to deal with (Hogan et al., 2009). As indicated in paragraph 3.4.3, it is expected that the *leisurely* dimension will be negatively correlated to MCQ. However, it might be that a constant exposure to unfamiliar situations, due to actually living abroad, provides individuals the opportunity to adapt. Once the new environment becomes more familiar, due to an individual's increased cultural knowledge, it

might also have a positive impact on the individual's MCQ since it increases an individual's confidence to effectively operate in cross-cultural settings. Therefore, the following hypothesis is expected:

H13   International experience moderates the relationship between leisurely and motivational (H13a) and cognitive CQ (13b).

3.6 SUMMARY

This chapter has provided several hypotheses and the theory of evolutionary personality psychology has been presented to explain variances in personality traits to understand different behaviours of individuals across cultures. Evolutionary personality psychology provides insights about the possible relationships between the different CQ dimensions and personality traits from both the "bright" and "dark" sides. This is needed, since the literature review revealed inconsistent results between "bright-side" personality traits and CQ, and no empirical research was found investigating the relationship between CQ and "dark-side" personality traits. This leaves an important gap in the current research on cross-cultural competencies, advocating the application of Hogan as a measurement for the purposes of this research.

In addition, the expected relationships and moderating role of international experience in relation to CQ were hypothesized based on social learning theory. According to this theory, international experience provides individuals the prospect of reflecting and observing others, through interaction, in order to determine what is effective in cross-cultural situations and what is not.

The next chapter will discuss the methodology used to investigate the hypotheses as defined in this chapter.

4   RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1   INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational research study is to focus on the concept of CQ and determine the impact of personality traits and international experience on CQ and whether the impact of certain personality traits on CQ is moderated by international experience. Hypotheses regarding the expected relationships were developed as discussed in the previous chapter.

This chapter of the dissertation will present a detailed overview of the methodology used. It commences by describing the research design, followed by describing the research setting, an account of the population (including sample size) and a description of the measurement instruments. The internal structure of the CQ measurement instrument will be analysed closely, before finishing the chapter by describing the statistical procedures that were applied to analyse the data for the purpose of this study.

4.2   RESEARCH DESIGN

Research is a systematic approach to provide answers to questions and is, in its basic form, generally concerned with identifying and understanding relationships among variables (Jonker and Pennink, 2010; Spyridakis, 1992). There are two empirical methods - qualitative and quantitative - which differ along many dimensions. The greatest strength of quantitative research is its ability to describe cause and effect relationships as argued by several scholars (Goubil-Gambrell, 1992; Johnson and Christensen, 2008), while qualitative research seeks understanding of interpretations and perceptions (Stainback and Stainback, 1989).

The choice of a research design is an integral part of the process that follows from the identification of the problem definition, reviewing the available research literature, definition of the research objectives, to the selection of the most appropriate research design (Creswell, 2005). It determines the

process of data collection and the analysis of the data, as well as the reporting of the results from the data analyses and evaluation of the research study.

This study takes a quantitative, multivariate correlational approach to research, with a non-experimental research design process using online survey instruments as a research method to collect data, which were analysed using descriptive and inferential correlational statistics. According to Creswell (2005), the design of a research study must achieve valid results and, as such, correlational designs are appropriate for the measurement of scores and interpretation of relationships among variables: "in this design, the researchers do not attempt to control or manipulate the variables as in an experiment; instead they relate, using the correlation statistic" (p.325). Correlational design allows statistical analysis in order to accept or reject a null hypothesis and answer research questions. In this study, the objective is to examine the relationship between CQ and certain personality traits, and the direct and moderating role of international experience on CQ.

This research measures the independent variable *personality* through the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI) and Hogan Development Survey (HDS), and the dependent variable *Cultural Intelligence* through the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS). All three instruments provide composite scores which can be used for statistical correlation analysis. Additionally, the research investigates the relationship between international experience and CQ, and conducts a moderator model to describe the effect that international experience (moderating variable) has on the correlation between the independent variable (personality) and the outcome variable (CQ) (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

4.3 SETTING, POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The target population consists of employees from Prudential Plc, which is a multinational financial services company focusing on a wide range of savings and insurance protection products. Prudential Plc has a strong focus on Asia,

with a clear and consistent strategy to utilize the needs of the growing middle class, creating long term value for both customers and shareholders (Prudential, 2016). The company has a market cap of £34.6B, which makes it the 17th largest company listed on the London Stock Exchange, according to stockchallenge.co.uk (2016). The sample is a purposeful sample of subjects who were employed in Asia by Prudential Plc in a senior management position or part of the so-called 'talent pool' being identified as having the potential to grow into such a senior managerial role within the next 5 years.

Data collection followed a cross-sectional design (Christensen et al., 2011) and, prior to collecting data, ethics approval was sought and provided by the Humanities, Social and Health Sciences Research Ethics Panel at the University of Bradford. Participation was voluntary, and confidentiality was guaranteed. To encourage participation, identifying information collected from the participants was only available to the researcher and identifiers (to retrieve the data from a personality assessment) were removed once the data was collected.

The subjects were chosen based on the availability of data from a personality assessment (Hogan) in which they had previously participated for either executive recruitment or talent development purposes. The subjects were approached through an email asking them to participate in an online survey using surveymonkey.com (see appendix 2), to which a link was provided. The survey asked the subjects to answer questions to capture their CQ as well as providing some demographical information. One week after receiving the initial invitation to participate, the subjects received a reminder, thanking those subjects who had already participated and reminding the subjects who had not responded yet. This procedure was repeated after the second week, with the additional information that the online survey would be closed the next day, which was subsequently done.

The return rate was calculated based on the actual number of usable surveys completed by the subjects. A total of 409 subjects were approached to fill in

the survey, which yielded to 258 responses. Twenty-eight of the respondents did not provide their names, which made it impossible to match the survey results with the data from the Hogan personality assessment. Additionally, for another thirty-three respondents the Hogan or demographic data appeared to be incomplete, which left a total of 197 usable survey sets. This represents a response rate of 48% of the total possible sample population.

The number of completed responses was sufficient to establish statistical suitability to conduct the statistical analyses; based on the population, a minimum sample of 118 was calculated to be necessary to achieve a confidence level of 99% and a confidence interval of 10%. These computations were done using surveysystem.com.

4.4 MEASURES

For this study, two primary instruments were used. To measure CQ, the cultural intelligence scale (CQS), developed by Ang et al. (2007), was utilized and personality traits were measured using the available data from the Hogan personality inventory (HPI) and Hogan development survey (HDS) (Hogan and Hogan, 2001). The data from the CQS were collected through the survey and, as mentioned, the Hogan data were collected either before the subjects joined the company or as part of a talent management program in which they participated.

4.4.1 Dependent variables: cultural intelligence scale (CQS)

The concept of CQ used for this study is the one operationalized by Earley and Ang (2003). The CQS was used to measure the four dimensions of CQ (Ang et al., 2007) and it is composed of 20 items to measure these dimensions: Cognitive (6 items), Meta-cognitive (4 items), Motivational (5 items) and Behavioural CQ (5 items). Examples include: "I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures" (CCQ); "I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures" (MCCQ); "I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is

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unfamiliar to me" (MCQ) and; "I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it" (BCQ). The CQS uses a seven-point Likert rating scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) for the subjects to select the answer that corresponds best to their own beliefs and insights. It takes less than 10 minutes to complete the survey and higher scores on the CQS questions indicate a higher level of CQ. The full version of the CQS is shown in appendix 1.

According to Ang et al. (2006), confirmatory factor analysis provided good reliability and validity. All four subscales (Metacognitive (α=.76); Cognitive (α=.84); Motivational (α=.85) and Behavioural (α=,84)) showed high Cronbach alpha coefficients and the CQS has been utilized widely as an instrument to measure the concept of CQ.

4.4.2 Independent variables: Hogan personality inventory (HPI)

The HPI is a widely used and well recognized personality inventory based on the five factor model (FFM) developed for organizational and vocational applications (Anderson and Ones, 2003). The HPI is a 206-item inventory of normal personality (Lee and Scott, 2007), based on socio-analytic theory, developed to predict job performance (Hogan, 2007) by evaluating strengths and competencies that enhance an individual's career. It takes about 30-40 minutes to complete, includes a short validity scale to check for careless responding (Nolan et al., 1994) and subjects are asked to rate statements either as "True" or "False". The HPI consists of seven primary scales that show strong convergent validity with the FFM of personality (Caligiuri, 2000a; Hogan and Hogan, 1995; Hogan et al., 2007b) and normed over 30.000 adults (Hogan and Hogan, 2001). The major difference from the FFM is in the split of the Extraversion scale into separate sociability and ambition scales and the openness to experience scale into inquisitive and learning approach scales. The HPI scales and their correlated FFM scales are described in Table 3. The HPI makes use of homogenous item composites (HICs) (Hogan et al., 1992) that are subsets of a larger construct. For example, the HPI

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sociability scale is composed of the following HICs: likes parties, entertaining, exhibitionistic and likes crowds.

Table 3: HPI scales and their correlated FFM scales

	Five Factor Model	Hogan Personality Inventory
I	Surgency / Extraversion – the degree to which a person is outgoing and talkative	Ambition & Sociability
II	Agreeableness – the degree to which a person is rewarding to deal with and pleasant	Interpersonal Sensitivity
III	Conscientiousness / Dependable – the degree to which a person complies with rules, norms and standards	Prudence
IV	Emotional Stability – the degree to which a person perceives the world as threatening and beyond his / her control	Adjustment
V	Intellect / Openness to Experience – the degree to which a person seems creative and open-minded	Inquisitive & Learning Approach

In addition, there are six occupational scales that combine HICs from the seven primary scales. These occupational scales predict performance in work settings and are: service orientation, stress tolerance, reliability, clerical potential, sales potential and managerial potential. A more detailed discussion of all the scales is presented in the Hogan guide (Hogan et al., 2007b).

One aspect of the HPI relevant for this research is that the online test forms are directly sent to the publisher (Hogan Assessment Systems) and the scoring key is held secret. Results were therefore made available on scale level but not on item level and the internal estimate consistency for the present study was not made available by the scoring service. However, previous studies have reported Alpha internal consistencies for the different scales ranging from .76 to .89, with four-week test-retest reliabilities ranging from .74 to .99. The scales have been validated in samples (n > 2000) of adult men and women employed in a variety of occupations (Nolan et al., 1994) and considerable data is available to support the validity and reliability of HPI scores regarding personality measurement (Hogan and Hogan, 1995).

4.4.3 Hogan development survey (HDS)

The HDS focusses solely on the main construct related to the eleven "dark-side" traits from a dimensional perspective (Furnham et al., 2012) and is based on the DSM-IV personality disorder themes (Hogan et al., 2007b). The HDS contains 168 self-reporting test questions, including a measure for social desirability and each scale contains 14 items. The online questionnaire takes about 20 – 30 minutes to complete and questions are formulated in the form of statements to which respondents are forced to choose between "agree" or "disagree".

The personality scores of this study are expressed in terms of percentiles ranging from 1st to 100th and, as with the HPI, the scores were made available only at scale level and not item level. High scores on most scales translate to a higher risk in the workplace (Furnham et al., 2007). For interpretation, Hogan et al. (2007b) suggest the following scoring ranges: average (0-40%), elevated (41 – 89%) and high scores (90 – 100%). Taking the *excitable* scale as an example; 'average' scores suggest that the respondent is usually in a good mood, not easily disappointed and doesn't dwell on minor problems. 'Elevated' scores suggest that others may perceive the respondent as somewhat unpredictable, critical or likely to overreact to difficult situations. 'High' scores suggest that the respondent may be upset easily, seem prone to emotional outbursts and others may perceive the respondent as overly critical and easily irritated (Hogan et al., 2007b). In conclusion, average scores mean the respondent can be described as predictable, stable and calm, while high scores characterize the respondent as emotional and unpredictable.

The HDS has been cross validated with the MMPI (Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory) personality disorder scales (Furnham and Crump, 2005) and more information on the HDS scales can also be found in the Hogan Guide (Hogan et al., 2007b). The HDS is normed on over 10.000 working managers and various studies have used the HDS and it has shown

to be a reliable and valid instrument (Carson et al., 2012; Furnham, 2006; Furnham and Crump, 2005; Khoo and Burch, 2008; Spain et al., 2014).

As mentioned, both the HPI and HDS are well validated and utilized measurement instruments (Hogan et al., 2007b; Nolan et al., 1994; Ones et al., 2007), justifying their application for the purpose of this research based on the defined hypotheses in the previous chapter.

4.4.4 Independent & moderating variable: international experience

International experience is applied as both independent and moderator variable and it is explained as the number of countries that subjects have lived in. Participants had to provide information about the number of countries they have lived in, which is in line with earlier research on international experience and CQ (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). For the moderator analysis only, it is redefined as a categorical variable, either having international experience (have lived in more than one country) or having no international experience (have lived in one country).

4.4.5 Control variables: work experience and gender

According to Spyridakis (1992), control variables are independent variables that are consciously neutralized to ensure these variables cannot influence the dependent variables. Previous research has shown that variables like gender and work experience were identified as having an influence on cross-cultural effectiveness (Chen et al., 2011). In order to answer the defined research questions, demographic variables *gender* and *years of work experience* will act as control variables to rule out any demographic effects which is consistent with prior research on CQ (Ang et al., 2006; Li et al., 2016; Presbitero, 2016) . Since the control variable *work experience* is clustered in several categories, it will be recoded into two categories (0 = below 16 years of work experience and; 1 = 16 years or more of work experience) in order to employ this variable for multiple regression analysis.

The variable *gender* does not need to be recoded since the current categorization (0 = male and; 1 = female) is appropriate for the chosen statistical analysis.

4.5 THE INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF THE CQ CONSTRUCT

In order to investigate whether the factor structure could be replicated in the obtained dataset, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. CFA assesses the research data against the hypothesized underlying latent constructs and determines if the data support the theory, forcing the model to be consistent with the theorized four-factor model as developed by Ang et al. (2004). Structural equation modelling (SEM) techniques were applied using AMOS version 24 to test these hypotheses about the relationships between the CQ items (as measured by the CQS) and factors (Vet et al., 2005). The data obtained for each of the 20 items were entered into the software to evaluate the distinctiveness of the theorized four-factor CQ model compared to a one, two and three factor model. There were no missing values in the obtained dataset.

Several model fit indices were utilized to examine how well the research data fit the varying models, since it is generally recognized good practice to evaluate fit through a combination of fit indices (Schulz et al., 2008). A good theoretical model will clarify the variation in the variables and produce residual correlations close to zero (Pohlmann, 2004). The following fit indices were considered: the chi-square test (x^2), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), normed fit index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), comparative fit index (CFI) and root mean square error of approximation (RSMEA). The chi-square test (x^2) indicates the difference between observed and expected covariance matrices, with values closer to zero indicating a better fit (Gatignon, 2010). Since the chi-square test (x^2) is sensitive to sample size, leading to the possibility of inappropriately rejecting or accepting the model, additionally the RSMEA was used, since it avoids issues of sample size by analysing the differences in the theorized model, with optimally chosen parameters, and

the population covariance model (Hooper et al., 2008). RSMEA expresses fit per degree of freedom within the theoretical model, with values between 0.08 and 0.10 indicating a mediocre fit and below 0.08 a reasonable fit, and values less than 0.05 being a good fit to the data (Browne and Cudeck, 1992; MacCallum et al., 1996).

The measures mentioned hereafter all have values between 0 and 1, with values closer to 1 indicative of data fitness (Kline, 2015). GFI is a measure of fit between the theorized model and the observed covariance matrix, and a value over 0.9 is an indication of an acceptable model fit (Baumgartner and Homburg, 1996). NFI analyses the difference between the chi-square value of the null model. However, this measure of fit tends to be negatively influenced and the TLI resolves some of these issues. A good model will indicate NFI and TLI values above 0.9 (Bentler, 1990), with values between 0.8 and 0.9 indicating a reasonable fit (Browne and Cudeck, 1992). The CFI also investigates the difference between the obtained data and the theorized model, while adjusting for sample size issues inherent to the NFI index. A value greater than 0.9 is needed to ensure an appropriate model fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999).

As shown in Table 4, the hypothesized four-factor model by Ang et al. (2004) demonstrates a superior fit compared to the other models, supporting the distinctive difference between the theorized four-factor model and the alternative models.

Upon examining the different goodness-of-fit measures, the research data indicate a reasonable fit to the four-factor model, whilst the alternative models show poor fit. The RMSEA value of .81 indicates a mediocre fit of the data with the theorized model. The GFI (.846) is below the cut-off criterion of 0.9, whilst the CFI value of .908 indicates an appropriate fit. Both the NFI (.849) and TLI (.893) are indicative of a reasonable fit of the obtained data to the four-factor model of Ang et al. (2004).

	χ^2	Df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	GFI	CFI	NFI
1. Four Factor Model	374.584	164	2,284	.081	.893	.846	.908	.849
2. Three Factor Model	597.684	167	3.579	.114	.786	.728	.812	.759
3. Two Factor Model	821.027	169	4.858	.140	.680	.646	.715	.669
4. One Factor Model	1028.252	170	6.049	.160	.581	.593	.625	.585

EFA has been argued to be a reasonable follow up to a CFA model which does not provide a good fit to the data based on cut-off values (Schmitt, 2011). In addition a "good model fit" only indicates that the model is plausible (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003) and several researchers (Hu and Bentler, 1999; Mulaik et al., 1989; Sharma et al., 2005) express caution against strict cut-off measures of assessing "good model fit". Hurley et al. (1997) argue that EFA and CFA do not have to be mutually exclusive analyses and can provide complementary perspectives on the obtained data. As a good example, the use of eigenvalues provides a more direct picture of dimensionality than goodness-of-fit measures used in CFA (Hurley et al., 1997). Based on this and the fact that the theorized four factor model was a reasonable but not good fit to the obtained data, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was applied to further evaluate the factor structure.

Before EFA, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure and Bartlett's test of sphericity were conducted to evaluate the factorability. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.897, above the stipulated 0.6, and the Bartlett test of sphericity was less than 0.001 (p=0.000), implying that the obtained dataset was suitable for EFA (Kaiser, 1974; Pallant, 2007).

EFA was conducted with the obtained dataset to extract the factor structure and to examine the construct validity based on eigenvalues, cumulative variance explained and interpretability. Maximum likelihood and principle component analysis (aiming to explain cumulative variance) are generally recommended extraction methods (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Based on the Kaiser-Guttman rule (Yeomans and Golder, 1982), which implies eigenvalues

of greater than 1, four factors were extracted. The cumulative variance explained is 67.64, which is above the expectation of 60% (Hair et al., 2010). The cumulative percentage of the first factor is 41.73, 10.61 of the second, 8.57 of the third, and 6.71 of the fourth factor. The factor structure of the EFA results is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Factor analysis of the CQS

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.34	41.73	41.73	3.86	19.30	19.30
2	2.12	10.61	52.34	3.62	18.10	37.40
3	1.71	8.57	60.92	3.15	15.75	53.15
4	1.34	6.71	67.64	2.89	14.48	67.64
5	.831	4.15	71.79			
6	.730	3.65	75.44			
7	.613	3.06	78.51			
8	.520	2,60	81.11			
9	.488	2.44	83.55			
10	.446	2.23	85.78			
11	.427	2.13	87.91			
12	.400	2.00	89.92			
13	.357	1.78	91.70			
14	.325	1.62	93.33			
15	.309	1.54	94.87			
16	.278	1.39	96.27			
17	.221	1.10	97.37			
18	.189	.944	98.32			
19	.184	.918	99.24			
20	.152	.760	100.00			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

After determining the number of factors, the next step in the analysis is to interpret the factor structure by rotating the different factors. The most commonly used rotation method is varimax, which provides a simple interpretation of the structure (Pohlmann, 2004). Hair et al. (2010) argue that, with a sample size of 200, the minimum factor value should be 0.40 of the different items, and analysists commonly use factor loadings between 0.30 and 0.60 as cut-off criteria (Nunnally, 1978; Pohlmann, 2004). Results (Table

6) showed that the factor loadings of all items are above 0.53, which confirms the good metric characteristic of the CQS scales.

Table 6: Rotated component matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
Cognitive CQS 4	**.834**	.237	.006	.112
Cognitive CQS 5	**.768**	.227	.160	.023
Cognitive CQS 3	**.765**	.249	.039	.248
Cognitive CQS 6	**.744**	.200	.305	.127
Cognitive CQS 2	**.665**	.030	.099	.269
Cognitive CQS 1	**.619**	.140	.096	.306
Motivational CQS 3	.167	**.825**	.220	.183
Motivational CQS 2	.155	**.813**	.183	.186
Motivational CQS 4	.272	**.791**	.108	.115
Motivational CQS 1	.164	**.788**	.067	.331
Motivational CQS 5	.262	**.676**	.312	.132
Behavioral CQS 4	.056	.201	**.843**	.103
Behavioral CQS 5	-.072	.078	**.759**	.194
Behavioral CQS 3	.242	.200	**.752**	.093
Behavioral CQS 2	.252	.097	**.696**	.243
Behavioral CQS 1	.196	.251	**.532**	.310
Meta-cognitive CQS 1	.172	.227	.159	**.799**
Meta-cognitive CQS 2	.159	.232	.203	**.763**
Meta-cognitive CQS 3	.290	.246	.279	**.745**
Meta-cognitive CQS 4	.289	.139	.229	**.667**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Item analysis of CQ was based on calculated means and standard deviations and reliability was assessed through internal consistency (Table 7). One of the most popular estimates of internal consistency is Cronbach Alpha (α). Generally, if α is above 0.90, the internal consistency is considered excellent and if α is between 0.70 and 090 it is considered to be good (Kim et al., 2016). Cronbach Alpha's are: 0.86 for MCCQ; 0.876 for CCQ; 0.900 for MCQ and 0.832 for BCQ, confirming that tests of internal consistency for all four CQ factors meet the conventional cut-off of 0.70 in their Cronbach Alpha.

Table 7: Descriptive statistics of the CQS items

	N	Min	Max	M	SD	α
Meta-cognitive CQS 1	197	2	7	5.59	1.09	
Meta-cognitive CQS 2	197	2	7	5.42	1.07	
Meta-cognitive CQS 3	197	2	7	5.34	1.04	
Meta-cognitive CQS 4	197	2	7	5.00	1.13	
Metacognitive total	197	8.00	28.00	21.35	3.65	.861
Cognitive CQS 1	197	1	7	3.98	1.24	
Cognitive CQS 2	197	1	7	3.92	1.50	
Cognitive CQS 3	197	1	7	4.67	1.22	
Cognitive CQS 4	197	1	7	4.09	1.45	
Cognitive CQS 5	197	1	7	3.93	1.34	
Cognitive CQS 6	197	1	7	3.93	1.32	
Cognitive total	197	6.00	42.00	24.52	6.36	.876
Motivational CQS 1	197	2	7	5.79	1.10	
Motivational CQS 2	197	2	7	5.31	1.22	
Motivational CQS 3	197	2	7	5.38	1.06	
Motivational CQS 4	197	2	7	5.05	1.29	
Motivational CQS 5	197	2	7	5.39	1.15	
Motivational total	197	10.00	35.00	26.91	4.95	.900
Behavioral CQS 1	197	1	7	4.88	1.36	
Behavioral CQS 2	197	2	7	4.80	1.14	
Behavioral CQS 3	197	1	7	5.26	1.21	
Behavioral CQS 4	197	1	7	4.97	1.21	
Behavioral CQS 5	197	1	7	4.66	1.29	
Behavioral total	197	9.00	35.00	24.57	4.83	.832

4.6 STATISTICAL DATA ANALYSIS

The reason for all statistical methodologies in quantitative research is to explain that relationships between variables are not due to chance but to cause and effect relationships (Miller and Salkind, 2002) in an objective manner (Lussier and Sonfield, 2004). In this research, both descriptive and inferential correlational statistics were utilized. Completed online surveys of the CQS, including demographical questions, were coded and transferred into the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 21.0 as well as the data made available on both the HPI and HDS on scale level by the scoring service. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse demographic data and the background factors, using frequencies and percentages.

Additionally, descriptive statistics were calculated for all CQS, HPI and HDS scales, including means and standard deviations. The psychometric properties of the CQ data were evaluated for reliability and validity prior to testing the defined hypothesis. In this study, reliability of the CQS was evaluated using Cronbach Alpha which, according to Hinkin (1998), is the most common way to test internal consistency. An Alpha measure of 0.7 serves as a minimum for acceptable reliability (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994) as mentioned on the previous paragraph.

Validity is the other key concept in empirical research; it is synonymous with appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness (Girden and Kabacoff, 2010). Factor analysis is commonly used to determine whether questionnaire items can be grouped into groups representing the different dimensions of the theoretical model under study (Vet et al., 2005). It is a statistical procedure to disclose if the pattern of item responses can be explained by a smaller number of underlying factors (Streiner, 1994). In order to test the validity of the CQ concept, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted with AMOS version 24.0, using maximum likelihood estimation to evaluate whether the factor structure identified in the CQ model provided a good fit with the sample of this study. Following the results of the CFA, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used with Varimax rotation in order to find non-correlated factors and to confirm the final numbers of factors to be used in this study. The varimax criterion simplifies the interpretation, ensuring that each variable only relates to one factor (Pohlmann, 2004). Results of the factor analyses were presented in the previous paragraph.

In an effort to identify relationships, inter-correlations among primary variables were explored as part of linear model tests, such as multiple regression, to determine the degree and strength of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables, utilizing guidelines provided by Cohen (1988) to describe statistical significance. Multivariate analysis is widely used these days in behavioural science and provides an opportunity to explore complex research questions, such as the relationship between a

criterion variable and several predictor variables (Gountas and Gountas, 2008; Thompson, 1991). In general, it was hypothesized that there are statistically significant relationships between certain personality traits and the four dimensions of CQ, and between international experience and the four dimensions of CQ. In addition, it was hypothesized that international experience has a moderating effect on the relationship between certain personality traits and elements of CQ (see paragraph 3.5.). In addition to the interaction effect, the marginal effects were calculated using STATA version 13 to examine the hypothesized moderator relationships as suggested by Kingsley et al. (2017).

4.7 SUMMARY

This chapter described the purpose and rationale of the methodology. The research takes a quantitative approach by using a correlational research design to investigate the relationship between the different CQ dimensions, international experience, and personality factors, and the possible moderator role of international experience through defined hypotheses. The appropriateness of this design was supported by the availability of validated measurement instruments (Creswell, 2005), using the CQS, consisting of 20 items measured on a Likert scale; the HPI consisting of 206 binary items (true/false) measuring 7 primary scales linked to the FFM; and the HDS, which is a 168-binary-item (Agree/Disagree) questionnaire, used to measure potential behavioural derailment across eleven scales.

The sample consisted of individuals working for an insurance company within the financial services industry, based in Asia, and data were collected through an online survey using a 7-point Likert scale to measure CQ and some demographical questions. Data from the HPI and HDS were provided by a scoring service at scale level.

This chapter also confirmed that the four-factor model of CQ best fits the data, compared to alternative models, and exploratory factor analysis also

confirmed that the four-factor model of CQ, as theorized by Ang and Van Dyne (2008), fits the research data well.

In the next chapter, the descriptive analyses will be presented. Additionally, the defined hypotheses will be tested and analysed, using inferential correlational statistics.

5 RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The first chapters of this thesis presented an overview regarding the research on cross-cultural competencies, as well as an account of the theoretical foundation which provided the underpinning and background of the hypotheses and the research methodology. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the degree to which a relationship exists between certain personality factors, international experience and CQ, and if international experience strengthens the relationships between certain personality factors and dimensions of CQ.

This chapter provides a full description and analysis of the research findings from the collected data, based on the descriptive results and statistical procedures applied to test the defined hypotheses.

5.2 FINDINGS

Part of the study comprised questions related to the demographics of the sample. These questions permitted a demographical investigation which is presented in the next sub-section. This will be followed by some preliminary analyses to test if the data is suitable for conducting multiple regression analyses in order to test the different hypotheses.

Multiple regression analyses were computed, applying a stepwise process: a) control variables were entered into the model first; b) independent variables were added and; c) the moderation variables were added, following the suggestion from Baron and Kenny (1986). Based on the defined hypotheses, models 1-2 use MCCQ as the dependent variable, models 3-6 use CCQ, models 7-11 use MCQ and models 12-14 use BCQ as the dependent variable. Results are shown in Table 15.

The hypotheses testing was based on three themes. The first theme analysed the hypothesized relationship between CQ and the so-called

"bright-side" of personality (HPI). The second theme examined the relationship between elements of CQ and the so-called "dark-side" of personality (HDS). The third theme investigated the direct and moderating effects of international experience on dimensions of CQ.

5.2.1 Sample demographics

Table 8: Gender

	F	%
Male	84	42.6
Female	113	57.4
Total	197	100.0

From the sample, 57% (n=113) were female and 43% (n=84) were male, as shown in Table 8.

Table 9: Nationality

	F	%
American	5	2.5
Australian	5	2.5
British	11	5.6
Canadian	3	1.5
Chinese	41	20.8
European	4	2.0
Filipino	7	3.6
Indian	8	4.1
Indonesian	19	9.6
Japanese	1	0.5
Korean	11	5.6
Malaysian	35	17.8
Singaporean	17	8.6
Taiwanese	18	9.1
Thai	5	2.5
Vietnamese	6	3.0
Total	196	99.5
Missing	1	0.5
Total	197	100.0

In terms of nationality, the results showed 16 different nationalities, see Table 9, with the Chinese nationality being most prominent (20.8%), followed by the Malaysian nationality (17.8%)

Table 10: Number of countries lived in

	F	%
1	82	41.6
2	52	26.4
3	34	17.3
4	14	7.1
5	6	3.0
6	5	2.5
7	1	0.5
10	3	1.5
Total	197	100.0

The results from the survey indicate that 42% had no international experience in terms of living abroad (lived in one country only), whereas 58% of the respondents had lived in more than one country, dominated by those who either have lived in 2 (26.4%) or 3 (17.3%) countries. Table 10 shows the full details of the numbers of countries that the subjects had lived in.

Table 11: Years of work experience

	F	%
1-5 years	5	2.5
6-10 years	32	16.2
11-15 years	58	29.4
16-20 years	58	29.4
over 20 years	44	22.3
Total	197	100.0

Work experience is categorized in five clusters with different durations of work experience; up to five years, from 6 – 10 years, from 11 – 15 years, from 16 – 20 years, and over 20 years. The results are shown in Table 11. The majority of respondents have either between 11-15 years of work experience (29.4%) or between 16-20 years of work experience (29.4%).

Lastly, the results from the survey show that all participants are working in Asia (see Table 12), representing 11 different countries, with most of the subjects working in Hong Kong (28.9%), Malaysia (15.7%), Indonesia (10.7%), Singapore (14.2%) or Taiwan (9.6%).

Table 12: Place of work

	F	%
China	3	1.5
Hong Kong	57	28.9
Indonesia	21	10.7
Japan	2	1.0
Korea	11	5.6
Malaysia	31	15.7
Philippines	7	3.6
Singapore	28	14.2
Taiwan	19	9.6
Thailand	7	3.6
Vietnam	9	4.6
Total	195	99.0
Missing System	2	1.0
Total	197	100.0

5.2.2 Preliminary analysis

Before conducting the multiple regression analyses, some preliminary analyses were performed to ensure normality of the data, check for extreme outliers and see that no violations of multicollinearity were found.

The dependent variables, four factors from the CQS, showed a *p* value of >0.05 using the Kologorov Smirnov Z-test, indicating normality of data distribution. In addition, the large data sample (N=197) also implies normality of the data distribution according to the central limit theorem, indicating the obtained dataset can be used for parametric statistical testing of the defined hypotheses (Blackford, 2006; Madansky, 1988).

Outliers were evaluated using Mahalanobis distance in order to distinguish the pattern of a certain group from other groups (Taguchi et al., 2005). The Mahalanobis maximum value of 23.95 did not exceed the critical value of 32.91 at the $p<.001$ level (Huberty, 2005). In addition, the maximum value of Cook's distance was .028, which suggests that no outliers were identified as disproportionally influencing the regression model (Cook and Weisberg, 1982; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Table 13: Collinearity statistics

	Collinearity Statistics	
Variable	Tolerance	VIF
Gender	.737	1,356
Work Experience	.828	1,207
Sociability	.409	2,447
Prudence	.558	1,791
Inquisitive	.525	1,906
Interpersonal Sensitivity	.488	2,050
Adjustment	.443	2,259
Sceptical	.515	1,941
Leisurely	.647	1,547
Reserved	.538	1,859
Imaginative	.567	1,764
International Experience	.786	1,272

Finally, multicollinearity was assessed through calculating the collinearity statistics of both tolerance and the variance inflation factor (VIF). The results suggested that multicollinearity was not a problem, given that tolerance values were well above .10 and VIF values were all below 3, which is well below the recommended cut-off of 10 (Cohen et al., 2004; Myers, 1990). As a result, there are no high intercorrelations among the independent variables violating this assumption and, therefore, the presence of multicollinearity was not expected.

Table 14 presents the means, standard deviations and correlations between all variables.

Table 14: Means and correlations of study variables

	Mean	SD	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y
a Gender	.	.	1																								
b Work Experience	.	.	.092	1																							
c Adjustment	52,57	25,67	.046	.166*	1																						
d Ambition	59,23	28,11	.119	.172*	.423**	1																					
e Sociability	56,13	28,35	.236**	.119	.105	.444**	1																				
f Interpersonal Sensitivity	41,83	29,66	.032	.025	.304**	.276**	.417**	1																			
g Prudence	55,30	25,51	-.092	.128	.424**	.180	-.113	.200**	1																		
h Inquisitive	58,10	26,93	.236**	.017	.122	.326**	.399**	.121	.005	1																	
i Learning Approach	57,28	27,65	-.062	.069	.288**	.370**	.105	.073	.288**	.467**	1																
j Excitable	61,84	26,10	.072	-.154*	-.639**	-.470**	-.173	-.412**	-.339**	-.304**	-.097	1															
k Sceptical	67,72	25,47	.084	-.114	-.352**	-.014	-.093	-.279**	-.180*	-.097	-.032	.254**	1														
l Cautious	65,75	24,52	-.061	-.108	-.451**	-.608**	-.301**	-.237**	-.126	-.365**	-.334**	.471**	.127	1													
m Reserved	58,66	28,68	-.086	-.102	-.260**	-.312**	-.342**	-.559**	-.212**	-.112	-.066	.313**	.287**	.280**	1												
n Leisurely	64,35	26,78	-.025	-.176*	-.301**	-.164*	-.011	-.111	-.197**	-.086	-.073	.178*	.178*	.236**	.291**	1											
o Bold	70,14	28,13	.024	-.056	.089	.394**	.299**	.105	.047	.252**	.160*	-.145*	.333**	.241**	-.337**	.200**	1										
p Mischievous	70,25	24,41	.214**	-.043	-.019	.271**	.465**	.170*	-.196**	.352**	.032	-.077	.327**	.401**	-.150	.117	.470**	1									
q Colorful	60,66	31,47	.077	.150*	.237**	.572**	.597**	.374**	.092	.245**	-.334**	-.272**	-.006	-.085	-.353**	-.027	.404**	.415**	1								
r Imaginative	70,95	25,90	-.081	-.154*	-.069	.129	.333**	.180	-.167*	.280**	-.112	-.070	.107	.013	-.060	.109	.389**	.390**	.344**	1							
s Diligent	55,28	29,05	-.110	.111	.002	.063	-.081	-.008	.253**	.150*	-.086	-.003	.171*	.319**	-.001	.129	.207**	.010	.009	.122	1						
t Dutiful	55,65	29,73	.091	-.142*	-.234**	-.307**	.042	.072	.012	-.184*	-.102	.255**	.045	-.168*	-.215**	-.337**	-.033	-.038	-.022	.009	.103	1					
u International Experience	.	.	.037	.080	.105	.171*	.052	.085	-.063	.102	.090	-.108	-.102	.124	-.121	-.157*	-.165*	.017	.027	-.055	.035	-.141*	1				
v MCCQ	21,36	3,86	-.060	.019	.026	.161*	.108	.080	-.034	.065	.011	-.081	.139	.084	-.031	.045	.152*	.108	.141	.041	.164*	-.030	.035	1			
w CCQ	24,53	6,37	.044	.114	.011	.144*	.110	.009	-.023	.148*	.102	-.017	.090	.094	-.067	-.157*	-.030	.031	.113	.012	.287**	-.027	.041	.543**	1		
x MCQ	26,91	4,96	.162*	.044	.047	.235**	.299**	.242**	-.041	.146*	.016	-.039	.006	-.148*	-.210**	-.175*	.009	.223**	.175*	.013	.205*	-.026	.012	.542**	.516**	1	
y BCQ	24,57	4,33	-.033	.026	.073	.082	.009	.033	.096	.016	-.013	-.039	.072	-.036	.007	-.175*	.045	.017	.078	.065	.008	.008	.065	.545**	.397**	.480**	1

Notes: N=197, *p<.05, **p<.01

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5.2.3 Hypothesized relationships between CQ and HPI

Hypothesis 1 stated that an individual's *interpersonal sensitivity* will be positively related to their MCQ. It is, therefore, proposed that a higher score on the *interpersonal sensitivity* scale will lead to an enhanced score on MCQ. To test the hypothesis, a three-step process was followed, with the final regression coefficient (model 11, see Table 15) being statistically significant (β = .213, $p<.05$). It is, therefore, confirmed that individuals with high scores on the *interpersonal sensitivity* scale will have higher levels of MCQ. Thus, hypothesis 1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2 stated that *sociability* will be positively related to both MCCQ (H2a) and MCQ (H2b). In other words, it is expected that higher scores on the *sociability* scale will result in higher levels of both MCCQ and MCQ. To test hypothesis 2a, a two-step process was conducted and the final regression coefficient (model 2) turned out to be statistically significant (β = .157, $p<.05$). Hypothesis 2b was tested using a three-step process and the final regression coefficient (model 11) showed a significant result (β = .242, $p<.01$). Based on these results, both hypothesis 2a and 2b were supported.

Hypothesis 3 stated that the degree of an individual's level of *prudence* will be positively related to both MCCQ (h3a) and BCQ (H3b). It is, therefore, expected that a higher level of *prudence* will lead to higher scores on both the meta-cognitive and behavioural CQ dimensions. To test hypothesis 3a, a two-step process was followed, in which the final regression coefficient, in the second model, turned out to be statistically insignificant (β = .063, $p>.05$). In addition, a three-step process (model 14) was applied to test hypothesis 3b. This hypothesis was also found not to be statistically significant in the final regression coefficient (β = .100, $p>.05$). The results, therefore, do not support the expected relationship and both hypothesis 3a and hypothesis 3b are rejected.

Table 15: Multiple regression analyses

Variable	MCCQ		CCQ				MCQ					BCQ		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10	Model 11	Model 12	Model 13	Model 14
Control Variables														
Gender	.062	-.125*	.040	-.023	-.031	-.022	.162**	.090	.077	.091	.090	-.036	-.041	-.048
Work Experience	.024	-.004	.110	.097	.101	.088	.029	-.018	-.012	-.022	-.019	.030	.014	.011
Independent Variables														
Sociability		.157**						.242***	.254***	.243***	.242***			
Prudence		.063											.100	.100
Inquisitive				.123*	.118*	.114*		-.005	-.017	-.009	-.006			
Interpersonal Sensitivity								.213**	.217***	.217***	.213**			
Adjustment													.016	.014
Sceptical		.260***		.200***	.201***	.192***		.149**	.151**	.146**	.149**		.175**	.182**
Leisurely		-.183**		-.159**	-.164**	-.142*		-.255***	-.265***	-.248***	-.256**		-.218***	-.228***
Reserved				-.038	-.030	-.050		.128	.147*	.125	.128			
Imaginative													.131*	.126*
International Experience		.167**		.266***	.268***	.274***		.158**	.161**	.162**	.159**		.071	.072
Moderator Variables														
IntExp x Sociability					.091				.146**					
IntExp x Leisurely						-.138**				-.062				
IntExp x Int. Sensitivity											.008			.079
Overall R^2	.004	.112	.015	.150	.158	.169	.028	.209	.230	.213	.209	.002	.082	.088
Adjusted R^2	-.006	.079	.004	.119	.122	.133	.018	.171	.188	.171	.167	-.008	.043	.044
R^2 Change		.108***		.135***	.008	.019**		.181***	.021**	.004	.000		.080**	.006
Overall F	.401	3.405**	1.429	4.764***	4.414***	4.762***	2.772*	5.495***	5.551***	5.030***	4.921***	.194	2.096**	2.005**

Notes: Standardized regression coefficients are reported

N=197; *p<.10; **p<.05; ***p<.01

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Hypothesis 4 stated that *adjustment* will be positively related to BCQ, meaning that higher *adjustment* scores will lead to a higher level of BCQ. In order to test this hypothesis, a three-step process was followed and the final regression coefficient (model 14) indicated that the relationship was not statistically significant (β = .014, *p*>.05). As a result, it is concluded that the hypothesized relationship between *adjustment* and BCQ is not confirmed. Therefore hypothesis 4 is not supported.

Hypothesis 5, the final hypothesis regarding the relationship between CQ and the so-called "bright-side" of personality, stated that *inquisitiveness* will be positively related to both cognitive (H5a) and MCQ (H5b). Therefore, it is expected that higher scores on the *inquisitive* scale will lead to higher levels of CCQ and MCQ. To test hypothesis 5a, a three-step process was conducted and the final regression coefficient (model 6) showed a statistically significant relationship at the 10% confidence level (β = .114, *p*<.10). Hypothesis 5b was tested, also using a three step process, and the final regression coefficient (model 11) indicated that the proposed relationship is negative and statistically not significant (β = -.006, *p*>.05). The results therefore suggest a positive relationship between someone's level of *inquisitiveness* and the level of CCQ, though the relationship is only statistically significant at the 10% confidence level. The analysis did not find a statistically significant relationship between *inquisitiveness* and MCQ. Thus, hypothesis 5 is partly supported.

5.2.4 Hypothesized relationships between CQ and HDS

Hypothesis 6 stated that being *imaginative* will be negatively related to a person's BCQ. It is, therefore, expected that higher scores on the *imaginative* scale will lead to lower levels of BCQ. In order to test this hypothesis, a three-step process was utilized and the final regression coefficient showed a statistically significant relationship at the 10% confidence level (β = .126, *p*<.10). In contrast to the expected negative relationship, the results (see model 14) indicated a statistically positive correlation, implying that higher

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scores on the *imaginative* scale will lead to higher levels of BCQ. Therefore, hypothesis 6 is not supported.

Hypothesis 7 stated that being *reserved* will be negatively related to both cognitive (H7a) and motivational CQ (H7b). It is, therefore, expected that individuals who are more *reserved* will demonstrate lower levels of both cognitive and motivational CQ. In order to test hypothesis 7a, a three-step process was followed and the final regression coefficient (model 6) indicated that the relationship was indeed negative; however, it was not statistically significant (β = -.050, *p*>.05). Hypothesis 7b was also tested using a three-step process and the final regression coefficient (model 11) showed a positive, but also statistically insignificant relationship (β = .128, *p*>.05). As a result, it is concluded that the hypothesized relationship between *reserved* and both cognitive and motivational CQ is not confirmed. Thus, both hypotheses 7a and 7b are not supported.

Hypothesis 8 stated that *leisurely* will be negatively related to motivational (H8a), behavioural (H8b), meta-cognitive (H8c) and cognitive CQ (H8d). This means it is expected that individuals with higher scores on the *leisurely* scale will show lower levels on all four CQ dimensions. Hypothesis 8a was tested through a three-step process and the final regression coefficient (model 11) showed a statistically significant negative relationship (β = -.256, *p*<.05). Hypothesis 8b followed the same process and, also in this case, the results indicate a statistically significant negative relationship (β = -.228, *p*<.01) as indicated in model 14. Hypothesis 8c followed a two-step process and the results (model 2) show a statistically significant result (β = -.183, *p*<.05). Finally, hypothesis 8d followed a three step process and, also in this case, the results show a statistically significant relationship (model 6), though only at a 10% confidence level (β = -.142, *p*<.10). Therefore, the expected relationships are supported and hypotheses 8a, b, c and d are supported.

Hypothesis 9, the final hypothesis regarding the relationship between CQ and the so-called "dark-side" of personality, stated that an individual's level of

scepticism is positively correlated with all four CQ elements. Therefore, it is expected that higher levels of *scepticism* will lead to higher scores on meta-cognitive (H9a), cognitive (H8b), motivational (H9c) and behavioural CQ (H9d). In order to test hypothesis 9a, a two-step process was employed and the results of the second model regression analysis (model 2) specify a statistically significant relationship, as hypothesized (β = .260, *p*<.01). Hypothesis 9b followed a three-step process and the results of the final regression equation (model 6) suggest a statistically significant positive relationship (β = .192, *p*<.01). The third element of this hypothesis (9c) also employed a three-step process and the results of the final regression coefficient (model 11) indicate a statistically significant positive relationship (β = .149, *p*<.05). The last hypothesis (H9d), again employed a three-step process, and the results of the final regression coefficient (model 14) showed a statistically significant positive relationship (β = .182, *p*<.05). Thus, it is concluded that hypotheses 9a, b, c and d are supported.

5.2.5 *Hypothesized direct and moderating effects of international experience on CQ*

Hypothesis 10 stated that the degree of international experience (as measured by the number of countries lived in) will be positively related to meta-cognitive (H10a), cognitive (H10b), motivational (H10c) and behavioural (H10d) CQ. Consequently, it is proposed that individuals with more international experience will score higher on all four dimensions of CQ. To test hypothesis 10a, a two-step process was followed and the results of the final regression coefficient (model 2) specify a statically significant positive relationship (β = .167, *p*<.05). In order to test hypothesis 10b, the three-step process as identified was followed and the final regression coefficient (model 6) showed a statistically significant result (β = .274, *p*<.01). Hypothesis 10c was tested by applying a three-step process and, also in this case, the results from the final regression coefficient (model 11) showed a statistically significant relationship between international experience and MCQ (β = .159, *p*<.05). In order to test hypothesis 10d, again, a three-step process was

conducted, but, in this case, the results of the final regression analysis (model 14) failed to indicate a statistically significant relationship (β = .072, p>.05). Therefore, hypotheses 10a, b and c are supported, but hypothesis 10d is not supported by the regression analysis.

Hypothesis 11 stated that international experience would moderate the relationship between *interpersonal sensitivity* and motivational (H11a) and behavioural (H11b) CQ. It is, therefore, proposed that having international experience will strengthen the relationship between *interpersonal sensitivity* and motivational and behavioural CQ. To test both hypotheses, a three-step process was conducted and the results indicated that the final regression coefficient for H11a (β = .008, p>.05) and H11b (β = .079, p>.05) were statistically insignificant (see Models 11 and 14). Therefore, it is concluded that *international experience* does not strengthen the relationship between *interpersonal sensitivity* and either MCQ or BCQ. Thus, hypothesis 11a and 11b were not supported.

To test for the direction and statistical significance of the moderator effect, one cannot depend on the direction and statistical significance of the interaction effect alone (Hoetker, 2007). Therefore, to avoid any misinterpretation, it is suggested to look at the marginal effect (Brambor et al., 2006; Jaccard et al., 2003) in addition to the interaction effect (Schepers et al., 2014), as failure to address this could lead to either understating or overstating empirical support for the different hypotheses (Kingsley et al., 2017).

Following this, both figures 11 and 12 show the moderating effect of international experience and how the slopes of the effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable indicate this moderating effect. The slopes of both low international experience and high international experience are not very dissimilar for both figures, which is in line with the results from the regression analyses related to hypothesis 11a and 11b.

Figure 11: Moderating effect of international experience on the relationship between interpersonal sensitivity and motivational CQ

Figure 12: Moderating effect of international experience on the relationship between interpersonal sensitivity and behavioural CQ

Hypothesis 12 stipulates that international experience moderates the relationship between the degree of *sociability* and both MCQ (H12a) and CCQ (H12b). It is expected that having international experience will strengthen the relationship between *sociability* and CCQ and MCQ. In order to test hypothesis 12a, a three-step process was conducted and the results from the final regression coefficient (model 9) indicated that the moderation

effect was statistically significant (β = .146, *p*<.05). This basically means that participants with higher *sociability* who have international experience score higher on MCQ. In order to test hypothesis 12b, also a three-step process was applied and the results of the regression analysis (model 5) failed to show statistically significant results (β = .091, *p*>.05). As a conclusion, hypothesis 12a is supported, but hypothesis 12b is not supported.
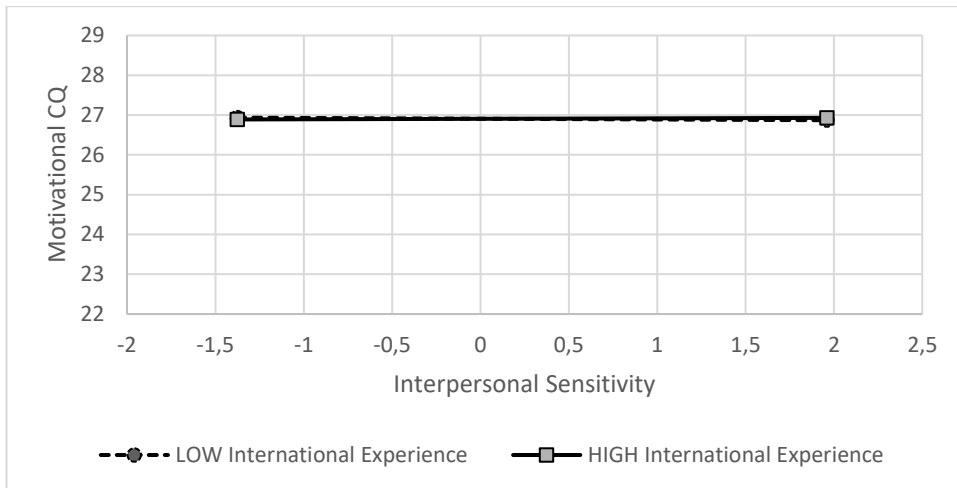

Figure 13: Moderating effect of international experience on the relationship between sociability and motivational CQ

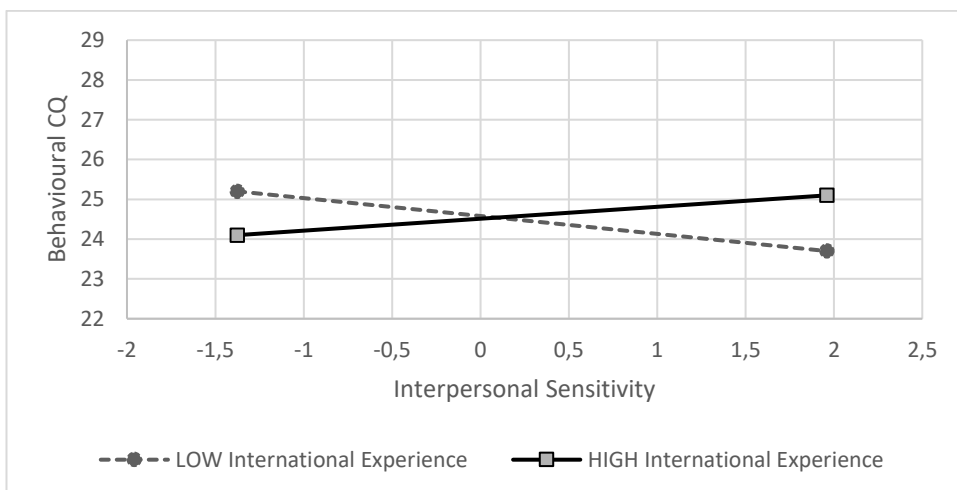*Figure 14: Moderating effect of international experience on the relationship between sociability and cognitive CQ*

To examine the effect of the moderator variable, figures 13 and 14 show the variation in the marginal effects of the independent variable (sociability) on the dependent variable (either MCQ or CCQ). Both figures indicate that the slopes are different in line with the hypotheses, although only hypothesis 12b turned out to be statistically significant.

Hypothesis 13 stated that international experience moderates the relationship between *leisurely* and both MCQ (H13a) and CCQ (H13b). In other words, it is expected that having international experience will enhance the relationship between being *leisurely* and MCQ and CCQ. To test hypothesis 13a, a three-step process was applied and the results from the final regression analysis (model 10) indicated that the expected relationship was not statistically significant (β = -.062, p>.05). In order to test hypothesis 13b, a three-step process was also followed, and the results (model 6) showed a statistically significant result (β = -.138, p<.05). The results imply that subjects who score higher on the *leisurely* dimension and who have lived in more than one country score lower on CCQ. Thus, hypothesis 13a is not supported, but hypothesis 13b is supported.
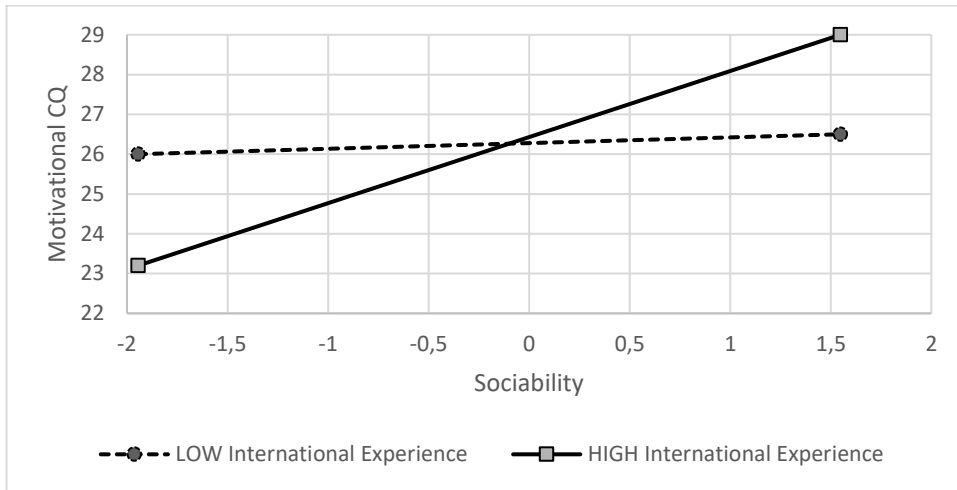

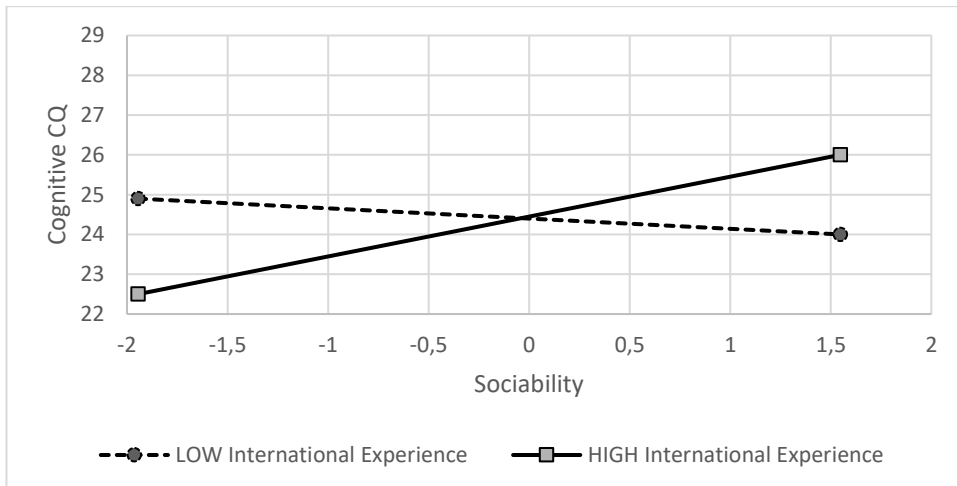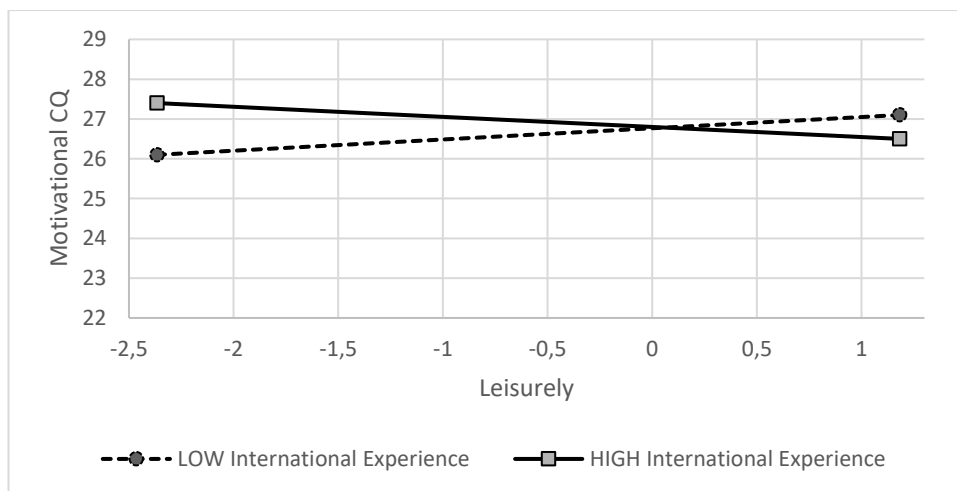*Figure 15: Moderating effect of international experience on the relationship between leisurely and motivational CQ*
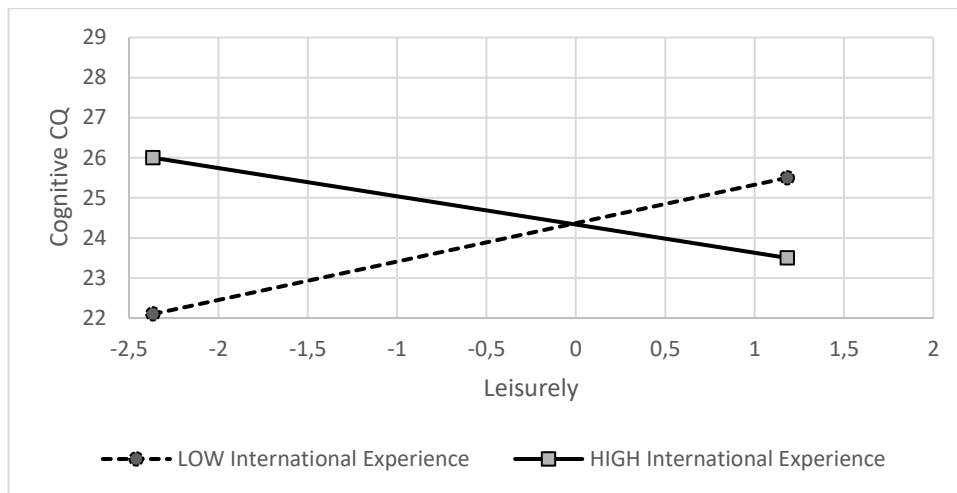
Figure 16: Moderating effect of international experience on the relationship between leisurely and cognitive CQ

Figure 15 indicates that the slopes of the moderator variable are not so different from each other, in line with the regression outcome regarding hypothesis 13a. In contrast hypothesis 13b is supported, which is shown well in figure 16 where the slopes are quite different, suggesting that some degree of moderation exists.

5.3   SUMMARY

This fifth chapter presented the results of the data analyses. Descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations and correlation coefficients, were used to describe the criterion, independent and control variables. Preliminary analyses indicated normality of the data, that no extreme outliers were found and that the presence of multicollinearity was not expected. In addition, the descriptive analyses from the sample were presented. Following this, multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine to what degree statistical relationships exist between certain hypothesized personality factors, as measured by the HPI and HDS, and CQ utilizing the CQS survey . In addition, the direct and moderating effects of international experience on CQ were examined. The results showed significant relationships between certain personality factors and different dimensions of CQ and between

international experience and CQ. Also, a few statistically significant moderation effects of international experience between certain personality dimensions and elements of CQ were found.

The final chapter will present a discussion of the findings in this study from the data analysis, including implications of these results for both research and practice. Additionally, the major limitations of this research will be discussed as well as recommendations for future research. The chapter will close with some concluding remarks.

6 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The specific purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between certain personality traits and aspects of cultural intelligence. In addition, this study also examined the direct and moderating effects of international experience in relation to CQ. Hypotheses regarding the affiliation of certain personality traits and CQ were derived from an analysis of the theory of evolutionary personality psychology. With regards to international experience, social learning theory was applied to shape the different hypotheses. The three primary research questions were: (1) To what extent are dimensions of CQ associated with different facets of an individual's personality; (2) To what extent are the four dimensions of CQ related to international experience and; (3) To what extent does international experience moderate the relationship between dimensions of CQ and different facets of an individual's personality.

This study is, in part, a response to previous research showing inconsistent results and suggesting that other personality constructs than the big-five could potentially provide further insights into the relationship between personality and CQ (Shu et al., 2017). In addition, this research is also a response to the suggestion of several scholars (Ang et al., 2006; Şahin et al., 2014) to examine moderator relationships between personality and CQ.

The results demonstrated that several hypotheses were confirmed. For example, *leisurely* and *sceptical* were related to all four dimensions of CQ and *international experience* was related to all dimensions of CQ except BCQ. This study also showed that *international experience* strengthens the relationship between *sociability* and MCQ and between *leisurely* and CCQ. On the other hand, the results also showed that several hypotheses were not confirmed by the data. For instance, the expected relationships between BCQ and *prudence* and between BCQ and *adjustment* were not supported by the data.

The results of this study will be discussed further in this chapter, which commences with a summary and discussion of the research findings, based on the defined hypotheses. This will be followed by an account of the limitations of the research and recommendations for future research. Additionally, the theoretical, conceptual and practical implications are discussed, before finalizing this chapter by offering several concluding remarks.

6.2 DISCUSSION OF THE HYPOTHESES

The first hypothesis argued that *interpersonal sensitivity* will be positively related to MCQ, which was supported by the results underpinning the argument that individuals high on *interpersonal sensitivity* are intrinsically motivated (Walker et al., 2005) to learn and adjust to cross-cultural situations in order to preserve their social position. This finding is consistent with research from Tufekci and Dinc (2014), but in contrast with Ang et al. (2006), who argued that agreeableness, which is similar to *interpersonal sensitivity* (Hogan et al., 2007b; Witt et al., 2002), is concerned with behavioural skills and less relevant to MCQ. Therefore, this study complements the research from Ang et al (2006) by providing empirical evidence that *interpersonal sensitivity* is an important personality trait for MCQ.

The findings of the study support the second hypothesis, that *sociability* is positively related to both MCCQ and MCQ, which confirms the argument that highly *sociable* individuals are keen to develop relationships and shine in interactions with people from a different culture, due to their curious, outgoing nature. Their social intellect is highly developed - which makes them question their own cultural values and assumptions - and they are motivated to direct energy towards managing cultural differences, due to their self-confidence (Ang et al., 2006; Nel et al., 2015). The result that *sociability*, which is similar to extroversion as argued in Chapter 3, is significantly related to MCCQ is interesting, since it contradicts previous research (Ang et al., 2006; Nel et al., 2015; Şahin et al., 2014; Tufekci and Dinc, 2014), providing new insights for

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future research. Regarding the significant relationship found between *sociability* and MCQ, the results of this study confirm previous research (Ang et al., 2006; Li et al., 2016; Moody, 2007; Presbitero, 2016; Tufekci and Dinc, 2014; Ward and Fischer, 2008), providing additional empirical evidence that an individual's outgoing nature positively influences CQ.

The third hypothesis, *prudence* will be positively related to both MCCQ and BCQ, was based on the argument that individuals high in *prudence* will question their own cultural assumptions, based on their strategic and planning capabilities, using these abilities to make necessary behavioural modifications during intercultural interactions. In other words, if an individual high in *prudence* is being strategically challenged due to the need for managing cross cultural differences and eager to act upon this challenge, he or she will increase their MCCQ and BCQ. The results from this study did not support this, which raises important questions since previous research (Ang et al., 2006; Lee and Sukoco, 2007; Tufekci and Dinc, 2014) confirmed a significant relationship with MCQ, although these studies used the terms conscientiousness from the five-factor model. The lack of support for these findings also contrasts research from Nel et al. (2015) who, next to MCCQ, also found a significant association with BCQ based on their argument that individuals high in consciousness or *prudence* have the ability to comply with unfamiliar norms and values, which is an important element of BCQ.

The results of the regression analysis did not support the fourth hypothesis, which stated that *adjustment* will be positively related to BCQ. The argument behind this hypothesis is that individuals with high levels of *adjustment* are composed and well equipped to cope with stress. As a result, they are more flexible to apply different behaviours required for cross-cultural encounters. These results are consistent with previous research (Ang et al., 2006; Nel et al., 2015; Tufekci and Dinc, 2014). A possible explanation for this is provided by Ang et al. (2006), who philosophize that individuals who remain calm and even-tempered might refrain from showing appropriate behaviours in cross-cultural situations, being more observant than responsive.

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The last hypothesis related to the "bright-side" of personality, expected *inquisitive* to be positively related to both CCQ and MCQ. The background for this hypothesis is the argument that those who are highly *inquisitive* should display higher levels of MCQ, due to their curious and tolerant nature, and read cultural clues appropriately, due to their intellect, to accumulate knowledge of foreign cultures. The results indicated a statistically significant relationship with CCQ, but only at the 10% significance level. Additionally, the expected relationship with MCQ was not supported. These are interesting findings which contradict other scholars (Ang et al., 2006; Harrison, 2012; Moody, 2007; Oolders et al., 2008; Presbitero, 2016), who found openness to experience a crucial personality trait for developing CQ.

The next hypothesis claims that *imaginative* is negatively correlated to BCQ. The reasoning for this assumption is that people high on this scale lack awareness of the impact of their behaviour and, therefore, lack ability to show behavioural flexibility during intercultural encounters as argued by Hogan et al. (2009). Contrary to the expectation, the findings indicate a significant (at the 10% significance level) positive association with BCQ. A possible explanation for this result of the regression analyses could be that individuals high on the *imaginative* scale capture the interest of people from other cultures during interactions, due to their bright, innovative and insightful qualities. The fact that they are considered careless and indifferent about how their actions affect people from other cultures could support them in pro-actively engaging in cross-cultural settings and displaying these strong characteristics might affect BCQ positively.

The seventh hypothesis specified that individuals high on the *reserved* scale show significantly lower levels of CCQ and MCQ, which is not supported by the data. The argument for this assumption is that highly *reserved* individuals lack social sensitivity and motivation to sense the desires and feelings of others, which will hamper them in acquiring knowledge of other cultures (Nelson and Hogan, 2009). However, the idea that they are not strong communicators and have a preference for working in isolation (Hogan et al.,

2009), does not necessarily imply their inability to build cultural knowledge. A possible explanation could be that highly *reserved* individuals enjoy science (Hogan et al., 2009) and this might be a way for them to build cultural knowledge instead of building it during intercultural interactions. The findings also indicate a positive, although not statistically significant, relationship with MCQ, contrary to the expectation, which was built on the argument that highly *reserved* individuals do not like meeting new people or working together with others (Nelson and Hogan, 2009). It has been argued that a *reserved* personality trait is a sign of success within the Asian culture (Chen et al., 1999), which might not necessarily indicate a lack of motivation towards other cultures. This indicates an interesting direction for future research, which might lead to further explanations for this unexpected research finding.

The "dark-side" trait *leisurely* was negatively correlated to all four dimensions of CQ as hypothesized. These results underpin the argument that individuals who score high on the *leisurely* scale are not motivated to cooperate with others or to adjust their behaviour if the situation requires this, as during intercultural interactions. They lack awareness to challenge their own cultural assumptions, which will negatively impact their ability to develop mental capabilities like MCCQ and CCQ.

Perhaps one of the most interesting findings was the outcome of the regression analysis on the personality trait *sceptical,* supporting hypothesis 9. The positive correlation with all four dimensions of CQ confirms the arguments of several scholars that certain personality disorders might lead to success in the working environment (Board and Fritzon, 2005; Bollaert and Petit, 2010; Furnham et al., 2012; Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006). Being argumentative and critical implies that highly *sceptical* individuals do not take things for granted (Nelson and Hogan, 2009). They will ask insightful questions and this perceptive nature will support them in acquiring cross cultural knowledge and using their intellect to make sense of this knowledge in a strategic manner (Hogan, 2009). Their cynical approach makes them

alert and perceptive and intrinsically driven to understand the motives and intentions of others, which supports them in adjusting their behaviour in cross-cultural settings.

The regression analyses indicated a significant positive correlation of international experience with all factors of CQ except BCQ. The results confirm that international experience can influence mental components of CQ as indicated by several scholars (Engle and Crowne, 2014; Moon et al., 2012; Şahin et al., 2014; Tay et al., 2008). It is argued, and confirmed in this study, that international experience provides more opportunities to obtain cultural knowledge and develop meta-cognitive strategies (Tay et al., 2008). Additionally, the results also support the relationship between international experience and MCQ, which confirms previous research (e.g. Eisenberg et al., 2013; Shannon and Begley, 2008; Tarique and Takeuchi, 2008). A conceivable explanation could be that the requirement to function daily in a different culture creates motivation to learn about this culture (Engle and Crowne, 2014). These results increase the likelihood that an individual with previous international experience will be successful; however, the fact that BCQ did not increase is important to note, since it contrasts with the expectation and several previous studies (Eisenberg et al., 2013; Engle and Crowne, 2014; Morrell et al., 2013; Şahin et al., 2014). A possible explanation for this could be that individuals are conscious of cultural differences, but choose not to adjust their behaviour to accommodate these differences (Gooden et al., 2017), since BCQ is different from the other elements of CQ. According to Engle and Nash (2015), BCQ has to do with actions and behaviours of people, whereas the other dimensions are related to the mind.

Contrary to the hypothesis, international experience does not moderate the relationship between *interpersonal sensitivity* and MCQ. This study provided empirical evidence that *interpersonal sensitivity* has a significant positive relationship with MCQ. However, the results also show that this relationship becomes insignificant if the individual has international experience, which is

an interesting but unexpected finding. Perhaps individuals high on *interpersonal sensitivity* are initially more alert to preserving their social position in new cross-cultural situations, and therefore put a lot of effort into building effective relationships. However, once these situations become the new reality (as with living in another country), they might put less effort into enhancing these relationships, since they are established within a new hierarchy. This might also explain why the results do not support the expectation that international experience moderates the relationship between *interpersonal sensitivity* and BCQ, since it was assumed that individuals high in *interpersonal sensitivity* make proper modifications to their behaviour in order to initiate, build, and maintain effective relationships with locals during their international experience.

The next hypothesis claimed that international experience reinforces the relationship between *sociability* and MCQ, which is supported by the results. Individuals who are outgoing actively seek opportunities for cross-cultural engagements, which will increase their motivational CQ as shown in this study. The opportunity of international experience will further enhance this relationship. It was also expected that a prolonged period abroad would produce a higher level of CCQ with people high in *sociability*, due to their desire to interact with others and the opportunity to gain cross cultural knowledge. This argument was built on the idea that CQ can be learned through experience (Harrison, 2012), but the data did not support this expectation. Interestingly, the outgoing nature of individual's high on sociability provides them higher levels of MCCQ and MCQ, but living abroad does not necessarily increases their level of CCQ.

Lastly, it was expected that international experience moderates the relationship between *leisurely* and MCQ and CCQ. Whilst it was confirmed that international experience enhances the correlation between *leisurely* and CCQ, this relationship turned out to be negative and, therefore, international experience did not have a positive effect on an individual's CCQ as expected. Furthermore, the moderating relationship of international experience between

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leisurely and MCQ was not supported by the research data. Being exposed to other cultures, through international experience, provides individuals the opportunity to adapt; however, individuals high on the *leisurely* scale do not grasp this opportunity.

6.3 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

All research has limitations (McGrath et al., 1982) and the present study is no exception. It is important that the findings from the current study are interpreted in the context of several boundary conditions, since they provide important and interesting directions for future research.

First, the sample size of the current study was relatively small (N=197) and therefore the results need to be treated with caution. In addition, this study focused only on employees at managerial level from one company operating in Asia. While it was purposely decided to study specifically within the Asian context, it also raises the concern of generalizability of the research findings. Therefore, future research could replicate this research design across a broad spectrum of organizational settings both in- and outside of the Asian geography and across a range of job levels taking, for example, both the industry context and managerial level into consideration.

Furthermore, personality was measured through both the HPI and HDS, and the objective of this study was to investigate several hypothesized relationships between dimensions of CQ and "bright" and "dark" side personality traits, based on evolutionary personality theory. The findings indicated several inconsistencies with previous research on "bright-side" personality traits. An possible explanation for the reason of some of these contradictions in hypotheses 3,4 and 5 is that most research used a measurement based on the "big five" factor model whilst this study utilized the Hogan personality inventory, which incorporates seven scales closely related to the five factor model as indicated previously. Future research should address these contradictory findings using different measurements based on the "big five" model.

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Nevertheless, the research findings also showed a significant amount of additional empirical evidence for the relationship between certain "bright" personality traits and dimensions of CQ, which is in contrast with research from Bartel-Radic and Giannelloni (2017), who argue that personality traits have little effect on cognitive abilities that support individuals to adapt to cultural differences.

Overall, the findings underline the role of personality traits on CQ, but also indicates the complexity of personality research. This study is the first to investigate "dark-side" personality traits in relation to CQ and, clearly, more research is warranted. For example, Furnham (2014) has proposed a relationship between these "bright" and "dark" side personality traits, based on the spectrum hypotheses claiming that extreme scores on normal personality are an indicator of mental illness, resulting in attempts of several scholars to integrate "bright" and "dark" sided personality traits (Markon et al., 2005; Widiger and Trull, 1997; Widiger et al., 2002). Future research should investigate the impact of "dark-side" traits on the relationship between the "bright-side" personality traits and CQ, which could provide additional insights into the relationship of personality and CQ. It also needs mentioning that the results from both the HPI and HDS were provided only at scale level, which imposes an inherent limitation.

As indicated in the literature review, there have been several studies investigating the relationship between dimensions of CQ and international experience. These research findings have been inconsistent, which, to a certain degree, also holds true for this study. Whilst the results indicated a significant relationship between three dimensions of CQ, the expected relationship between BCQ and international experience was not confirmed. In this study, subjects were asked if they had lived abroad; however, the duration of their international experience was neither quantified nor specified. It could well be that international experience has an element of time (Takeuchi et al., 2005), which impacts levels of CQ. In addition, there may be other important factors that can potentially contribute to an individual's level

of CQ. For example, several studies (Chen et al., 2010; Hemmasi and Downes, 2013; Salgado and Bastida, 2017) have indicated that cultural distance, defined as the difference between countries in terms of values, norms and beliefs (Shenkar, 2001), is one of the most influential factors with regards to the cross-cultural effectiveness of individuals. Therefore, in future studies, it is recommended to consider other factors, such as time spend abroad and cultural distance, to demonstrate incremental explanatory power of CQ in order to develop a more holistic model for predicting CQ.

Earley and Ang (2003) described CQ as a malleable capability that may change, based on cross-cultural exposure. The findings from this study confirmed their description, suggesting that individuals who are exposed to an international environment may have the opportunity to develop their CQ. However, it is important to note that several expected moderating hypotheses were not confirmed and, whilst this is an important research finding, this clearly warrants more research. Furthermore, this study did not have a longitudinal research design and, therefore, it is possible that some variables are related in different ways. Future research should, therefore, investigate if the confirmed direct and moderating effects of international experience holds in a longitudinal research design, to exclude the possibility of causal bias.

Additionally, the use of self-measured questionnaires has inherent weaknesses and may increase the problem of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003), leading to inflated correlations (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). Still, most research in the field of social science measures intelligence and personality through self-reported questionnaires and the use of the CQS and Hogan measurements has been widely validated, utilised and accepted, as shown in the literature review. Additionally, some researchers argue that well-developed, self-report questionnaires are resistant to the problem of common method bias (Lindell and Whitney, 2001; Spector, 1994; Spector, 2006) or that criticism is overstated (Crampton and Wagner, 1994). Common method bias is probably an issue if the different variables are highly correlated (Papadatou et al., 1994; Vest et al., 1994),

which is not the case in this study. In addition, common method bias makes it more challenging to identify interaction effects through statistical means (Şahin et al., 2014; Siemsen et al., 2010). Given the fact that significant moderating relationships were found in this study, common method bias should not be a concern in this study. Lastly, the data from the personality assessments (both HPI and HDS) and CQS were collected in different points of time which also indicates that common bias is probably less of an issue in this study. Nevertheless, it needs to be noted that several studies specified the challenges for individuals to correctly assess their own ability (Brackett and Mayer, 2003; Williams et al., 1989) and, more specifically, their ability to interact cross-culturally (Pritchard and Skinner, 2002). According to Thomas (2006), there is a possibility that individuals inflate their own cultural intelligence, since they might be unable to assess an ability that they may not possess. Also, previous research has indicated that assessment of personality by observers can be a more accurate predictor than self-assessment (Mount et al., 1994), although the Hogan measure of personality does not necessarily contain value judgements. Therefore, this methodological challenge should be addressed in future research through collecting data from a range of measurement instruments (e.g., peer assessments, 360-degree evaluations) to provide converging evidence for these research findings, since "the most effective data-collection strategy is the one that uses multiple measures and multiple methods of data-collection" (Lee and Templer, 2003, p. 208).

Lastly, the research subjects were guaranteed that their answers would be treated in complete confidentiality; however, anonymity was not possible. In the online survey, the participants were asked to provide their name in order to match their responses with the Hogan data which had been collected previously. It is difficult to predict if this may have affected the accuracy of their answers, but given that the CQ questionnaire did not include sensitive information, it is assumed that this did not influence the participants' responses.

6.4 CONTRIBUTIONS TO THEORY AND PRACTICE

Notwithstanding its limitations, this study has several implications for theory and practice in the field of cross-cultural management, which are worthwhile to explore and could guide professionals, both practitioners and scholars, in their support or efforts to raise the intercultural competence of individuals and organizations. The findings of this study allow organizations to reflect on their Human Resources practices and identify areas for reflection, improvement or adaptation, since there are numerous areas in which a better understanding of what leads to higher levels of CQ have a positive impact on organizations.

Individuals who are effective and sensitive towards other cultures can support organizations to increase their business in the global marketplace, which is increasing rapidly as mentioned in the introductory chapter. Therefore, it might be vital for organizations to consider the level of cultural intelligence of their workforce. Considering the fact that it becomes increasingly challenging to find highly qualified staff, it is important that Human Resources policies are adapted to recruiting, developing, rewarding and retaining employees who are most likely to support the future success of organizations. Previous research has provided empirical evidence that CQ has a positive effect on performance (e.g. Ang et al., 2007; Groves and Feyerherm, 2011; Lee et al., 2013) and organizations that are culturally intelligent are likely to perform better (Stening, 2006). Therefore, individuals should be selected for their CQ, but organizations should not rely only on CQ as an evaluation tool.

This study has also shown that previous international experience and certain personality traits influence an individual's CQ. As a result, organizations should put more emphasis on selecting individuals with prior international experience for roles that are influenced by their cross-cultural nature. Furthermore, since the findings of this study provide support for the direct effect of certain personality traits on certain dimensions of CQ, organizations should consider personality assessments as part of their selection process.

In conclusion, it is important for HRM practitioners to rely on a broad range of assessment tools when selecting people for cross-cultural careers.

The results of this study are not only important for evaluating candidates and employees for cross-cultural roles and responsibilities, but also have an impact on training and development practices. Given the importance of international experience, organizations might foster developing their employees through projects in multi-cultural teams or even expatriation to develop a culturally more intelligent workforce. It is a common practice for organizations to select individuals for expat assignments based on their technical capabilities (Black and Porter, 1991). However, a personality and CQ assessment before an expatriation assignment may indicate a requirement for additional training which could enhance the effectiveness of the international assignment and prevent frustration, ineffectiveness, or even outflow of highly qualified employees. As CQ is a malleable capability that can be developed, HRD professionals can provide CQ training to their employees to increase their awareness and knowledge about other cultures in order to prepare them or enhance their effectiveness regarding cross-cultural encounters. These perspectives and research findings indicate the importance for HRM professionals to include cross-cultural experiences in their development curriculum and educational programs.

From a theoretical perspective, the finding that international experience is related to higher levels of CQ in three dimensions (except BCQ) provides support to theoretical models, implying the importance of international experience in developing CQ (e.g. Engle and Crowne, 2014; Shannon and Begley, 2008; Tarique and Takeuchi, 2008). Additionally, the research findings are consistent with the formulation of theoretical models that propose the effect of certain personality characteristics on CQ and the influence of possible moderators. The present study extends the findings from previous studies for two reasons: First, it provides empirical evidence that international experience moderates the relationship between *sociability* and MCQ, and between *leisurely* and CCQ. Second, this study has also shown that certain

"dark-side" personality traits can have either a positive (*sceptical*) or negative (*leisurely*) relationship with CQ. These findings might explain why prior research regarding the direct effects of personality traits on CQ has shown inconsistent results; the study, therefore, contributes to the accumulating literature on CQ, providing new insights and asking important questions for future research.

6.5 CONCLUSION

Global business expansion leads to ever greater engagement with other cultures and, therefore, the need for people who are culturally intelligent and effective across cultural boundaries, which will create competitive advantages and bring success to organizations (Ramalu et al., 2010).

Effective interactions across cultures requires accommodation between norms, values and standards which may be very different compared to an individual's home culture. The concept of CQ refers to an individual's capability to make such accommodations and, hence, to operate effectively cross-culturally. This study set out to assess the ways in which an individual's personality characteristics influence their CQ and the direct and indirect effects of international experience.

This study adds to the rapidly increasing literature on CQ for which previous research has shown conflicting results. The present study hoped to examine some of the discrepancies and by expanding the literature on personality traits and CQ by adding so called "dark-side" traits, demonstrating that a numbers of these traits correlate significantly to elements of CQ. Additionally this study also adds to the body of research on CQ by examining the moderating role of international experience on the relationship between certain personality traits and dimensions of CQ.

The results provided support for several of the hypothesized predictive relationships between certain personality traits and CQ and, to some extent, the influence of international experience. However, some of the expected

relationship were not proven to be significant by the data or even indicated an opposite pattern. The results indicate, yet again, what a complex set of features makes up an individual's ability to manage effectively cross culturally.

Findings from the results of the factor analyses validate the four factor model of CQ and confirmed the predictive role of certain personality traits. This applies not only to "bright-side" traits, such as *international sensitivity* (significantly related to MCQ), but also to "dark-side" traits such as *sceptical* (significantly correlated to all elements of CQ). The role of "dark-side" traits indicates an area for future research to provide additional empirical evidence in relation to this novel findings and to expand it to other traits and contexts. Personality has been a subject of research for quite some time and findings suggest that it is difficult to understand individuals due to the complex nature and the physical attributes of individuals that differ substantially (Yeke and Semerciöz, 2016). Nevertheless, for practice it indicates the value which may be associated with the use of personality assessments in resourcing and for development purposes, if these assessments can provide insights at traits shown to be associated with higher levels of CQ.

Previous research has provided indications that international experience has a significant effect on all four dimensions of CQ (e.g. Crowne, 2008; Shannon and Begley, 2008; Tay, 2008; Moon et al., 2010), however results are inconsistent, which is also highlighted by this study showing empirical evidence of international experience on all aspects of CQ with the exception of BCQ. From this study it appears that international experience increases the capability to recognize and understand cultural differences, but not necessarily to adapt behaviour accordingly. It is recommended that future research investigates and addresses these inconsistencies further including providing clarity on the concept of international experience, possibly using length of time abroad and by specifying the nature of the international experience, rather than simply the number of countries lived in.

Regarding the moderator variables, most predicated relationships were not confirmed with the exception of the moderating effect of international experience on sociability and MCQ, and the moderating effect of international experience on the relationship between leisurely and CCQ. These findings indicate that the moderating role of international experience was not as comprehensive as expected which raises important questions for future research.

The overall contribution of this study has been to influence the understanding of CQ by building empirical evidence, indicating areas for further research, but also providing implications for practice. Highlighting the relationship of certain personality traits on dimensions of CQ and explaining the direct and indirect effects of international experience will support organizations with new insights which could support them in selecting and developing individuals for effective cross-cultural interactions.

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APPENDIX 1: cultural intelligence scale (CQS)

<u>Meta-Cognitive CQ:</u>

MC1   I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.

MC2   I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.

MC3   I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.

MC4   I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.

<u>Cognitive CQ:</u>

COG1   I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.

COG2   I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.

COG3   I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.

COG4   I know the marriage systems of other cultures.

COG5	I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.

COG6	I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviours in other cultures.

Motivational CQ:

MOT1	I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.

MOT2	I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.

MOT3	I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.

MOT4	I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.

MOT5	I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.

Behavioural CQ:

BEH1	I change my verbal behaviour (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

BEH2	I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.

BEH3	I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
BEH4	I change my non-verbal behaviour when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.
BEH5	I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it

APPENDIX 2: E-mail invitation to research subjects

Dear XXX,

As you have been selected as a Hogan participant in the past, I would like to invite you to participate in a questionnaire on cross-cultural effectiveness. This questionnaire is part of my doctorate research which aims to study the behaviours of individuals when dealing with cross-cultural interactions. I believe your input to this questionnaire is invaluable to investigate any possible correlations between personality traits, international experience and cross-cultural effectiveness.

To get access to the questionnaire, please click to this URL: https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/WVDKFND

Participating by filling in the questionnaire will take less than 10 minutes of your time

I wish to highlight that your input will not lead back to you individually or anybody else or have any influence regarding your career at Prudential Corporation Asia. Information provided in this questionnaire will be treated as confidential and your personal demographic information provided will be solely used as an identifier to track changes on your experience.

If you have any questions, please feel free to reach out to me anytime.

I sincerely appreciate you taking 10 minutes of your time supporting me in my doctorate research.

Thank you so much for volunteering and I look forward to your participation to this questionnaire.

Richard Martinus