Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies

2015

The Effect of Nationality Differences on the Emotional Intelligence of Leaders

Hossein Reza Nikoui

Walden University

Walden University

College of Management and Technology

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Hossein Nikoui

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Robert Levasseur, Committee Chairperson, Management Faculty
Dr. David Banner, Committee Member, Management Faculty
Dr. Salvatore Sinatra, University Reviewer, Management Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2015

Abstract

The Effect of Nationality Differences on the Emotional Intelligence of Leaders

by

Hossein Reza Nikoui

MSBA, Madonna University, 1998

MEng, University of Toronto, 1983

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Management

Walden University

August 2015

Abstract

Previous studies related to manager effectiveness and organizational culture have determined that emotional intelligence (EI) is a critical predictor of intercultural adjustment and business success. However, few investigators have examined the relationship between EI and nationality differences. In today's globalized business environment, such understanding is crucial to the development of more effective leadership programs for international workers. This quantitative study explored the degrees to which the EI of organizational managers varied across nationalities. A theoretical framework, provided by several theories related to personality, leadership, and types of intelligence, created a lens through which to analyze study results. The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire–Short Form was used to gather data on EI from a random sample of over 200 company leaders. At least 40 participants from each of 5 countries—Canada, Mexico, Slovakia, Turkey, and the United States—were included. The research question was tested using analysis of variance to determine any role of nationality in the EI of company leaders. Findings suggested there was no relationship between nationality and EI. This study contributed to the leadership field by indicating direction for future research. Results suggested that a more effective leadership training model may emphasize cultural factors, rather than nationality. It may also be important to consider how required leadership skills differ between domestic and international employees. A revised model may serve as a guide in the development of tools for educators, trainers, and students working in the modern business world.

The Effect of Nationality Differences on the Emotional Intelligence of Leaders

by

Hossein Reza Nikoui

MSBA, Madonna University, 1998

MEng, University of Toronto, 1983

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Management

Walden University

August 2015

Dedication

I dedicate this work to my mother, Monireh J. Nikoui, who was always my best supporter and who wanted me to earn my Doctorate degree. I also dedicate it to my father, G. Reza Nikoui, who shaped my thoughts and behaviors in life and who always believed that the pursuit of knowledge is compulsory and not optional.

Acknowledgments

I owe a debt of gratitude for this dissertation to Robert Levasseur, PhD, my
mentor and dissertation committee chair, who gave me unwavering support and
encouragement throughout the program. My deep gratitude also goes to my committee
members for their constructive feedback and invaluable advice. Many regards to those
professionals who took time from their busy schedules to take the survey and be part of
this research study.

I would not have been able to complete this work without the support of all those
around me. First, my wife and best friend, Niki Nikoui, who kept telling me that I could
do this. Second, my daughter, Neda, and my son, Amir, without whose patience,
understanding, and most of all love, the completion of this dissertation would not have
been possible.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Globalization and the increasingly international nature of business have changed the face of leadership. Getting people in concert from a broad range of backgrounds creates remarkable opportunities for organizations, as well as some challenges. Organizations can benefit from the new viewpoints and potential that diversity brings if they are able to unite people with a common set of values and goals (Shipper, Kincaid, Rotondo, & Hoffman, 2003). If not, the result is misalignment and organizational inefficiencies as people move in different directions based on their individual backgrounds.

For leaders seeking ways to manage a diverse workforce, the ability to balance different cultural perspectives within the context of a clear vision and a set of operating goals and initiatives is critical (Ilangovan, Scroggins, & Rozell, 2007). Companies around the world continue to investigate ways to enhance their global leadership. While global growth does not guarantee success, it can certainly result in failure if not managed correctly. Organization leaders have several business considerations to make when seeking global expansion; however, a factor that often goes unnoticed is the development of multicultural leadership. Not only is multicultural leadership a necessity, but it requires direct planning, education, and infrastructure changes to ensure that the proper leaders are identified, developed, and prepared for success as much as possible (Javidan & House, 2001).

Background

In the past, leaders often surrounded themselves with people who had similar viewpoints (Adler, 2002). However, this can prevent the development of new ideas and visions. One of the great advantages of diversity is that problems can be examined from a variety of perspectives. To accomplish this, managers have to encourage participation and really listen to what people have to say in order to make the most of such opportunities. Increased managerial involvement is currently needed to ensure that all parties agree and that all voices are heard (Gregersen, Morrison, & Black, 1998).

The concept of leadership is changing because antiquated leadership methods may be ineffective in future situations. By capitalizing on the excitement, willingness, and capabilities of people from diverse backgrounds, leaders may be able to affect their organizations, communities, and individuals from all walks of life (Larsen, Rosenbloom, Anderson, & Mehta, 1999). Strong, innovative leadership is critical to effective management during such rapidly changing business conditions.

To ensure businesses have the leaders needed for future success, organizations must adjust their succession planning and leadership development efforts to impart executives with the skills and experiences required for the new order. In the short term, organizations also may consider recruiting executives from outside industries to add valuable expertise.

Managers must understand the significance of emotional intelligence (EI) and consider differences in the EI profiles of employees with different cultural backgrounds

(Reilly & Karounos, 2009). This study addressed a gap in the literature on the effect that culture and nationality have on EI.

Problem Statement

Future business success and global profitability rely heavily on the quality of multinational corporate leadership (Reilly & Karounos, 2009). Multinational organizations require skilled managers and employees in order to be efficient in global operations. Because the culture of a country greatly affects the conduct of companies and the people within an organization (Reilly & Karounos, 2009), EI is believed to be critical to international business success (Kelley & Caplan, 1993). The general business problem is that many businesses are not adequately prepared to compete in a globalized market that requires cross cultural communication and sensitivity. The specific business problem is that leaders often lack EI, which is affected by cultural differences and may have a profound impact on the abilities of business leaders (Shipper et al., 2003).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate the effects of nationality differences on the EI of managers of 10 companies in five countries, including Canada, Mexico, Slovakia, Turkey, and the United States. The independent variable was defined as nationality. The dependent variable was defined as EI. The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire–Short Form (TEIQue-SF; Petrides & Furnham, 2004) was used to gather data on EI from a random sample of 200 company leaders. An analysis of

variance (ANOVA) was employed to determine any effects that nationality differences had on the EI of company leaders.

The focus of this study was the cross-cultural relevancy of EI and its implications for the management of culturally related EI differences among diverse workforces. Findings may assist organizational leaders and other stakeholders with designing and implementing effective leadership development programs. Findings from this research also extended the existing body of literature, added to the theoretical knowledge in the field of EI and nationality, and set the direction for additional studies.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The following research question guided this research:

RQ1: What is the effect of nationality differences on the EI of leaders in multinational companies?

The hypotheses related to this research question were as follows:

$H_0$1: Nationality differences do not affect the EI of leaders in multinational corporations.

H_a1: Nationality differences do affect the EI of leaders in multinational corporations.

Theoretical Framework for the Study

Global corporations and their leaders operate in an increasingly interconnected business environment. For example, global flows of investment have more than tripled, and investment in developing countries grew six-fold during the 1990s (Javidan &

House, 2001), and this trend has only expanded during the 2000s. Thus, many important business opportunities of the 21st century exist outside of countries where businesses are headquartered (Larsen, Rosenbloom, Anderson, & Mehta, 1999). Furthermore, as business becomes more globalized, cultural differences are of increasing importance. Overseas business success and profitability rely heavily on the quality of effective multinational corporate leadership (Adler, 2002). However, according to the results of a three-year study completed by Gregersen et al. (1998), 85% of U.S Fortune 500 firms did not think they had an adequate number of global leaders to sustain multinational operations.

According to Ilangovan, Scroggins, and Rozell (2007), additional research is needed to: (a) identify the effects of culture on EI; (b) discover additional cultural factors that might influence EI levels; (c) modify EI scales based on the nationality; and (d) find a standard to measure and compare them. The current study was based on these recommended directions. In addition, Reilly and Karounos (2009) stated that further examination of the social skill component of EI would be beneficial, especially with an increased sample size from large companies.

Nature of the Study

Because subjects were studied at a single point in time, a cross-sectional research design was employed. The survey method included a questionnaire that I e-mailed to each participant. This preexisting questionnaire was developed with considerations of the

design, wording, form, order of questions, content, and layout. The questionnaire was translated into the local language of each country selected for study.

The five countries selected for this study included Canada, Mexico, Slovakia, Turkey, and the United States. An EI survey was sent to each chosen general manager and his or her direct reports—including personnel responsible for heads of operation, manufacturing, engineering, purchasing, quality control, program management, maintenance, processing, human resources, and finance—in 10 companies within the five selected countries. Only those who were native to each respective country of study were eligible to complete the EI survey. The measured constructs included nationality and EI. The independent variable was nationality, and the dependent variable was EI. General managers and their direct reports all completed the EI survey.

The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Short Form (TEIQue-SF; Petrides & Furnham, 2004) was used to measure leaders' trait EI. Petrides, Pita, and Kokkinaki (2007), defined *trait EI* as "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies" (p. 287). Many researchers have attested to the TEIQue's incremental validity in that respect (Petrides & Furnham, 2003; Petrides, Pérez-González, & Furnam, 2007) and across a variety of populations and settings (Mavroveli, Petrides, Shove, & Whitehead, 2008). Researchers have criticized the validity of many standard EI instruments due to self-assessment techniques. However, trait EI inherently acknowledges the subjectivity of personality measures, which may make measures of trait EI more reliable than EI (Petrides et al., 2007). This means the

TEIQue may better measure the construct it purports to than other EI instruments, thereby supporting my decision to measure trait EI with the TEIQue-SF.

Definitions

A few terms are integral to this research. They are defined as follows.

Cognitive ability: The mental process of knowing, including aspects such as awareness, perception, reasoning, and judgment (Goleman, 1995).

Emotional intelligence (EI): The ability to identify, assess, and control the emotions of oneself, of others, and of groups (Goleman, 1995).

Leadership: "The exercise of influence by one member of a group or organization over other members to help the group or organization achieve its goals" (George & Jones, 2005, p. 375).

Personality: "The enduring patterns of thought, feeling, motivation, and behavior that are expressed in different circumstances" (Westen, 1999, p. 530).

Succession planning: A process for identifying and developing internal people with the potential to fill key business leadership positions in the company (et al., 1998).

Assumptions

In this study, the following assumptions were necessary to ensure the reliability of findings.

- The variations of personality traits, social status, prior knowledge, and cognitive intelligence were evenly distributed in the sample.

- All participants responded to the questions in the survey instruments with honesty, integrity, and without the assistance of others.

- Some participants achieved leadership success for a variety of reasons, unrelated to their EI.

- Differences related to mood, fatigue, attention span, situational factors, and method of administration did not noticeably affect the data provided by participants.

- The research instrument used in the study was valid and provided reliable data.

- No other factors contributed to the relationships between nationality and EI.

Scope and Delimitations

For this quantitative study, participants were required to meet qualifications for leaders in multinational corporations and be native to one of the five selected countries. All participants were employed in some dimension of manufacturing operations, such as general manager, head of operations, manufacturing, engineering, purchasing, quality, program management, maintenance, processing, human resources, and finance. As such, generalizations from this study apply primarily to leaders in multinational corporations.

Limitations

This study had a few inherent limitations, including the following:

- Participants' biases were unknown and could not be addressed by the survey questions.

- Participants were not matched according to personality, social status, prior knowledge, and general knowledge levels. These variables are confounds that may have affected study results.

Significance

The results of this research were significant, although data analysis indicated that nationality did not appear to affect trait EI. However, this was the first study that compared EI and nationality, and it was limited by the nationalities of the sample and the assessment inventory that was used. This study contributed to the leadership field by indicating direction for future research. A revised model may serve as a guide in the development of tools for educators, trainers, and students working within the modern business world. By incorporating these findings in leadership development programs, future leaders may be more successful in international business, relocation, and assignments.

Summary

Numerous business exchanges during the 21st century will take place outside of companies' home countries. As business becomes more globalized, cultural differences between workers are increasingly noticeable. Consequently, business success and profitability overseas will rely heavily on the quality of effective multinational corporate leadership (Reilly & Karounos, 2009). Multinational organizations require a group of skilled managers and employees to be efficient in their global operations. One aptitude

that has received increased attention that researchers believe to be important to worker effectiveness is that of EI (Kelley & Caplan, 1993).

According to Reilly and Karounos (2009), the culture of a country greatly affects the conduct of companies and the people within the company. Additionally, a country's cultural characteristics play a significant role in shaping management and leadership styles. Effective global leaders must be aware of cultural diversity and take advantage of integrating different culture and leadership styles to maximize its benefits (Reilly & Karounos, 2009). Leadership abilities are grouped into three categories: technical, cognitive, and EI. Effective leaders demonstrate five components of EI: motivation, self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, and social talent (Reilly & Karounos, 2009).

My goal for this study was to investigate the relationship between EI and cultural differences in manufacturing environments. In Chapter 1, an overview of the study, including the theoretical support for the current research, was presented. Evidence from the literature validated the need for a correlational investigation into leaders' EI and culture. In addition, I developed a research question to guide the investigation. The literature review in Chapter 2 will enhance understanding of the concepts presented in Chapter 1. Among other things, research presented in the literature review clarifies the effect of culture on the EI of leaders.

In Chapter 3, I discuss the methodology. This chapter includes details and justification for the study's design, research question, population, sampling procedures, data collection, data analysis procedures, and a detailed overview of the survey

instruments. Chapter 4 includes a presentation of data collected and a synopsis of the

research results. The research question and hypotheses are answered, which provides

guidance for the information provided in Chapter 5. The last chapter includes

conclusions, suggestions for future research, and implications for positive social change.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

As the effects of globalization continue to permeate every crevice of the industrialized world, cross-cultural communication skills are more important than ever. The incredible speed of technological progress has made the world a much smaller place, bridging communication across oceans with the click of a button. Telephone calls, text messages, video conferences, and e-mail have opened the doors to radical changes in the conduct of international business, and the expansion of travel options has made it easier than ever to conduct face-to-face meetings with people of other cultures. While such advances are exciting in terms of global business opportunities, partnerships, international politics, and charity work, these increased communication opportunities with people of other cultures also introduce risks of miscommunication and cultural slip-ups.

Anyone who works in an international or cross-cultural context must develop appropriate communication skills. During the 21st century's era of globalization, major concerns have been raised about improving the competencies—such as emotional skills and intercultural communication—of leaders working in multicultural and international environments (Tang, Yin, & Nelson, 2010). Studies have indicated strong relationships between leadership effectiveness and EI, which can be critical to the success and adjustment of leaders, employees, and organizations (Boehnke et al., 2003; George, 2000; House et al., 2004; Tang et al., 2010).

Understanding the relationship between nationality and EI may shed light on cultural variations in leadership styles, which could provide valuable data for organizations and leaders who conduct any type of international communication. Deepening the comprehension of cultural differences in perceptions, organizational goals, and leadership styles may improve leader communication, help parties reach compromise, or accomplish common goals. Such information may also provide leaders with the tools to guide employees in cross-cultural communication and help them adapt to different business cultures.

This literature review consists of an analysis of existing research on EI as it relates to cultural differences. My aim is to unveil previous research deficiencies on the cultural variations of EI of leaders. It begins with a discussion of the theoretical frameworks used to analyze personality, cultural traits, and leadership. A review of the current literature on different intelligences is presented, including general, cultural, social, and EI. A discussion follows on the interplay of EI and cultural intelligence (CI), as well as prior research on the correlations between leadership and EI. Finally, some of the challenges of cross-cultural research are acknowledged, including measurement and validity issues.

As Avolio (2009) noted, researchers have made significant progress in the arena of cross-cultural leadership, but many gaps still exist. The current study aimed to address the need for further studies that utilize in-depth, statistical analysis to examine the unique aspects of global leadership and the competencies that affect it. This literature review

uncovers those gaps to validate the utility of the current research, in response to Avolio's (2009) call for future direction.

Search Strategy

Research for this literature review involved online database searches through the Walden University Library. These databases included Academic OneFile, Academic Search Complete, ERIC, InfoTrac, JSTOR, Sage Journals, and FirstSearch. I employed a variety of search terms, including *emotional intelligence, leadership, cultural differences, nationality, organizational culture, multicultural leadership*, and *intercultural leadership*. This chapter contains a discussion of peer-reviewed journals and seminal literature in these areas. I also purchased and borrowed pertinent scholarly books and other resources from the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor, Walden University Library, and public libraries.

Theoretical Framework

Several important theoretical frameworks are discussed throughout this review, as the topic of EI and leadership brings with it a wealth of theories pertaining to the broader categories of personality, leadership, and types of intelligence—each encompassing important ideas that must be reviewed to understand the scope of the current study. The personality theories that are addressed include Goldberg's (1990) *Big Five,* Eysenck's (1994) *Giant Three,* and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI; Myers, 1962). Cultural traits are examined in the context of Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions and the GLOBE project (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Culture theories

from Schein (2010) and Kotter (1998) are also discussed. Leadership, a central focus of the proposed research, is examined in light of transformational leadership traits (Bass, 1985, 1998) because of the style's purported universal appeal. I also explore leadership theories from Hersey-Blanchard (1969) and Fiedler (1964). Finally, a look at theories on social intelligence (Thorndike & Stein, 1937) and cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003) set the theoretical stage for a discussion on EI.

EI models conceived by Goleman (1995) and Salovey and Mayer (1990), are distinguished from the trait EI model that Petrides et al. (2007) developed in response to criticisms regarding inherent issues with EI measurement. An analysis of studies utilizing the TEIQue (Petrides & Furnham, 2001) provided a conceptual lens through which to view the current research (Andrei, Mancini, Trombini, Baldaro, & Russo, 2014; Gökçen, Furnham, Mavroveli, & Petrides, 2014; Mavroveli et al., 2008). An analysis of the interplay between EI and leadership is also presented (Côté, Lopez, Salovey, & Miners, 2010; Sayeed & Shanker, 2009; Tang et al., 2010; Walter, Cole, & Humphrey, 2011).

Personality

Personality plays a substantial role in leadership styles, capabilities (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002), and cross-cultural communication skills (Smith, 2011). The Big Five (Goldberg, 1990) is a popular, universally accepted model of personality constructs. Goldberg's (1990) model built on the work of Cattell (1947), who divided personality into 16 categorical factors. According to Goldberg, however, almost all facets of an individual's personality fall into five categories, rather than 16. Goldberg believed that

language and personality were intertwined and that all-important traits were encoded in language (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Using this hypothesis, Goldberg analyzed the personality trait lexicon to identify traits embedded in natural language. Through 10 separate analyses, he was able to group 75 clusters of 1,431 trait adjectives into the five factor model (FFM; Goldberg & Rosolack, 1994), which included neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. These traits, according to Goldberg, provided the basic building blocks of personality and the theoretical basis for extensive personality research.

Goldberg's (1990) FFM of neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness is particularly important for research pertaining to cross-cultural communication (McCrae & Costa, 1997). However, because over 4,000 human languages exist, Goldberg's lexical approach to trait identification can be difficult, as "finding the exact equivalent for a single word in another language is often impossible" (McCrae & Costa, 1997, p. 510). McCrae and Costa (1997) assessed the cross-cultural generalizability of the FFM using translations of the Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO PI-R), a questionnaire that provides a standardized measure of the traits. The researchers translated the NEO PI-R into six distinct languages and compared results with the American factor structure. Close replication of the American factor model led McCrae and Costa to conclude that the FFM was generalizable across cultures and that personality traits appeared to be universal.

McCrae and Terracciano (2005) further tested the universality of the FFM in a noteworthy study on the cultural variations of personality traits. The researchers instructed 11,985 college students from 50 different cultures to identify an adult man or woman whom they knew well. Each person filled out the revised NEO Personality Inventory on the participant he or she knew. The inventory used a 5-point Likert scale to rate each of the five basic personality factors of neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Analysis revealed replication of a normative American self-report structure in most cultures, and most of the personality features appeared common across different cultural groups. Gender differences in perception were evident, with women tending to give more positive assessments of others than men did. However, differences in perceptions of age within neuroticism and agreeableness factors varied by culture, leading McCrae and Terracciano to wonder why perceived sex differences in personality traits were "consistently attenuated in traditional cultures whereas perceived age differences" (p. 559) were not.

Another commonly used model of personality is Eysenck's (1994) *Giant Three*, which categorizes the dimensions of personality as extroversion, neuroticism, and psychotism. Costa and McCrae (1995) argued that Eysenck's factor of psychotism was merely a blend of the agreeableness and conscientiousness factors found in the FFM. Measurement of Giant Three traits utilizes the Personality Questionnaire for adults (EPQ-R). While the FFM's NEO PI-R was standardized in the United States, the EPQ was standardized in England. However, several studies have demonstrated the cross-country

validity of the EPQ (Barrett & Eysenck, 1984; Barrett, Petrides, Eysenck, & Eysenck, 1998; Scholte & De Bruyn, 2004). For example, Barrett et al. (1998) investigated the universality of Eysenck's three factors using gender-specific data in 34 countries, and results demonstrated replicability across all 34 countries.

Finally, Myers-Briggs (Myers, 1962) created one of the most widely-used personality assessments, which is based on Jung's (1926) theory that variations in human behavior are the result of basic differences in the ways individuals approach life. This tool, the MBTI (Myers, 1962), was developed from psychological type theory, which presupposes that people operate within their preferred modes. These modes include introversion (I), extroversion (E), sensing (S), intuition (N), thinking (T), feeling (F), judging (J), and perceiving (P) (Gardner & Martinko, 1996). These factors combine to create 16 distinct personality types. MBTI scoring utilizes self-assessment and is based on the determination between the habitual opposites of each of the four indexes (I/E, S/N, T/F, and J/P) (Carlynn, 1977).

The introversion/extroversion scale was designed to measure preferred social orientation. Those who are extraverted are more oriented to the outer world, while introverted types have a more inward orientation and tend to detach themselves from the world around them. The index for sensing and intuition was designed to measure ways of perceiving things. People who are sensing types tend to focus on perceptions they receive directly through sensory information. Intuitive types, on the other hand, perceive based on a "hunch from the unconscious" (Carlynn, 1977, p. 461). The index for thinking and

feeling was developed to gauge individuals' orientations for decision-making. Those who are thinking oriented rely on logic and are able to organize information objectively, while people who are feeling types analyze their impressions based on personal value judgments. Finally, the judging/perceiving index gauges the ways people deal with the world around them. Those who are judging oriented tend to live in planned, orderly, and controlled ways, whole perceivers are more apt to be curious, spontaneous, and flexible.

The MBTI is based on the self-evaluation of personality constructs, so there is no direct way to assess the integrity of the data produced (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Gardner and Martiko (1996) explained, "Because respondents engage in higher-order cognitions such as inferences about themselves, the data are fairly abstract and it is difficult to ascertain their accuracy" (p. 51). Thus, efforts to validate the MBTI have produced mixed results (Gardner & Martinko, 1996).

Cultural Traits

In addition to individual personality differences, variations in cultural traits can have a significant effect on leadership. "Behaviors in one particular culture may not have the same psychological significance in another culture" (Migliore, 2011, p. 42). Many researchers investigated variations in cultural traits and their influence on inter- and intra-cultural social exchanges. Two of the leading studies on cross-cultural traits are Hofstede's five cultural dimensions and the GLOBE project.

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

Hofstede's research utilized a multinational, company-wide study of IBM, which analyzed cultural differences in employee values (Hofstede, 2001). Hofstede investigated the cultural data of employees in over 40 countries. The database provided significant information on cultural statistics and allowed him to eliminate variables related to differences in company culture. He discovered clear patterns that formed "the framework for five cultural dimensions of work-related values at the national level" (Migliore, 2011, p. 41).

The cultural dimensions that Hofstede (2001) discovered included individualism-collectivism, power distance, masculinity-femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and time orientation. Because the psychological significance of behaviors related to each of these dimensions can vary between cultures, it is critical for leaders—and anyone engaging in cross-cultural communication—to understand that "the inter-relational aspect of personality and culture will vary among individuals within a culture" (Migliore, 2011, p. 42). Societies with strong subcultures related to ethnicity or geography may have a different set of cultural traits apart from the dominant culture, which can interfere with the validity of Hofstede's dimensions.

The GLOBE Project

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) program expanded upon Hofstede's (2001) Big 5. The GLOBE project was a major cross-cultural research project involving

data collected from 17,000 managers in 951 organizations between 1994 and 1997

(Hofstede, 2006). From this, Hofstede (2006) distinguished the following nine

dimensions of culture: (a) power distance, (b) uncertainty avoidance, (c) gender

egalitarianism, (d) assertiveness, (e) masculinity-femininity, (f) future orientation, (g)

long-term orientation, (h) in-group collectivism, (i) institutional collectivism, (j)

individualism-collectivism, (k) humane orientation, and (l) performance orientation

(Tang et al., 2010). These dimensions represent important differences that can affect

cross-cultural communication and leadership. Many past studies related to culture,

communication, leadership, and personality drew data from the GLOBE project (Herrera,

Duncan, Green, Ree, & Skaggs, 2011; Mensah, 2014; Ott-Holland, Huang, Ryan,

Elizondo, & Wadlington, 2013).

Additional Culture Theories

Schein's (2010) theory of organizational culture and leadership is another

prominent theory on culture. According to Schein, learning, development, and change

cannot occur within an organization unless culture is acknowledged as the primary

resistance to such change. He posited that leaders must become conscious of the cultures

within which they operate, or cultures will overrule leadership and management.

Schein categorized three levels of organizational culture to include artifacts,

espoused values, and basic underlying assumptions. Artifacts are visual aspects that are

easy to recognize, but hard to understand; espoused values include strategies,

philosophies, and goals; and underlying assumptions describe unconscious beliefs,

perceptions, feelings, and thoughts that are often taken for granted. According to Schein, it is possible to assess such elements of culture, but not culture as a whole. Accordingly, an iterative approach should be used to inquire about organizational culture.

Kotter (2008) is another prominent researcher in the field of organizational culture and management. According to him, business success and culture hinge on an organization's ability to adapt to change. Business initiatives, changes in technology, and project development require businesses to adapt in order to stay ahead of the competition. This is accomplished through the creation of a culture of change that is directed by effective leaders. According to Kotter, eight steps are integral to creating effective changes within an organization's culture, including: (a) creating a sense of urgency; (b) forming powerful coalitions; (c) creating a vision of change; (d) communicating the change vision to workers; (e) removing barriers to change; (f) creating short-term targets; (g) building upon changes; and (h) rooting all changes in corporate culture.

Kotter (1998) also noted that while management is integral to instituting cultural changes, there is a difference between management and leadership. Management is concerned with helping organizations cope with practices and procedures, while leadership is concerned with helping organizations adapt to change. Kotter explained:

> Faster technological change, greater international competition, the deregulation of markets, overcapacity in capital-intensive industries, an unstable oil cartel, raiders with junk bonds, and the changing demographics of the work force are among the many factors that have contributed to this shift. The net result is that doing what

was done yesterday, or doing it 5% better, is no longer a formula for success.

Major changes are more and more necessary to survive and compete effectively in

this new environment. More change always demands more leadership (p. 40).

As Kotter (1998) pointed out, leadership is integral to any type of business success. The

next section of this chapter focuses on the characteristics of effective leadership.

Leadership Styles

According to Tang et al. (2010), researchers have attempted to understand

whether leadership behaviors are culturally specific or universal -- and whether

universally desirable leadership traits even exist. Many of these studies employed

Hofstede's (2001) FFM and utilized information from the GLOBE project. Three of the

most researched leadership styles presented throughout the literature include

transformational, transactional (contingent reward), and laissez-faire. Transformational

leadership was most applicable to the current study because of its demonstrated

likelihood as an effective leadership tool across cultures. Accordingly, transformational

leadership is highlighted in this review.

Transformational leadership (Bass, 1985, 1998) is a style in which a leader

presents himself as a role model by gaining follower trust and confidence. As explained

by Eagley, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003), transformational leaders:

… state future goals and develop plans to achieve them. Skeptical of the status

quo, they innovate, even when the organization that they lead is generally

successful. By mentoring and empowering their followers, transformational

leaders encourage them to develop their full potential and thereby to contribute more capably to their organization (p. 571).

Some researchers have posited that transformational leadership has universal cultural acceptance as a preferred and effective leadership method. For example, Boehnke, Bontis, DiStefano, and DiStefano (2003) conducted a study among senior executives of a global corporation to determine if leadership behaviors were universal or specific to the cultures of organizations and countries. Researchers administered Bass and Avolio's (1990) multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) to 55 participants, whose country affiliations were clustered as follows: America, Northern Europe, Southern Europe, Latin America, Far East, and The Commonwealth (which included Canada, Great Britain, and Australia).

According to the results of the study by Boehnke et al. (2013), "transformational leadership represented the clear majority of behaviors identified in the executives' descriptions of exceptional organizational performance" (p. 8). Specifically, transformational leadership behaviors of visioning, intellectual stimulation, team-building, coaching, and inspiring were expressed by the majority of participants as desirable leadership traits. According to the authors, "These differences provide useful clues for expatriate managers working in the regions cited above, especially if they have been sent to lead significant organizational improvements" (p. 9). Although transformational behaviors seemed to be strongly preferred across cultures, the authors

noted that leaders should still adjust their leadership behaviors according to local norms and customs.

According to Tang et al. (2010), the GLOBE program findings suggested that several characteristics of transformational leadership can be generalized across 61 cultures. These traits include foresight, encouraging, communicative, trustworthy, dynamic, positive, confidence builder, and motivational. Further discussion of this study, in the context of leadership practices and intelligence, appears later in this chapter.

Situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) is another important theory related to organizational leadership. The main idea behind the situational leadership theory is that there is no single ideal way to lead an organization; rather, leadership effectiveness depends on the types of tasks involved and a leader's ability to adapt to the maturity of the group he or she leads. The amount of emphasis a leader places on the tasks and relationships with those he or she leads depends on requirements for organizational goals. Leadership styles are categorized into four types: telling (S1), selling (S2), participating (S3), and delegating (S4). Similarly, the maturity levels of the group are broken into four types: M1 (immature), M2 (able to work on a task but lack the skills to accomplish it alone), M3 (more skill than M2 but lack the confidence to complete tasks independently), and M4 (able to work independently and have high levels of skill and confidence in their abilities).

Fiedler's (1964) contingency model of leadership is similar to situational leadership in that it calls for the adaptation of leadership to the needs of a situation, based

on leadership style and situational favorableness. Leadership style is assessed using the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) scale. Individuals who score low on the scale are more task-oriented and skilled at organizing groups and completing tasks. These individuals are less relationship oriented than individuals who score high on the LPC. High LPC leaders focus on relationships and are skilled at avoiding and resolving conflict. Situational favorableness for the contingency model is dependent on the following three factors: leader-member relations (the level of trust a group has in a leader); task structure (the type of task being completed); and a leader's position power (the amount of power a leader has over a group) (Fiedler, 1964). According to the contingency model of leadership, once a leader understands his leadership style, an individual can better match personal strengths to leadership situations where he or she is most effective.

Types of Intelligence

Often, leadership is linked with intelligence because the latter is traditionally viewed as an ability-based quality. Such ability is essentially a measure of cognitive or verbal intelligence, gauged through traditional intelligence quotient (IQ) tests. As Riggio (2010) explained:

Common wisdom suggests that intelligence, what is more clearly termed *academic* or *verbal* intelligence, should predict both emergence into positions of leadership (smart people are selected as leaders or figure out how to become leaders) and leadership effectiveness (smart people are better at determining strategy and solving complex problems) (p.1).

However, Colfax, Rivera, and Perez (2010) pointed out the problem with this rationale:

> One's capacity for cognitive aptitude was considered by many to be an assurance of success. However, there was a problem with this notion. A simple scan of any social group or organizational setting paints a different picture. The fact is that not all people who have a high IQ are successful. Similarly, not all those who are successful have high IQ's (p. 93).

This is to say that cognitively intelligent leaders are not successful by default. While a relationship exists between the concepts of intelligence and leadership effectiveness, it may not be as strong as expected (Riggio, 2010). For example, Judge, Ilies, and Colbert (2004) conducted a meta-analysis of 151 samples to test the correlation between intelligence, leadership emergence, and perceptions of effectiveness. While the researchers did find a positive correlation between leadership and intelligence across the studies they examined, they concluded that the strength of the correlation was not large.

Riggio (2010) suggested that the reason for the loose association between verbal intelligence and leadership emergence might be that other forms of intelligence, such as social intelligence and EI, are more critical to effective leadership. In fact, while the traditional view of intelligence is based on IQ-type reasoning, many different theories on intelligence exist. For example, Howard Gardner's (1993) theory of multiple intelligences posits that there are nine different types of intelligence, including spatial, intra-personal, linguistic, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, existential, logical-mathematical, musical, and naturalist. Alternatively, Sternberg (1985) theorized that intelligence was triangulated

to include analytical, creative, and practical intelligences. For the purposes of this study,

the examination of intelligence was limited to the following three forms: social,

emotional, and cultural. Figure 1 summarizes these three types of intelligence.

Type of Intelligence	Author(s)	Summary
Social Intelligence	Marlowe (1986); Thorndike & Stein (1937); Riggio (2010); Walker & Foley (1973)	The ability to understand others thoughts, feelings, and behaviors, and to respond to them appropriately in social situations.
Emotional Intelligence	Goleman (1995); Salovey & Mayer (1990);	The ability to understand, use, and, manage one's emotions, in addition to the ability to perceive and respond to others'
Cultural Intelligence	Earley & Ang (2003); Rockstuhl et al. (2011)	The ability to perceive and exhibit sensitivity to others and function in culturally diverse environments.

Figure 1. Types of intelligence.

Social Intelligence

First conceived by Thorndike and Stein (1937), social intelligence was an early

attempt to define intelligence beyond general intelligence. However, as Riggio (2010)

explained, some degree of overlap between academic and social intelligence was

expected since both involved high levels of cognitive processing. During the early 1900s,

interest in social behavior grew and researchers developed many tests to gain a greater

understanding of the aspects of individual behaviors within a society. The definition of

social intelligence evolved over the decades, but no single defining theory emerged.

Because so many aspects of social behavior exist, researchers have focused on specific components, such as perception and empathy (Riggio, 2010), rather than broad analysis. For example, Walker and Foley (1973) defined social intelligence as the ability to understand others and respond to social situations with wisdom, while Marlowe (1986) argued that it described the ability to understand the feelings, behaviors, and thoughts of others and oneself, and to act appropriately based on those understandings.

In terms of leadership abilities, various aspects of social intelligence may be fundamental. According to Sternberg (1985), *tacit intelligence*—that which is not explicitly taught—is critical to effective leadership in many ways. Riggio (2010) explained:

> …the tacit knowledge to be a successful political leader involves understanding the political machinations of the legislative body; recognizing how to manage, influence, and be appropriately responsive to constituents; and knowing the general leadership/management strategies o how to get things done (p. 5).

Riggio (2010) further posited that different types of leaders may require different types of tacit knowledge. For example, the leadership needs of non-profits, federal, and corporate sectors are all distinct from one another. Zaccaro (2002), on the other hand, argued that the most important aspect of social intelligence for leadership is perceptiveness. According to Zaccaro, leaders need to be able to perceive the needs of different organizations, problems, or individuals, and possess the abilities to respond quickly and

appropriately. Regardless of the perspective employed, social intelligence appears

strongly related to effective leadership (Riggio, 2010).

Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, and Cole (2003) found that the need for social

intelligence becomes increasingly important as individuals ascend to positions of greater

leadership responsibilities. Zaccaro (2002) also noted that leadership complexities

increase at higher levels, and that greater levels of social intelligence may be required as

one climbs through the leadership ranks of an organization. In an attempt to gain a better

understanding of different tenets of more abstract types of intelligence, researchers

developed theories on EI and CI from the concepts of social intelligence.

EI

As noted by Boehnke et al. (2003), some cultural differences in leadership styles

and preferences exist; however, research supports the relationship between leaders'

abilities to connect with followers on an emotional level and their leadership efficacy

across cultures (Boehnke et al., 2003; House et al., 2004; Tang et al., 2010). The ability

to recognize the emotional responses of others and to evaluate and manage one's own

emotional reactions is important in virtually all leadership situations (George, 2000).

These capabilities represent measures of one's EI, which "refers to the ability to perceive,

use, understand, and manage emotions" (Riggio, 2010, p. 2). Two dominant models of EI

exist: an ability-based model developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990), and a trait-based

model developed by Goleman (1995).

Ability-Based EI

Salovey and Mayer (1990) conceptualized EI as a type of social intelligence that allows individuals to monitor their own emotional status in conjunction with the emotions of others, and to use this information to guide behavior and thinking. According to this model, EI involves the following four skillsets: (a) managing emotions in order to accomplish set goals; (b) understanding emotions; (c) using emotions to guide thinking; and (d) possessing the ability to accurately perceive and interpret emotions of oneself and others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The assessment of ability-based EI commonly employs the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000).

Mixed-Model EI

Conversely, Goleman (1995) posited that EI refers to the ability to self-motivate despite frustrations, delay gratification, control impulses, and regulate moods. As per Goleman, EI "consists of tenacity, strong interpersonal skills and self-management, which can all influence one's ability to achieve success" (as cited in Moon, 2010, p. 877). The mixed-model approach to EI includes the following elements: emotional skill/competence; personality characteristics such as empathy, self-esteem, optimism, and tolerance to stress; and interpersonal skills (Riggio, 2010, p. 3). Figure 2 presents a comparison between EI and trait EI.

EI	Trait EI
"Ability to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions" (Riggio, 2010, p. 2). Two models of EI exist: ability-based (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and trait-based (Goleman, 1995).	Focused on emotions and subjective perceptions; better aligned with self-reporting measures because it accounts for the subjective natures of emotions. Trait EI refers to the "constellation of behavioral dispositions and self-perceptions concerning one's ability to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions in the self and others" (Kong, Zhao, & You, 2012, p. 461).

Figure 2. EI vs. Trait EI

Boyatzis (2009) built on Goleman's definition of EI by integrating aspects of competency. The researcher stated that EI was the ability to recognize, understand, and utilize personal emotional information to maximize performance. For Boyatzis, EI was a competency, not an ability. Boyatzis framed EI in emotional and social intelligence competencies (ESQ) because even if an individual possesses EI, they may not necessarily employ it as needed (Emmerling & Boyatzis, 2012).

EI and International Business

Because of the boom in globalization, increased business opportunities will occur across national boundaries, requiring more organizational leaders to operate in cross-cultural and international environments than ever before. While advances in communication technology and travel have increased the possibilities of cross-border business operations, cultural differences between groups have not necessarily changed

(Reilly & Karounos, 2009). Global leadership requires a special set of skills, including cultural awareness and effective communication strategies. In light of globalization, the need for leaders who possess such skills is ever growing. However, according to a study by Gregersen et al. (1998), only a fraction of U.S. Fortune 500 firms believed they had an adequate force of global leaders to support the needs of multinational operations.

As discussed earlier, some studies suggest that transformational leadership traits are universally desirable; however, the perception and enactment of those traits are not necessarily the same across cultures. Cultural norms and customs may drive transformational leadership traits, impacting the use and effects of such traits across cultures (Reilly & Karounos, 2009). In addition, EI measures may not directly translate across cultures, due to cultural influences on individuals' attitudes and beliefs (Hofstede, 2001; Shipper et al., 2003).

Acknowledging these possible discrepancies, Reilly and Karounos (2009) conducted an exploratory study to test whether familiarity with a country's culture and the incorporation of EI could help leaders achieve desired results within organizations. To test the link between EI and cross-cultural leadership, researchers surveyed 27 managers from the following culture clusters: Anglo, Latin European, Eastern European, and Southern Asian. The respondents were asked, via survey questions, to rate the importance of the following skills for leaders in international settings: technical skills, cognitive abilities, and EI. Participants were also asked to rate the importance of EI traits, such as social skills and self-awareness.

All managers sampled in Reilly and Karounos' (2009) study reported that they considered EI to be very important. Much of the data from this study mirrored results reported in the GLOBE project (House et al., 2004). For example, when asked to choose the most important characteristics for an international manager, participants most often selected transformational, visionary, team skills, and social skills —which paralleled the GLOBE results that support the universality of transformational leadership traits as most favorable (Reilly & Karounos, 2009). While the researchers were unable to identify a conclusive link between EI and the effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership, their results did support prior research that emphasized the value of EI in relation to general leadership. However, the inability to draw a solid connection between cross-cultural leadership and EI may have been due to the study's limited sample size. For this reason, Reilly and Karounos called for future research that included a broader sample from a variety of corporations to investigate potential parallels.

Shipper et al. (2003) also investigated the potential relationship between EI and leadership in different cultural settings. Researchers hypothesized that managers who exhibited high levels of EI would have more successful units, reasoning that "managers who can regulate their own emotions, read others' emotions, effectively communicate, and resolve conflict in a positive way not only display high EI, but also facilitate high performance in their organizations" (Shipper & Kincaid, 2003, p. 174). The study included 5,985 managerial employees of a large, multi-national corporation. Participants resided in the U.S., the U.K., and Malaysia. Shipper et al. reported that managerial EI

appeared to correlate with unit success. Greater self-awareness may help managers understand their own weaknesses, allowing them to help the group reach common goals. This level of self-awareness among managers is likely to offset subordinate's negative emotions and anxieties by improving motivation and relationship management (Shipper & Kincaid, 2003).

As more individuals accept jobs overseas, cross-cultural competence and adjustment becomes increasingly important. Military members have long experienced such transitions, but because of the changing international business landscape and globalization, more civilians now relocate to other countries for work. This has caused researchers to pay more attention to cross-cultural management factors related to the adaptation and success among people working internationally (Shemueli & Dolan, 2011).

In light of the need for better understanding on the role of EI in successful international postings or assignments, Shemueli and Dolan (2011) conducted an empirical study of 172 individuals placed on work assignments that required overseas relocation. Researchers utilized the EQ-I in Spanish (Ugarriza, 2001) and English (Bar-On, 2002) to measure EI, which assessed the following five factors: intrapersonal abilities, interpersonal abilities, adaptability, stress management, and general state of mind. They researchers measured cross-cultural adjustment using the following: (a) Black and Stephen's (1989) adjustment scale for expatriates; (b) cultural distance with Schwartz's (1994) scale; and (c) perceived organizational support using a scale created by Hutchison (1997).

Sheumueli and Dolan (2011) discussed the findings, which validated the substantial role that EI plays in cross-cultural adjustment:

As predicted, EI was related overall to work, interaction and non-work cross-cultural adjustment, even after demographics, job and organizational and contextual variables had been controlled for. The results are consistent with those in the research literature on the critical contribution of emotions to feeling more at ease in cross-cultural contexts, which, in turn, may lead to an effective and positive adjustment (p. 218).

The authors further noted EI's potential utility in hiring and selection processes for international assignments, due to the value that strong EI skills play in cross-cultural encounters. Sheumueli and Dolan (2011) recommended the use of EI evaluation methods, tests, and skills training to improve the success of employees on international assignment.

While high levels of EI are critical to success when working abroad, domestic workers can also benefit from improving these skills. Consequently, business schools have begun to focus on improving the EI of students. A globalized workforce means that even if workers are not posted overseas, they may still benefit from improved intercultural communication skills. For many, intercultural communication prompts a degree of apprehension because of differences in cultural norms, attitudes, and communication styles. Interacting with people of diverse cultures can cause anxiety over potential miscommunication, known as intercultural communication apprehension (ICA; Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997).

Because EI can promote social adaptability and reduce anxiety (Vera, 2008), Fall,

Kelly, MacDonald, Primm, and Holmes (2013) conducted empirical research on the

relationship between EI and ICA to determine if EI could add value to academic business

curriculum by helping future business professionals improve their abilities to

communicate across cultures. A total of 425 U.S. undergraduate students completed a

survey that included the following measures: (a) ICA was assessed with Neuliep and

McCroskey's (1997) Personal Report of the Intercultural Communication Apprehension

measure, and (b) EI was assessed with Petrides and Furnham's (2004) TEIQue-SF.

Researchers hypothesized that EI would predict the apprehensiveness associated with

intercultural communication. The results indicated that EI was a significant predictor of

ICA in terms of self-control, emotionality, and sociability:

> The implication of this finding is that individuals with higher emotional
>
> intelligence may be able to mitigate apprehension caused by intercultural
>
> communication. Essentially, individuals with higher emotional intelligence, who
>
> are more capable of reading the moods and needs of others, may be adaptable to
>
> avoid the physical and physiological effects of communication apprehension.
>
> (Fall et al., 2013, p. 420)

Fall et al. (2013) concluded with strong recommendations for higher education business

curriculum to integrate EI to help students become more culturally competent.

EI and Leadership

Because leadership is naturally laden with emotion, emotion is a critical component to effective leadership. As Walter et al. (2011) explained, a leader who can identify and understand the emotions of others is more likely to understand subordinates' needs and develop appropriate emotional responses to them. Some researchers have argued that EI is an essential component of effective leadership (Goleman, 1998), while others have argued against its validity by claiming it is not a true measure of intelligence and citing a lack of related empirical evidence (Antonakis et al., 2009; Locke, 2005).

In response to the criticism surrounding EI and leadership, Walter et al. (2011) reviewed relevant empirical research on the role of EI in leadership emergence, behavior, and effectiveness. The researchers divided the available body of literature into streams based on three slightly different conceptual definitions of EI. The first stream included research that utilized an ability-based definition of EI and measured "interrelated abilities for effectively dealing with one's own and others' emotions" (p. 46). The second stream also used an ability-based definition, but relied on self-assessments of emotional behavior. Finally, the third stream utilized definitions of EI based on a variety of perceptions and competencies related to emotion management.

In terms of the connection between EI and leadership emergence, the degree to which an individual is perceived as a leader by others or exerts influence over them, Walter et al. (2011) found only one relevant study that applied the first stream (Côté et al., 2010). The remaining studies utilized stream 2, but all studies supported the notion that individuals with greater EI are more likely to become leaders. Evaluation of the

literature on EI and leadership behaviors indicated a focus on transformational leadership, much of which demonstrated a strong link between EI and transformational behaviors. While Walter et al. (2011) noted the likelihood that EI was an antecedent of transformational leadership behavior, the researchers also suggested that the relationship was likely to hinge on other conditions and mechanisms.

Walter et al. (2011) also examined the connection between EI and leader effectiveness. Studies that utilized streams 1 and 2 indicated positive associations between EI and effective leadership. Researchers concluded with a call for empirical research that involved greater methodological rigor with more complete theoretical models, and which explored new areas of leadership and EI.

Research conducted by Tang, Yin, and Nelson (2010) offered insight into the connection between EI and transformational leadership reported by Walter et al. (2011). Tang et al. investigated cross-cultural differences in the EI of academic leaders and leadership practices between Taiwanese and U.S. educational leaders. One of the researchers' goals was to investigate whether EI was a predictor of leadership across cultures. Specifically, Tang et al. explored whether leadership behaviors are culturally specific or universal, and whether transformational leadership is a universally preferred and effective leadership method.

To investigate these questions, Tang et al. (2010) selected U.S. and Taiwanese leaders for the study because of the distinct cultural differences between the two groups–namely, the differences in individual-collectivism dimensions. Asian cultures tend to

emphasize both institutional and in-group collectivism, "group harmony, cohesion and cooperation, emphasizing groups over individuals, displaying high commitment, pride in and loyalty to organizations" (Tang et al, 2010, p. 906). U.S. culture, on the other hand, places more emphasis on individualism and the pursuit of personal goals, without strong obligation to the group.

Tang et al. (2010) used the Leadership Practice Inventory-Self (LPI-Self) and Nelson and Low's Emotional Skills Assessment Process (ESAP) to assess leaders' self-perception of leadership practices and EI. Tang et al. noted significant cultural differences between the two groups. For example, Taiwanese leaders were more likely to emphasize maintenance of the status quo, loyalty, organizational commitment, and morality. U.S. participants, on the other hand, utilized direct and confrontational communication and emphasized individual responsibilities. Despite these differences, a strong correlation existed between EI and overall leadership. The researchers found that

> ….despite differences between the two comparison cultures, emotional intelligence was perceived as an underlying competency for effective academic leadership in both cultures. In order to lead effectively, high emotional intelligence is required to leverage a sense of self awareness to manage their own emotions and those of others, and to lead in accordance with the cultural expectations of their organizations (p. 918).

Sayeed and Shanker (2009) also explored the links between EI and transformational leadership among a sample of organizations in West India. Researchers

created an EI scale using frameworks provided by Goleman (1998), Mayer, Salovey and

Caruso (2000), and Bar-On (2000). They also pooled 50 items from the Multiple

Leadership Questionnaire (Bass, 1985) to measure transformational leadership

dimensions, such as idealized attributes and behaviors, inspirational motivation,

intellectual stimulation, and individual considerations. This multivariate framework

allowed researchers to confirm EI's influence on maximizing superior-subordinate

interactions as well as leader traits, such as managing emotions and impulsions, self-

acceptance, problem-solving, self-awareness, self-confidence, and empathy. Particularly

strong correlations between EI and inventory items that indicated functional management

abilities further substantiated the relationship between EI and transformational leadership

in effective management.

Not all researchers have been able to link EI and transformational leadership. For

example, Grunes, Gudmundsson, and Irmer (2013) investigated EI as a predictor of

transformational leadership in Australian educational institutions to determine if EI

accounted for unexplained variances in transformational leadership. Researchers

conducted a quantitative, cross-sectional study using survey data. The following

instruments of measurement were utilized: (a) transformational leadership was measured

using the MLQ (Avolio et al., 1995); (b) EI was measured using the MSCEIT (Mayer et

al., 2000); (c) personality factors were measured using The Big Five Inventory (John et

al., 1991) and the Wonderlic Personnel Test-Quicktest (Wonderlic, 2003); and (d)

integrity was measured using the Integrity Express (Vangent, 2002). Contrary to past

studies that reported EI was a predictor of transformational leadership (Coetzee & Schaap, 2005; Leban, 2003), Grunes et al. (2014) were unable to relate any of the branches of EI to transformational leadership. The researchers theorized that this discrepancy might have been due to differences in measurement instruments.

Instilling EI

Because EI appears critical to cross-cultural leadership, and because of the increasing globalization of business and politics, teaching EI skills to emerging leaders is a topic that should interest many organizations. Accordingly, Groves, McEnrue, and Shen (2008) conducted an empirical study on business students to determine if it was possible to instill students with the trait-based EI conceptualized by Mayer and Salovey (1990). The researchers also hoped to gain a better understanding of the active components of effective EI to provide organizations with direction for management and leadership development programs.

The challenge that Groves et al. (2008) faced was delineating trainable EI skills from those related to personality—which were mostly unamenable. For this reason, the researchers chose to take a trait-based view of EI because it had been distinguished from traits, social desirability, and cognitive intelligence. The benefits of trait EI are discussed later in this chapter. Because of low face validity and a lack of items that generated actionable implications, the authors decided to create their own EI measurement tool (EISDI) instead of using the MSCEIT. The instrument included 128 items from the four branches and associated dimensions of the model created by Mayer and Salovey (1990).

Study participants included 535 U.S. college level business students separated into experimental and control groups.

The treatment group participated in a management course that included lectures, class discussions, field research, student presentations, and case analyses for 11 weeks (Groves et al., 2008). According to the researchers, the training was rigorous, and the goal was to enhance participants' understandings of the abilities of Mayer and Salovey's (1990) model while helping them to realize change in at least two of the model's associated elements. The pre- and post-course differences in EI scores for the treatment group indicated significant improvements in all four EI dimensions, while the pre- and post-test differences for the control demonstrated no statistical significance. Based on the EISDI results, Groves et al. (2008) concluded that trait-based EI skills could be instilled and improved through training.

Opponents of EI

EI is not without its critics. In fact, a long list of opponents claim that measures of EI have serious validity issues. Metcalf and Benn (2012) argued that EI involves too many factors that confuse correlations between intelligence and personality. Antonakis (as cited in Antonakis, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2009) posited that the apparent alignment of intelligence and personality with EI is due to the abilities of highly intelligent individuals to perceive the emotions of others and to navigate their own emotional responses accordingly.

While Ashkanasy and Dasborough (as cited in Antonakis, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2009) claimed that the apparent relationship between personality and intelligence was the result of inherent connections between emotions and problem solving, Locke (2005) argued that EI was an invalid concept altogether because its definition was too broad. According to Locke, EI is not a true type of intelligence, such as rationality. Other opponents claim that the field is simply too young and emergent to be considered a valid construct (Law, Wong Huang, & Li, 2008; Roberts, Ziedner, & Matthews, 2008). However, most of the criticism of EI is related to the questionable validity of inventories utilized to measure it (Fiori & Antonakis, 2011; Rossen & Kranzler, 2009; Sungwon, Kluemper, & Sauley, 2011).

EI Inventories

Researchers have developed a variety of EI inventories to measure EI. The content of those instruments vary according to the different conceptualizations of EI (Roberts et al., 2008). Some of the most common EI inventories include the Emotional Quotient Inventory; Emotional Competency Inventory (Boyatzis & Goleman, 2002; Moon, 2010); Nelson and Low's Emotional Skills Assessment Process; EI-I (Bar-On, 2000); MSCEIT (Mayer et al., 2000); DANVA (Wong & Law, 2002); WEIP (Jordan et al., 2002); ECI (Wolff, 2005) and the TEIQue (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). Although a variety of tests is available for EI, two distinct approaches exist: self-report and performance-based.

Self-Report

According to Roberts et al. (2008), the self-report approach required by many EI inventories is problematic for a variety of reasons. First, such assessments are based on an individual's understandings. Accordingly, if a participant's self-perception is inaccurate, the results will be as well. Attempts to deal with this issue have included comparisons between self-assessments and assessments provided by respondents' peers. However, "validation studies of this type appear not to have been conducted with respect to self-report measures of EI" (Roberts et al., 2008, p. 201). Roberts et al. argued that if EI were a legitimate form of intelligence, by default, asking participants to self-assess a form of intelligence would be subject to participant bias. Researchers often report only modest actual associations between self-ratings and actual abilities (Roberts et al., 2008).

Finally, inventories that assess "noncognitive traits" (p. 201) can appear to be measures of personality rather than ability. At that point, confusion over what is actually being assessed—EI or personality—comes into play. For instance, Roberts et al. (2008) posited that the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory was simply a proxy measure of Big Five personality constructs weighted toward neuroticism.

Performance-Based

In an attempt to avoid the aforementioned issues with self-report EI assessments, some researchers have developed performance-based measures that attempt to be more objective (Roberts et al., 2008). These tests measure the ability-based EI theorized by Salovey and Mayer (1990) rather than Goldberg's (1990) trait-based EI, by having

participants solve problems that recognize EI abilities. Two such tests are the MEIS (Mayer et al., 1999) and the MSCEIT (Mayer et al., 2000).

To address issues of objectivity related to scoring EI-related tasks, researchers may employ alternate procedures to determine right and wrong answers on ability-based tests, such as consensus scoring, expert scoring, and target scoring (Roberts et al, 2008). Consensus scoring involves crediting a participant if his or her answers correlate with that of the majority. Expert scoring involves scoring of stimuli by experts in related fields of emotion. Finally, target scoring involves more simplistic matching of a target's emotional portrayal with emotion-rating scales.

Trait EI

Trait EI is a spin-off of EI that is more focused on emotions and subjective perceptions. Trait EI is the "constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies" (Gökçen et al., 2014, p. 30). While EI is concerned with emotion-related cognitive abilities, trait EI is concerned with emotion-related dispositions and perceptions. According to Petrides et al. (2007), the conceptual differences between EI and trait EI are evident in the results of empirical studies, which illustrate low correlations between measures of trait and ability EI. Petrides et al. (2007) argued that trait EI bypasses the operational issues of subjectivity related to measuring EI.

Because trait EI encompasses self-perceptions and dispositions, which are more in line with the subjective nature of emotions, self-reporting measurement instruments are

more appropriate for trait EI than EI. Petrides et al. further suggested that EI should hinge

more on performance-based assessments, similar to IQ tests, than those that utilize self-

measures. The conceptual advantage of trait EI, according to Petrides et al., is that it

integrates with mainstream models of personality, such as the Giant Three and Big Five.

Petrides and his colleagues concluded that, "Trait EI is a useful explanatory variable

because it captures individual differences in affective self-evaluations and organizes them

into a single framework, thus integrating the emotion-related facets that are presently

scattered across basic personality dimensions" (p. 287).

The TEIQue

In response to the self-measure issues with EI tools discussed earlier in this

chapter, Petrides and Furnham (2001) developed the TEIQue, which consists of 153

Likert items organized within 15 facets of the following four factors: well-being, self-

control, emotionality, and sociability. The discriminant validity of trait EI has been

proven vis-à-vis established personality dimensions, including the Big Five and Giant

Three (Freudenthaler et al., 2008), and an increasing number of studies have

substantiated its cross-cultural reliability.

A common criticism of the TEIQue is its lack of incremental validity concerning

the instrument's overlap with basic personality dimensions, even though the construct of

trait EI is believed to be related to higher order personality traits rather than independent

of them, which justifies some overlap (Andrei et al., 2014). Despite criticism that trait EI

is more of a personality or IQ measure, studies have indicated no correlations with ability

EI measures and virtually zero correlations with cognitive abilities, especially when measured via non-verbal IQ assessments (Mavroveli et al., 2008).

Freudenthaler et al. (2008) tested the internal reliability of the TEIQue on a German-speaking sample of participants. They found that all facets demonstrated solid reliability, with the exception of impulsiveness, relationships, and self-motivation. The TEIQue also provided construct and incremental validity in relation to the Big Five and other trait EI scales, such as the SEAS and TEMT. Researchers concluded that the TEIQue was a valid inventory for comprehensively measuring trait EI (Freudenthaler et al., 2008).

Similarly, Andrei et al. (2014) tested the validity of the Italian version of the TEIQue for adolescents (TEIQue-AFF). Because most of the previous tests of the TEIQue's incremental validity utilized adult samples, these researchers tested the validity of the full TEIQue on adolescents. Andrei et al. (2014) reported incremental validity across all constructs and found that trait EI did not appear related to IQ. However, trait EI did appear to be related to higher order personality dimensions, which demonstrated that trait EI was more strongly associated with personality and emotion-related variables than cognitive ones.

Mavroveli et al. (2008) investigated use of the TEIQue with children, with the aim of assessing construct validity, consistency, and stability. The researchers utilized the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Child Form (TEIQue-CF), which was designed for children between the ages of 8 and 12. Mavroveli et al. were unable to

establish a significant relationship between trait EI and verbal intelligence, nor were they able to detect parametric correlations between trait EI and academic achievement. The researchers concluded that the TEIQue-CF was an internally valid and reliable assessment for use with children.

Finally, Gökçen et al. (2014) conducted a study on the cultural differences in trait EI between participants from Hong Kong and the U.K. A total of 185 British participants completed the English version of the TEIQue, and 293 participants from Hong Kong completed the Chinese adaptation of the inventory. After completing factor analysis, researchers confirmed the stability of trait EI across cultures. Gökçen et al. observed significant cultural differences in global trait EI, especially among well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability factors. According to the researchers, these discrepancies supported existing research on the cultural differences between individualist and collectivist societies.

While no tool is flawless, the TEIQue was selected for the current research due to the number of studies that have proven its internal validity across a variety of populations. When compared with the self-assessment criticisms of EI, trait EI seems to offer better reliability because it inherently acknowledges the subjective nature of any measure related to personality. Further, the TEIQue has been subjected to more rigorous examination than other trait EI measures, repeatedly proving its validity and reliability.

CI

CI is another important cross-cultural communication construct mentioned

throughout the literature on EI and leadership. CI is different from EI in that it

specifically relates to leadership and management capabilities in culturally diverse

settings (Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne, & Annen, 2011). CI is conceptually different

from other intelligences because it focuses on culturally relevant capabilities (Moon,

2010). As Rockstuhl et al. explained, "When leaders work in cross-border contexts, the

social problems of leadership are especially complex because cultural background

influences prototypes and schemas about appropriate leadership behaviors" (p. 827).

While researchers have examined the roles of general intelligence and EI in domestic

leadership effectiveness, they have not explicitly dealt with intercultural communication.

In response, Earley and Ang (2003) created a model for cultural intelligence, which they

defined as the ability to function effectively in culturally diverse situations. The

researchers organized CI into the following four facets: metacognitive, cognitive,

motivational, and behavioral (Earley & Ang, 2003). Each of these facets are described, as

follows.

Four Facets of CI

Metacognitive CI describes conscious cultural awareness during interactions with

individuals from other cultures (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). It is associated with an

understanding of the cultural preferences and norms of other cultures during exchanges.

According to Rockstuhl et al., cognitive CI refers to a basic understanding of the norms,

practices, and conventions in different cultures, including universals and characteristics that make cultures distinctly different from one another. Motivational CI describes an individual's ability to learn about how to operate in diverse situations, while behavioral CI refers to the ability to engage in appropriate verbal and non-verbal communication in culturally diverse settings (Rockstuhl et al., 2011).

Rockstuhl et al. (2011) examined the effects of general, emotional, and cultural intelligences on the leadership competencies of Swiss cross-border military leaders. The researchers developed a leadership effectiveness questionnaire and instructed participants to rate their peers' abilities to lead in culturally diverse environments. They also employed the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CIS; Ang et al., 2007) to assess CI, and relied on archival data for participant IQ information. As researchers predicted, IQ was positively associated with leadership effectiveness in cross-border environments. Researchers also found a positive association between EI and general leadership effectiveness, but reported no specific relationship in cross-border environments. Finally, CI was positively associated with cross-border leadership skills, but not general leadership effectiveness (Rockstuhl et al., 2011).

These results of this study, according to the Rockstuhl et al. (2011), may help stakeholders understand predictors of global leader effectiveness and explain why domestic leaders are not always effective in international settings. The researchers concluded:

When leaders work primarily in domestic settings, organizations should place

more emphasis on developing within-culture capabilities, such as EI . . . [and]

when leaders work extensively in international or cross-border settings,

organizations should emphasize development of cross-cultural capabilities, such

as CI" (Rockstuhl et al., 2011, p. 835).

Relationship Between EI and CI

Moon (2010) investigated the relationship between EI and the four facets of CI,

explaining that:

As emotional intelligence functions as a complementary factor of general

cognitive ability (IQ) for effective performance at work and better interpersonal

relationships in this increasingly interdependent world, cultural intelligence is

another complementary form of intelligence that can explain adapting effectively

to culturally diverse settings (p. 879).

Because EI depends on familiarity with a specific context, it is not always an applicable

measure across cultures. Although an individual may demonstrate a high level of EI

within his or her own culture, this intelligence may not predict CI in a foreign setting. For

example, learning the idiosyncrasies of another culture may not demand EI, but it would

require CI. Individuals with high levels of CI may possess EI; however, EI is not always

predictive of CI.

Because EI requires an individual to manage and identify his or her emotions

when interacting with others, it can certainly influence one's ability to communicate with

diverse people (Moon, 2010). Moon tested correlations between EI and CI on a sample of university students in Korea. He employed the CIS to measure CI, and the ECI-U to assess EI. Study results provided empirical evidence of a relationship between CI and EI, especially within the facets of social awareness and relationship management.

CI and Leadership

Groves and Feyerherm (2011) investigated CI through a leadership lens by analyzing the leadership competencies of managers of diverse teams. Their study tested relationships between leader CI and follower perceptions of both leader and team performance on work teams that were culturally diverse. A total of 420 respondents participated in the survey research, which employed the CIS (Ang et al., 2007) and additional measures for performance and diversity. Results indicated that the CI of leaders contributed to the perceptions that ethnically diverse teams had of leader and team performance (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011). These findings helped to explain variance in worker performance that were not attributed to EI. This research may also fill gaps in EI literature by helping to predict cultural adaptation and judgment (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011).

According to Riggio (2010), CI:

…is particularly important for political leaders who have to appeal to their own, often diverse, constituents, as well as work and be effective internationally. Many world leaders today spend a great deal of time learning about and studying cultures so they can avoid costly cultural blunders. (p. 7)

Riggio's assertion supports the earlier discussion on the importance of acknowledging local customs and norms. Failure to adapt to the cultural needs of a group can undermine strong EI and transformational leadership skills. Like EI and transformational leadership, CI requires practice. Most experts agree that the best way to develop CI is through consistent interaction with culturally diverse people (Riggio, 2010). Among the competencies that are crucial to developing CI are openness to learning opportunities, sensitivity to cultural differences, flexibility, insightfulness, openness to criticism, and the ability to bring out the best in others (Riggio, 2010).

Multicultural Leadership

According to Canen and Canen (2008), multiculturalism is a framework that emphasizes diversity, challenges prejudices and stereotypes. A multicultural perspective is crucial for combatting stereotypes so that diversity is an asset, not a liability (Canen & Canen, 2008). Multicultural leadership skills are critical to domestic and international leaders, alike. Failure to display multicultural sensitivity can result in unethical, ethnocentric, or toxic organizational environments. For international business leaders, such attitudes could spell organizational disaster. According to Canen and Canen (2004), *multicultural competence* describes the capability and flexibility to deal with cultural differences through the appreciation of diversity. According to this definition, *multicultural leadership* encompasses the tenets of EI, cultural intelligence, and transformational leadership—all of which are critical to effective cross-cultural and international leadership.

Cultural Effect on Organizations

Culture does not just play a role in inter- and intrapersonal relationships. Leaders in international and cross-cultural environments must also acknowledge the roles that culture plays in the structure and function of corporate culture and organization. For example, Jenkinson and Mayer (1992) distinguished between two categories of corporate ownership structures across different countries. In some countries, such as Germany and France, company ownership is limited to the banks, firms, and families directly involved with an organization. In other countries, including the United States and the United Kingdom, however, ownership is spread among a large group of individual and institutional investors (Jiatao & Harrison, 2008).

According to Jiatao and Harrison (2008), organizations are social entities embedded into a society's value structures. Structural similarities often exist between organizations and the societies within which they reside. This is because individuals from the home society usually form organizations, and people generally prefer organizational structures that are consistent with their cultural norms and perspectives. Thus, organizations usually reflect a culture's societal values, institutional norms, and belief systems (Jiatao & Harrison, 2008).

Jiatao and Harrison (2008) examined the effects of various ownership structures and institutional environments within four of Hofstede's dimensions (2001) of national culture: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, and masculinity/femininity. The researchers reported that power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individual/collectivism, and masculinity/femininity significantly affected the

size and leadership organization of corporations. For example, companies based in countries with high levels of power distance were more likely to have a single leader, while those in countries that emphasized individual freedoms often had smaller boards. These structural discrepancies are important for leaders in any international capacity to take into consideration.

Challenges for Cross-Cultural Research

This literature review would be remiss if it did not acknowledge some of the challenges of cross-cultural research. Emmerling and Boyatzis (2012) highlighted two common issues faced by researchers of cross-cultural, emotional, and social intelligences: (a) the reliability of measurement instruments, and (b) cross-cultural validity. These challenges are discussed as follows.

Researchers must use extra care when employing quantitative measurement instruments in cross-cultural research to make sure they are sensitive to cultural contexts and retain validity across the cultures they seek to assess (Emmerling & Boyatzis, 2012). Differences in the cross-cultural meanings of instrument items can interfere with the validity of a measure, particularly when instruments are translated into other languages. Even when careful translation is used, equivalencies in meanings may vary across cultures. To combat such validity threats, Emmerling and Boyatzis (2012) recommended that researchers compare the meanings of measured constructs for respondents of different cultures before they begin to assess data.

In addition to measurement issues in cross-cultural research, validity is another challenge that researchers must contend with. When a research instrument is adapted to various cultures, its ability to assess the same variables across different cultures may come into question. Navigating these challenges may be better suited to qualitative methodologies; however, in the name of empirically valid and statistically based studies, researchers must carefully consider cultural differences to determine how to modify instruments in a way that poses minimal threats to study validity.

Summary and Conclusions

In response calls for additional empirical research on factors that affect leadership and the effect of culture on EI (Avolio, 2009; Ilangovan, Scroggins, & Rozeh, 2007), the current study addressed some of the existing gaps in the literature. Much research had been conducted on the constructs of personality (Eysenck, 1994; Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1997), the role of personality in leadership (Judge et al., 2002), and cross-cultural communication (Smith, 2011). Hofstede (2001) and other researchers who participated in the GLOBE project (Hofstede, 2006), paved the way for developing understandings of cultural dimensions that can influence leadership and cross-cultural communication.

A variety of intelligence theories have been developed to explain abstract forms of intelligence that may affect domestic and cross-cultural leadership, including social intelligence (Thorndike & Stein, 1937), EI (Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1990), and CI (Earley & Ang, 2003). Of these three, research indicates that EI is heavily related

to leadership abilities (Sayeed & Shanker, 2009; Tang et al., 2010; Walter et al., 2011) and cross-cultural competency (Fall et al., 2013; Shemueli & Dolan, 2011). However, as noted by Petrides et al. (2007), the subjective nature of self-reporting used to measure emotion-related cognitive abilities has the potential to create validity problems. A potential way to bypass this issue is to utilize trait EI measures that may more appropriately utilize self-reporting, since they relies on emotional self-perceptions, which helps account for individual emotions and acknowledges subjectivity more than many EI measures do.

The use of many of the traditional EI measurement instruments, such as the Emotional Competency Inventory (Boyatzis & Goleman, 2002), Nelson and Low's Emotional Skills Assessment Process, and the EI-I (Bar-On, 2000), dominate culture and leadership literature. However, other researchers indicated that the TEIQue, which utilizes trait EI, may provide a more accurate measure of constructs than many of the tools used for EI assessment (Petrides & Furnham, 2003; Petrides et al., 2007). In addition, the TEIQue has undergone rigorous testing across a variety of participant demographics to prove internal validity, making it a valuable and reliable tool for measuring trait EI.

The dearth of empirical research on leadership and culture that utilizes the TEIQue, was one that the current study addressed. The field of EI is still relatively young, and studies related to trait EI and cross-cultural leadership are in fledgling stages. Trait EI is a rising star in the study of EI that requires more rigorous, empirical study.

Accordingly, the current study contributed to the body of literature and existing theoretical foundations, while also adding direction for future research. The wide cultural variations of the countries included in this study (Canada, Mexico, Slovakia, Turkey, and the U.S.) added to the literature on the role of EI in cross-cultural leadership and management. This study was guided by the central research question: What is the effect of nationality differences on the EI of leaders in multinational companies?

The following chapter of this dissertation contains a detailed description of the methodology employed for this research. Chapter 4 includes a presentation of the study results. Finally, an in-depth discussion of the researcher's conclusions and study implications are provided in Chapter 5.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative research was to investigate the effect of

nationality on EI. Companies around the world continue to explore ways to enhance

global leadership in the world's market. Coordinating the efforts of individuals from a

broad range of backgrounds creates remarkable opportunities for organizations; however,

such efforts are not without challenges. Organizations can benefit from the new

viewpoints and potentials that diversity brings if they are able to unite people with a

common set of values and goals (Shipper et al., 2003). The development of multicultural

leadership is a necessity for global expansion; it requires direct planning, education, and

infrastructure changes to ensure that the proper leaders are identified, developed, and

prepared for success as much as possible (Javidan & House, 2001).

The intent of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between

nationality differences and EI scores. The current study assessed the extent of variance on

EI scores by nationality, among leaders from 10 companies located in five different

countries. EI was measured using the TEIQue-SF (Petrides & Furnham, 2004).

Permission to use this instrument for academic research was not required. This chapter

includes an outline of the research design, target population, sampling procedures, and

instrumentation for the current research. It details the data collection process, the

operationalization of research variables, the data analysis plan, and a power analysis to

determine sufficient sample size. Finally, threats to validity and ethical considerations are

discussed. Figure 3 provides a visual presentation of the process the research employed during this study.

| Population selection | • Participants were senior leaders of small-to medium sized companies in the manufacturing industry.
• Participants were leaders of companies from Canada, Mexico Slovakia, Turkey, and the United States.
• Participants had to be natives of the particular country where their company is located. |

| Instrumentation | • Emotional intellignce was measured using the TEIQue-SF.
• The TEIQue-SF is intended to be a comprehensive assessment of EI; the TEIQue-SF includes two items from each of the 15 facets of the long form.
• The TEIQue-SF is Likert scaled; responses range fom 1 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree).
• Participants completed the 30-item TEIQue-SF in their local language. |

| Population Sampling | • Random sampling was used to recruit participants; the survey instrument was distributed to selected senior leaders
• A power analysis was conduted using G*Power 3.1.7 to determine the necessary sample size for the study; the sample size necessary for a fixed effects, one-way ANOVA with medium effect size ($f^2 = .25$), a power of .80, an alpha level of .05, and five levels of nationality was determined to be 200.
• The researhcer anticipated the study would require 40 participants per nationality. |

| Data Collection | • Data was collected via online survey.
• Participants were required to complete a consent form prior to accessing the TEIQue-SF.
• Surveys were translated into the local language of each country.
• Participant responses were captured on a spreadsheet by the online survey tool. |

| Data Coding | • Participant names were removed from the spreadsheet containing the data to ensure privacy.
• Participant Likert scale responses ranged from 1 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree).
• Specific items were reverse coded to make them comparable with the other items on the instrument (See Appendix A) |

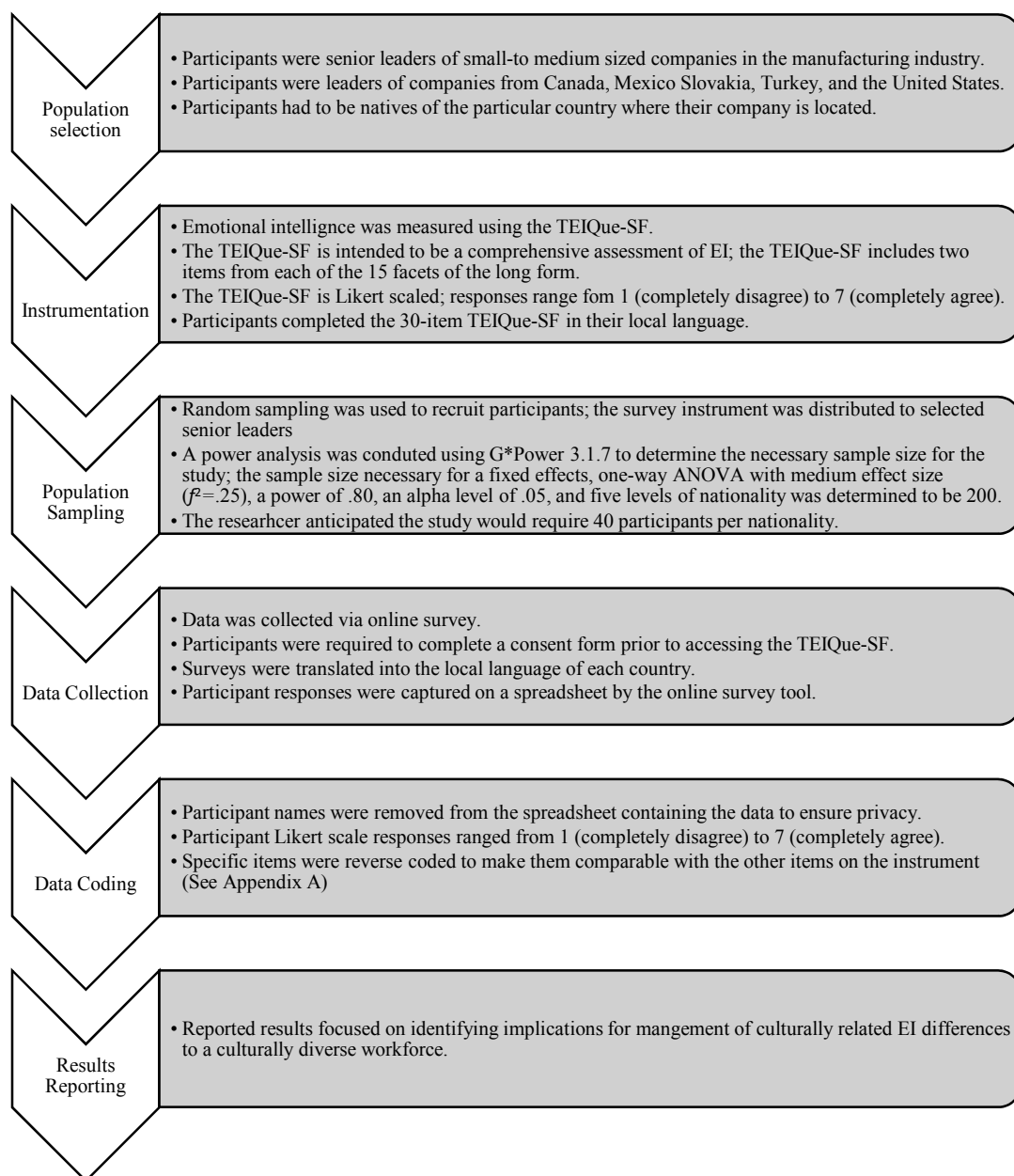| Results Reporting | • Reported results focused on identifying implications for mangement of culturally related EI differences to a culturally diverse workforce. |

Figure 3. Research study process.

Research Design and Rationale

In this study, I utilized a non-experimental, quantitative design to assess the extent to which nationality influenced the EI scores of leaders from 10 companies located in five different countries. Quantitative methods are appropriate when a description or explanation of the relationship between variables is required (Creswell, 2009). I chose a quantitative method for this study because the variables could be operationalized in a numeric format, thus allowing me to conduct an ANOVA to determine how EI was affected by nationality differences.

A quantitative design was the appropriate approach for the current study because I aimed to discover how nationality (independent variable) affected EI scores (dependent variable). I did not use a control or treatment group in the study; therefore, a non-experimental approach was appropriate. This quantitative method was more appropriate than a qualitative or mixed methods approach because it allowed for better alignment with the research question.

Study participants were asked to complete a consent form that explained the nature of the research and described the goals of the study. Participation in the study was voluntary. Next, I asked participants to complete the TEIQue-SF to measure EI. Participants were also asked if they were native to the countries in which they worked. The questionnaire was translated into the local language of each country selected for study. These data were recorded in a spreadsheet and the participants' names were removed to ensure privacy. I analyzed the data to address the research question using ANOVA, which was used to determine the extent to which nationality affected the EI of

leaders. The results, which are presented in Chapter 4, helped identify implications for the management of culturally related EI differences in a culturally diverse workforce.

Methodology

Population

The target population for study included leaders of 10 companies from the following five countries: Canada, Mexico, Slovakia, Turkey, and the United States. I sent the TEIQue-SF to the leaders of selected companies. To be eligible to complete the survey, individuals had to be natives of the country in which they were currently working.

Sample and Sampling Procedures

I collected data via random sampling by distributing the survey instrument to the selected company leaders. A power analysis using G*Power 3.1.7 was used to determine a sufficient sample size for a fixed effects, one-way ANOVA. The ANOVA utilized a medium effect size ($f^2 = .25$), a power of .80, an alpha level of .05, and the five levels of nationality. The calculated minimum required sample size to achieve empirical validity within these parameters was 200 participants. Accordingly, 40 participants per nationality were required.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Data collection for this study was voluntary. Participants were provided with a consent form that detailed the nature of the study, outlined participant and researcher

responsibilities, and explained that all data would be kept confidential. Next, participants were asked to complete the 30-item, Likert-scaled TEIQue-SF to measure EI, which was translated into the local language of each country selected for study. Data were placed in a spreadsheet, and participant names were removed to ensure privacy.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

   Instrumentation. The TEIQue is a scientific instrument developed by Petrides and Furnham (2004) to measure trait EI. Petrides and Furnham constructed the tool to illustrate a comprehensive coverage of the trait EI domain. Multiple versions of the TEIQue have appeared since development of the original, including the TEIQue-SF, the 360º and 360º SF, and the TEIQue-CF. The long form, also called the full form, is the original version.

   This study employed the TEIQue-SF (Petrides & Furnham, 2004), and use of this tool for academic purposes did not require permission (see Appendix A). The long form consists of 153 items and takes approximately 25 minutes to complete. It consists of 15 facets, four factors, and a global trait EI score. The short form has 30 questions based on the original TEIQue. The TEIQue-SF consists of a global trait EI score and takes approximately 7 minutes to complete.

   As outlined by Cooper and Petrides (2010), I selected two items from each of the 15 facets of the long form for inclusion in the short form; this was based primarily on their correlations with the total score. Items included in the assessment were a Likert-scaled questions, ranging from 1 (*completely disagree*) to 7 (*completely agree*). Petrides

and Furnham (2006) assessed reliability of the long form with 907 women and 759 men. The results of the reliability analysis indicated high reliability among women ($\alpha = .89$) and men ($\alpha = .92$). According to a sample investigated by Memar, Abolhassani, Azghandi, and Taghavi (2007), the TEIQue-SF also had high internal consistency values, ranging from $\alpha = .71$ to $\alpha = .76$. Petrides and Furnham (2006) outlined the reliability values on the TEIQue-SF for men at $\alpha = .84$, and women at $\alpha = .89$. Because this study did not include an extremely large sample, and for the sake of efficiency, the short form was selected.

The 15 facets of the TEIQue include adaptability, assertiveness, emotion appraisal (self and others), emotion expression, emotion management (others), emotion regulation, impulsiveness (low), relationship skills, self-esteem, self-motivation, social competence, stress management, trait empathy, trait happiness, and trait optimism (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Fifteen subscales provide scores on well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability. In regard to well-being, a high score indicates an overall sense of well-being and translates into feelings of fulfillment and life satisfaction, while a low score indicates poor self-esteem and overall unhappiness with present life. Regarding self-control, a high score indicates the ability to manage and regulate external pressures, while a low score indicates impulsive behaviors and an inability to handle stress. In regards to emotionality, a high score indicates a range of emotion-related skills, such as recognizing, perceiving, and expressing emotions.

Well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability skills relate to the ability to form and nurture relationships; a low score indicates difficulties recognizing and expressing internal emotions, and poor or weak relationships. In regard to sociability, a high score indicates good listening and effective communication, while a low score indicates ineffective social interaction, insecurity in social settings, and the inability to affect others' emotions (Petrides, 2011).

Operationalization. The construct of EI (the dependent variable) was operationalized using the TEIQue-SF instrument. This provided a total (summed) quantitative score associated with the EI of the research subjects; these scores were treated as continuous data. EI was defined as a group of skills used by individuals to ascertain the emotions of oneself and others, including interpersonal, intrapersonal, and stress management skills (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The TEIQue-SF provides a validated measure of EI that can be compared against the scores of other study subjects. The ability to compare study subjects allowed me to limit internal threats to validity, because the TEIQue-SF is a validated measure of EI (Petrides & Furnham, 2004).

The use of a validated instrument alleviated the need for me to create a survey and test its validity (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). The construct of nationality was defined as a nominal variable with five categories: Canadian, Mexican, Slovakian, Turkish, and American. The independent variable of the study was nationality, which could not be manipulated.

Data Analysis Plan

Data were analyzed using SPSS version 22.0 for Windows. Descriptive statistics were gathered to describe the sample population. Frequencies and percentages were conducted for categorical data, and means and standard deviations were conducted for continuous data (Howell, 2010).

Data were screened for missing cases and univariate outliers, and any participants who skipped major portions of the survey were removed from the study. Univariate outliers were assessed on the continuous variable of interest (EI scores), via standardized values, or z scores. Outliers, defined as standardized values below -3.29 or above 3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012), were removed from the study. Internal consistency was conducted to establish reliability on the composite score. Reliability determined if the scores computed by the survey instrument were meaningful, significant, useful, and purposeful. The Cronbach's alpha test of reliability provided the mean correlation (presented as an alpha coefficient) between each pair of items and the number of items in a scale (Brace, Kemp & Snelgar, 2006). Reliability was conducted on EI scores and evaluated according to the rules suggested by George and Mallery (2010); that is, alpha coefficients range from unacceptable to excellent where $\alpha > .9$ – excellent, $> .8$ – good, $> .7$ – acceptable, $> .6$ – questionable, $> .5$ – poor, and $\leq .5$ – unacceptable.

Research Question

The following research question guided this research:

RQ1: What is the effect of nationality differences on the EI of leaders in multinational companies?

The hypotheses related to this research question were as follows:

$H_0 1$: Nationality differences do not affect the EI of leaders in multinational corporations.

$H_a 1$: Nationality differences do affect the EI of leaders in multinational corporations.

Hypothesis Testing

To address the research question, univariate ANOVA were employed to determine whether EI scores significantly differed across nationalities. The independent variable in this analysis was nationality, which was treated as a nominal variable with the following five levels: Canada, Mexico, Slovakia, Turkey, and United States. The continuous dependent variable in this analysis was EI, which was comprised from the summation of the 30 TEIQue-SF Likert-scaled items. Item responses ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). As outlined in the scoring key of the TEIQue-SF, the following items were reverse coded: 16, 2, 18, 4, 5, 7, 22, 8, 10, 25, 26, 12, 13, 28, and 14. Statistical significance was determined using an alpha level of .05.

ANOVA is the appropriate statistical analysis when the purpose of the research is to evaluate if mean differences exist on one continuous dependent variable (EI scores) between two or more discreet groups (the five levels of nationality). The one-way ANOVA is used when groups are defined according to one independent variable

(Howell, 2010). The ANOVA uses the *F* test, which is the ratio of two independent variance estimates of the same population variance and makes the overall comparison on whether group means differ. If the obtained *F* is larger than the critical *F*, the null hypothesis is rejected (Pagano, 2010).

The assumptions of ANOVA were examined prior to conducting the analysis. Normality assumed that the scores would be normally distributed (bell-shaped) and were assessed with the Kolmogorov Smirnov test. Homogeneity of variance assumed that both groups would have equal error variances and were assessed using Levene's test. In many cases, the ANOVA is considered a robust statistic in which assumptions can be violated with relatively minor effects (Howell, 2010).

Threats to Validity

Potential threats to internal validity address alternative explanations of the results (Creswell, 2003). External threats of validity refer to issues regarding generalizations of the results (Creswell, 2003). For this study, two threats to internal validity were identified: extraneous factors influencing the association between nationality and EI, and communication among the different leaders (by company or country). Nationality may not have been solely related to EI because of the presence or lack of other factors (i.e., age, socio-economic status, years of experience in job, etc.). For the sake of the current study, I assumed that no other factors would contribute to the relationships between nationality and EI. External threats to validity involved interactions between setting and instrumentation. Participant responses may not have accurately represented their true EI

if the survey were completed on the job. It was assumed that study participants would not complete the survey at their places of employment, but in settings that allowed honest and unbiased responses. A final threat to validity involved sample selection if the selected participants did not accurately represent the population. However, random sampling limited the extent of this threat.

Ethical Procedures

Ethical procedures were employed to ensure the study was conducted in an ethical manner. Research participants were made aware of the study's goal and the details of their participation (i.e., voluntary study, can withdraw at any time, etc.). All participants were required to give informed consent. The consent form and survey responses remained completely anonymous and confidential. I omitted all participant names from study documents used to analyze data, and all forms were kept in a secure, locked e-file until such time as they will be destroyed (after a period of no less than five years). This measure was taken to avoid any disclosures of data and to ensure rights to privacy. Each participant was asked to provide their nationality and complete the consent form and TEIQue-SF. Results were presented in a fair and honest manner, without manipulation of the data or outcomes.

I obtained Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval prior to any data collection, and all school policies and federal regulations were followed. I took measures to ensure the ethical and safe completion of the research study. IRB approval was obtained by

completing the IRB application form, and I worked with the IRB to ensure the study was conducted in an ethical manner.

Summary

This study examined how nationality affected EI, as measured by the TEIQue-SF. Because the aim of the study was to explore how nationality (independent variable) affected EI scores (dependent variable), a quantitative design was deemed the appropriate approach. Data were collected from leaders in 10 companies, located in five countries. The study followed a non-experimental, quantitative design to assess the extent to which nationality influenced participants' EI scores. Study results are presented in the following chapter, and a discussion of the results and their implications appear in the final chapter of this dissertation.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The goal of this study was to investigate the influence of nationality on the EI of managers of companies in five countries. The sampled managers worked for companies located in Canada, Mexico, Slovakia, Turkey, and the United States. Managers were grouped by nationality (the independent variables). The dependent variable in the study was EI. The research question guiding this study was the following: What is the effect of nationality differences on the EI of leaders in multinational companies?

This chapter includes analysis of results from participants' responses to the TEIQue-SF. It begins with a description of the data collection measures and the preliminary data screening steps I employed. The chapter also includes a presentation of analysis results and closes with a summary of study findings.

Data Collection

Data were collected regarding participants' EI. The TEIQue-SF was administered to managers of companies in Canada, Mexico, Slovakia, Turkey, and the United States. The survey was hosted on SurveyMonkey and available to participants from April 13, 2015 to April 17, 2015. Each participant was able to access the survey in the home language of his or her respective country. At the close of the survey period, I downloaded and de-identified all data in preparation for data screening. Table 1 presents the number of participants of each nationality in the raw data.

Table 1

Representation of Nationalities in Raw Data

Nationality	No. of Participants
American	42
Canadian	42
Mexican	43
Slovakian	44
Turkish	41

Preliminary Data Screening

Data were entered into SPSS version 22.0 for Windows. Prior to analysis, I screened data for missing information. Because none of the datasets were missing significant amounts of information, no participants were removed from the sample. Additionally, I ran descriptive statistics to screen data for inaccuracies. After examining the ranges of responses, no values were found to lie outside the realm of acceptable responses. Finally, data were screened for the presence of univariate outliers, which were assessed (on EI scores) via standardized values, or z scores. Outliers were defined as standardized values below -3.29 or above 3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012); no univariate outliers were removed from EI score. Preliminary data management was conducted on the dataset. Scores from the TEIQue-SF were reverse coded, according to the guidelines outlined by the authors of the instrument (Petrides & Furnham, 2004).

Results

Descriptive Statistics

   Frequencies and percentages. The nationality with the greatest response rate

was Slovakian (44, 20.75%). The majority of participants were men (108, 52%). Fifty-

seven percent of the participants held a bachelor's degree (90, 43%) or graduate degree

(29, 14%). The most frequent response for current occupation was wholesale (34,

16.43%). Frequencies and percentages for nominal and ordinal variables are presented in

Table 2.

Table 2

Frequencies and Percentages for Nominal and Ordinal Variables

Variables	*n*	*%*
Nationality		
American	42	20
Canadian	42	20
Mexican	43	20
Slovakian	44	21
Turkish	41	19
Gender		
Female	100	48
Male	108	52
Education		
High school degree or equivalent	41	20
Some college but no degree	19	9
Associate degree	28	13
Bachelor degree	90	43
Graduate degree	29	14
Other (please specify)	1	0
Current Occupation		
Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, or Hunting	2	1
Arts, Entertainment, or Recreation	7	3
Education	11	5
Construction	19	9
Finance and Insurance	14	7
Government and Public Administration	7	3
Health Care and Social Assistance	12	6
Hotel and Food Services	9	4
Information - Services and Data	9	4
Legal Services	7	3
Manufacturing	27	13
Real Estate, Rental, or Leasing	10	5
Retail	13	6
Scientific or Technical Services	8	4
Software	8	4
Transportation and Warehousing	3	1
Utilities	7	3

Wholesale	34	16

Note. Due to rounding error, percentages may not add up to 100.

Means and standard deviations. For years in current position, observations

ranged from 0.00 to 52.00, with an average observation of 6.22 (*SD* = 6.90). The range

for months in current position was 0.00 to 11.00, with an average observation of 8.72 (*SD*

= 7.04). For EI score, observations ranged from 2.43 to 7.00, with an average observation

of 5.07 (*SD* = 0.92). Means and standard deviations for continuous variables are

presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for Continuous Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*
Time in Current Position		
Years	6.22	6.90
Months	8.72	7.04
EI Score	5.07	0.92

Reliability

A composite score was created, along with Cronbach's alpha reliability testing on

the newly created subscale. Cronbach alpha reliability was assessed using George and

Mallery's (2010) guidelines on reliability, in which alpha values greater than .90 indicate

excellent reliability, alpha values greater than .80 indicate good reliability, alpha values

greater than .70 indicate acceptable reliability, alpha values greater than .60 indicate

questionable reliability, and alpha values less than .60 indicate unacceptable reliability. A

new composite score, named *EI score*, was created by calculating the mean of the

original and reverse scored items. Table 4 presents the reliability information for EI

score.

Table 4

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability for EI Score

Composite Score	α	No. of items
EI	.93	30

Research Question

RQ: What is the effect of nationality differences on the EI of leaders in

multinational companies?

The hypotheses related to this research question were as follows:

H_01: Nationality differences do not affect the EI of leaders in multinational

corporations.

H_a1: Nationality differences do affect the EI of leaders in multinational

corporations.

To assess the research question, an ANOVA was conducted. The grouping

variable was nationality. Response options for nationality were Canadian, Mexican,

Slovakian, Turkish, and American. The dependent variable in this study was EI. I

administered and scored participants' responses on the TEIQue-SF to represent EI. In

preliminary analysis, the assumption of normality was assessed with a Shapiro-Wilk test.

The results of the test were significant, $p < .001$, violating the assumption. However, as

Howell (2010) suggested, ANOVA is robust despite violations of normality in cases of

large sample sizes ($N > 50$). The assumption of equality of variance was assessed with

Levene's test. Results of the test were not significant, $p = .353$, indicating the assumption

was met.

The results of the ANOVA were not significant, $F(4, 207) = 0.55$, $p = .698$, partial

$\eta^2 = .01$. The findings suggest there was no difference in EI score by nationality. Results

of the ANOVA are presented in Table 5. Means and standard deviations are presented in

Table 6. Figure 4 shows EI score means by nationality.

Table 5

Results of ANOVA for EI Score by Nationality

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p	Partial η^2
Nationality	1.91	4	0.48	0.55	.698	.01
Error	178.55	207	0.86			

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations for EI Score by Nationality

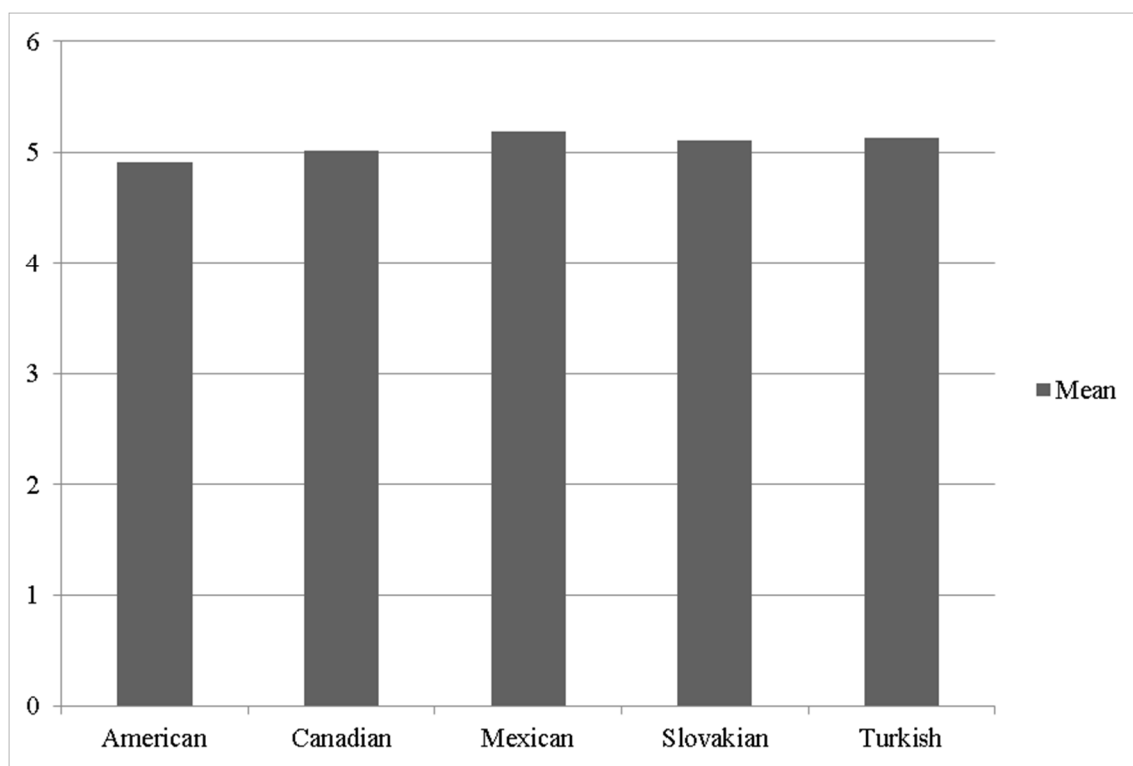| Nationality	*M*	*SD*	*n*
American	4.92	0.88	42
Canadian	5.02	0.95	42
Mexican	5.19	0.90	43
Slovakian	5.11	0.82	44
Turkish	5.13	1.08	41

Figure 4. EI Score mean by nationality.

Summary

The goal of this study was to investigate the influence of nationality on EI. Data related to EI were gathered from managers of organizations in Turkey, Slovakia, Mexico, Canada, and the United States. Prior to analysis, items were reverse coded according to the guidelines put forth by the authors of the instrument (Petrides & Furnham, 2004). Cronbach alpha for reliability was calculated for the 30 items that comprised EI score. EI score had a Cronbach's alpha reliability of .93, which indicated excellent reliability. Results of the ANOVA were not significant, $F(4, 207) = 0.55$, $p = .698$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$. This finding suggested that nationality had no influence on EI scores.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

In an increasingly globalized business climate, the survival and profitability of multinational organizations are significantly dependent on the cross-cultural competencies of business leaders (Reilly & Karounos, 2009). Leaders and managers must possess cross-cultural communication skills to lead organizations effectively across cultures. To ensure these individuals are equipped with the skills needed to lead in global environments, organizations must adjust their succession planning and leadership development efforts to maximize critical skills. EI, defined as the ability to identify, assess, and control the emotions of oneself, of others, and of groups (Goleman, 1995), may influence the success of international businesses because it affects leaders' abilities to communicate with others.

The general problem that this study addressed was the lack of EI among business leaders, which may affect individuals' abilities to manage and lead international organizations (Shipper et al., 2003). The aim of this quantitative study was to investigate the effects of nationality on the EI of managers of 10 companies from five countries. These countries included Canada, Mexico, Slovakia, Turkey, and the United States. The focus of this research was the cross-cultural relevance and implications of EI for managers of diverse organizations. Analysis of surveys completed by 212 participants indicated that nationality had no influence on EI scores. This chapter includes an interpretation of these results in light of findings from previous research. Study

limitations are presented, followed by a discussion of recommendations for future research and implications for theory and practice. The chapter closes with my concluding remarks.

Interpretation of Findings

The findings of this study were somewhat surprising, as results from existing research suggested a relationship may exist between EI and nationality (Boehnke et al., 2003; George, 2000; House et al., 2004; Reilly & Karounos, 2009; Riggio, 2010; Shipper et al., 2003; Tang et al., 2010). Thus, it is important to explore possible reasons that EI and nationally were unrelated in this investigation. According to the literature presented in Chapter 2, the most plausible explanation was the failure to account for culture. Nationality and culture are two different dimensions. Nationality indicates belonging to or identifying with a country; thus, the connection that an individual ascribes to nationality is based purely on physical location.

Dimensions of Culture

Alternatively, the concept of culture incorporates a host of characteristics that describe a person or group. As Krober and Kluckhohn (1952) explained, culture is "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (p. 21). Cole and Parker (2011) argued that culture refers to the ways that artifacts change a society's environment. These artifacts may include spoken or written communications, rituals, art, beliefs, conventions, or norms. Culture may also

refer to learned routines symbols, social constructions, and institutions (Hong, 2009), or

the patterned beliefs, attitudes, and mindsets of a group (Oyserman & Sorenson, 2009).

Although myriad definitions of culture exist, the above theoretical examples

illustrate how all-encompassing culture is when examining the collective characteristics

of a group. In this sense, culture may be linked to EI in a way that nationality is not. As

defined by Goleman (1995), EI refers to an individual's ability to identify, assess, and

control the emotions of oneself, of others, and of groups. It may be that the ability to

identify, assess, and control emotions, in this way, is influenced by cultural norms and

customs. This concept can be explored within the framework of Hofstede's (2001)

cultural dimensions, which includes individualism-collectivism, power distance,

masculinity-femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and time orientation.

To consider how individuals identify, assess, and control emotions in themselves

and others, it is necessary to consider how they perceive and interact with others

(DuBusk & Austin, 2011; Lopes et al., 2004). For example, research has indicated that

individuals are better able to perceive the emotions of others from their same cultural

group (Dubusk & Austin, 2011; Elfenbein & Ambady, 2003). Dubusk and Austin (2011)

reported that individuals were able to identify facial expressions of people in their own

race more accurately than those of outsiders. Because the perception of facial expressions

is key to identifying the emotions of others, individuals may demonstrate greater EI with

people from their same cultural background.

The cultural dimensions that Hofstede (2001) described inevitably affect such perception and interaction. For example, power distance and uncertainty avoidance could influence the control that one maintains over the expression of his or her emotions. Similarly, these dimensions could also influence an individual's ability to identify the emotions of others. Likewise, individuals from cultures that have predominantly collectivist orientations, such as those of many Eastern countries, may approach the emotional control of a group differently from those who belong to Western, individualist cultures.

CI

Rockstuhl et al. (2011) investigated the influences of general, emotional, and cultural intelligence on leadership in a cross-border environment. The researchers noted significant associations between the effectiveness of leaders and EI. However, Rockstuhl et al. reported that the correlation did not appear affected by cross-border environments. CI, however, was positively associated with cross-border leadership skills, but not general leadership effectiveness. The researchers concluded that EI may be a more important factor for leaders in domestic settings, and that CI may be more applicable to international or cross-border settings.

The aim of the current study was to assess the relationship between nationality and EI. Although I assessed EI of leaders of different nationalities, participants were working in domestic settings (for example, Canadian participants included only individuals currently working in Canada). It is possible that EI is affected by employment

in foreign settings for a given period of time. Therefore, an interesting direction for future research would include a longitudinal assessment of changes in EI after individuals transition from working in domestic to foreign settings. It would also be valuable to assess the relationship between leadership effectiveness and the EI of leaders working in foreign settings.

This study by Rockstuhl et al. (2011) also suggested that in cross-border or international environments, CI may be a more important construct for leadership effectiveness than EI. It is important to remember that even in domestic settings, leaders of multinational organizations are likely to interact with people from diverse backgrounds. Consequently, an assessment of CI and nationality may have indicated more significant findings than EI did in the current research.

Contextual Influences

Moon (2010) reported that EI may not be an applicable measure across cultures because it depends on one's familiarity with a specific context. Someone may demonstrate a high level of EI within his or her own culture, but that may not translate to CI in cross-cultural settings. Moon explained that individuals with high levels of CI may possess EI, but EI does not always predict CI. Although Moon's study indicated a relationship between CI and EI, the sample was a group of university students located in Korea. There was no cross border assessment. The relationship between CI and EI may have been expressed differently among a sample population from another culture. Different results may have also emerged if the relationship were explored among a

sample of individuals operating in a different culture from their own. For example, one may demonstrate significant EI and CI in his or her home culture, but not in a foreign setting.

Influences on Leadership

In light of existing research and results from the current study, it is possible that EI skills do not significantly influence leaders in multinational or cross-border settings at all. One of the most important factors in leader effectiveness is leadership style. However, in cross-border or international settings, two aspects of effective leadership exist: (a) general leader effectiveness and (b) cross-border leadership (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). CI may play a significant role in cross-border leadership. Thus, investigating the CI skills of leaders in domestic and international settings may help businesses better prepare multinational leaders. Additionally, CI may vary by nationality because of the complex web of different cultural factors that influence individual perceptions of self and others. However, different regions still tend to have dominant cultural norms and influences. For example, on Hofstede's (2001) scale, the U.S. culture is predominantly individually oriented, although there are many pockets of subcultures that may have a stronger collectivist orientation.

Business Culture

Although a country or region may be influenced by multiple subcultures, a dominant business culture still exists. Thus, an exploration of differences in the CI of business leaders by nationality is likely to reveal differences based on the region's

dominant business culture. For example, in countries such as Germany and France, company ownership is limited to the banks, firms, and families directly involved with an organization (Jiatao & Harrison, 2008). However, in other countries, such as the United States and the United Kingdom, ownership is spread among a large group of individual and institutional investors (Jiatao & Harrison, 2008). This is indicative of how cultural differences influence business operations.

Jiatao and Harrison's (2008) investigation of ownership structures and business environments within Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions also demonstrated the influence of culture on business operations. The study revealed that power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, and masculinity/femininity affected organizational size and leadership. This is an important consideration for leaders of cross-border or multinational organizations. If culture has the ability to influence leadership and organizational structure in this way, the relationship between CI and business leadership may be significant across different nationalities.

Instrument Reliability

EI inventories. Roberts et al. (2008) questioned the validity of EI assessments because they are based on participants' understandings and self-perceptions. In addition, the researchers argued that the self-assessment of non-cognitive traits is problematically subjective. In an attempt to bypass these issues, I chose to explore trait EI. EI focuses on emotion-related cognitive abilities, while trait EI is concerned with emotion-related dispositions and perceptions (Petrides et al., 2007). Petrides et al. argued that use of trait

EI allowed researchers to bypass the operational issues of subjectivity that are inherent to EI.

To measure trait EI, I utilized the TEIQue-SF (Petrides & Furnham, 2004). A small number of studies indicated that the TEIQue had cross-cultural reliability (Andrei et al., 2014; Freudenthaler et al., 2008; Gökçen et al., 2014) among samples from Hong Kong, the United Kingdom, Italy, and Germany. However, the cross-cultural validity of the TEIQue had not been assessed for all nationalities used in this study.

Cross cultural assessment. Another potential reason for the lack of a significant relationship between nationality and EI that was indicated by the current study is related to the cross-cultural validity and reliability of measurement instruments. Emmerling and Boyatzis (2012) urged quantitative researchers to take care when conducting cross-cultural assessments of constructs to ensure that the instruments are sensitive to cultural contexts and maintain cross-cultural validity. Even when translations of instruments are precise, differences in cross-cultural meanings of items can interfere with an assessment's validity. In addition, the ability to assess variables across different cultures may be questioned. It may be easier to navigate cultural differences through qualitative research, but in order to produce empirical research, the influence of cultural dimensions on constructs must be carefully considered.

Limitations of the Study

This study had a few inherent limitations that must be addressed. First, because participant biases were unknown, it was not possible to address them through the survey

questions. In addition, other variables, such as personality, social status, and background knowledge were confounds that may have influenced results. Another important limitation were the nationalities of the research population, which included Canadian, Mexican, Slovakian, Turkish, and American (United States). It is possible that a relationship between EI and nationality exists among nationalities not surveyed in this research.

Another limitation relates to the challenges of EI assessment, as discussed in Chapter 2. Although I utilized trait EI in an attempt to bypass the self-assessment issues inherent to EI, the TEIQue-SF still relies on self-reports and participants' understandings of the concepts being measured. In addition, although cross-cultural validity has been indicated for the TEIQue-SF, validity has not been assessed for all of the nationalities included in this research. Thus, even though the instrument was carefully translated into the native language of each nation, cultural contexts may have resulted in differences in participant understandings of the TEIQue-SF items.

Finally, assessment for the current study was limited to domestic leaders working for multinational corporations. Although they worked for companies that were international, and were likely to have regular contact with individuals from different cultures, they still resided and worked in their home countries. An individual who has been working in a cross-border environment outside of their native country, for a given amount of time may demonstrate different levels of EI.

Recommendations

Despite the lack of significant findings for the current study, some valuable recommendations for future research can be made to address study limitations and questions that emerged during the analysis. These recommendations are as follows:

- Although a relationship between EI and nationality was not revealed, it is possible that a CI and nationality are correlated. Future researchers should explore the potential correlation between CI and nationality.

- This study was limited to participants working in their native countries. The current study could be replicated among leaders working in cross-border environments to see if differences in EI exist between domestic leaders and those who work abroad.

- Investigate the relationship between EI and CI in various settings.

- Explore the effects of other variables, such as gender, age, educational status, work experience, culture, and IQ on EI

- Replicate the current study with EI (instead of trait EI).

- Explore the potential relationship between EI, CI, and leadership styles

- Assess the EI of leaders by different industries, in multiple countries.

Implications

The implications to the field of EI research is that nationality does not appear to affect trait EI. However, this was the first study that compared EI and nationality, and it was limited by the nationalities of the sample and the assessment inventory that was used.

Because the field of EI research is still emerging, the main implication is that a relationship was not detected. However, this provides direction for future researchers to build upon. Theoretically, the results from this study may support some of the criticisms of EI presented in Chapter 2.

A practical implication of the current investigation is that organizations may not need to focus on nationality when making decisions regarding leadership training. Instead, organizations may focus on cultural factors that affect leader effectiveness. Results from this research, as well as previous studies (Dubusk & Austin, 2011; Moon, 2010; Rockstuhl et al., 2011) suggest that EI may have less relevance to leader effectiveness for cross-border and multinational businesses than CI. In addition, it may be important for organizations to consider how required leadership skills of domestic employees may differ from those working in cross-border settings. In terms of research implications, the current study indicates how much is still to be learned about EI. Future researchers have many factors to explore regarding leadership, EI, and culture, as discussed in the previous section.

Conclusion

The aim of this research was to explore the relationship between nationality and EI. Quantitative data gathered from 212 participants from Turkey, Slovakia, Mexico, Canada, and the United States revealed that nationality had no influence on EI scores. Although this finding conflicted with indications in previous research that suggested nationality and EI may be correlated, it is likely that nationality has more of an impact on

cultural intelligence because of the influence that culture has on one's perceptions and interactions with others.

Although this study indicated no significant relationship between EI and nationality, it does provide several directions for future research. For example, researchers and organizations alike should investigate: (a) the relationship between CI and nationality; (b) EI differences among domestic and international business leaders; (c) the relationship between EI and CI; (d) differences in EI among individuals working in various industries; and (e) the effects of other variables, such as gender, age, educational status, work experience, culture, and IQ on EI. Ultimately, findings from this research show just how much is still to be learned about EI.

References

Adler, N. J. (2002). *International dimensions of organizational behavior* (4th ed.). Cincinnati, OH: South-Western/Thomson Learning.

Alston, B. A., Dastoor, B. R., & Sosa-Fey, J. (2010). Emotional intelligence and leadership: A study of human resource managers. *International Journal of Business and Public Administration, 7*(2), 61–75. Retrieved from http://www.iabpad.com/IJBPA/

Andrei, F., Mancini, G., Trombini, E., Baldaro, B., & Russo, P. M. (2014). Testing the incremental validity of trait emotional intelligence: Evidence from an Italian sample of adolescents. *Personality and Individual Differences, 64*(7), 673–678. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2008.07.014

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C. K., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007). Cultural intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation, and task performance. *Management and Organization Review, 3*, 335–371. doi:10.1111/j.1740-8784.2007.00082.x

Angelidis, J., & Ibrahim, N. A. (2011). The impact of emotional intelligence on ethical judgment of managers. *Journal of Business Ethics, 99*, 111–119. doi:10.1007/s10551-011-1158-5

Antonakis, J., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Dasborough, M. T. (2009). Does leadership need emotional intelligence? *Leadership Quarterly, 20,* 247–261.

doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.01.006

Austin, E. J., & Saklofske, D. H. (2014). Introduction to the special issue on emotional

intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences, 65*, 1–2.

doi:10.1016/j.paid.2014.02.006

Avolio, B., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. (1995). *MLQ: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire:*

Technical report. Palo Alto, CA: Mind Garden.

Avolio, B., Walumbwa, F., & Weber, T. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research,

and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60*, 421–449.

doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163621

Barling, J., Slater, F., & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Transformational leadership and

emotional intelligence: An exploratory study. *Leadership & Organization*

Development Journal, 21(3), 157–161. doi:10.1108/01437730010325040

Bar-On, R. (2000). Emotional and social intelligence: Insights from the Emotional

Quotient Inventory (EI-1). In R. Bar-On & J. Parker (Eds.), *Handbook of*

emotional intelligence (pp. 13–25). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Boss.

Bar-On, R. (2002). *Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Short technical manual*.

Toronto. Canada: Multi-Health Systems.

Bar-On, R., Tranel, D., Denburg, N. L., & Bechara, A. (2003). Exploring the neurological

substrate of emotional and social intelligence. *Brain, 126*, 1790–1800.

doi:10.1093/brain/awg177

Barrett, P., & Eysenck, S. (1984). The assessment of personality factors across 25

countries. *Personality and Individual Differences, 5*(6), 615–632.

doi:10.1016/0191-8869 (84)90110-7

Barrett, P. T., Petrides, K. V., Eysenck, S. B. G., & Eysenck, H. J. (1998). The Eysenck

personality questionnaire: An examination of the factorial similarity of P, E, N,

and L across 34 countries. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 805–819.

doi:10.1016/S0191-8869 (98)00026-9

Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations.* New York, NY:

Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industry, military, and educational

impact.* Mahway, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bass, B., & Avolio, B. (1990). *The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Palo Alto, CA:

Consulting Psychologists Press.

Black, J. S., & Stephens, G. K. (1989). The influence of the spouse on American

expatriate adjustment in overseas assignment. *Journal of Management, 15*, 529–

544. doi:10.1177/014920638901500403

Boehnke, K., Bontis, N., DiStefano, J., & DiStefano, A. C. (2003). Transformational

leadership: An examination of cross-national differences and similarities.

Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 24(1), 1–11.

doi:10.1108/01437730310457285

Boyatzis, R. E., & Goleman, D. (2002). *The emotional competency inventory*. Boston,

MA: The Hay Group

Boyatzis, R. E. (2009). Competencies as a behavioral approach to emotional intelligence. *Journal of Management Development, 28*(9), 749–770. doi:10.1108/02621710910987647

Brace, N., Kemp, R., & Snelgar, R. (2006). *SPSS for psychologists* (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publisher.

Canen, A. G., & Canen, A. (2004). Multicultural competence and trust: A new road for logistics management? *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, 11*(3), 38–53. doi:10.1108/13527600410797837

Canen, A. G., & Canen, A. (2008). Multicultural leadership: The costs of its absence in organizational conflict management. *International Journal of Conflict Management, 19*(1), 4–19. doi:10.1108/10444060810849155

Carlyn, M. (1977). An assessment of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 41*(5), 461-473. doi:10.1207/s15327752jpa4105_2

Carmeli, A. (2003). The relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes, behavior and outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 18*(8), 788–813. doi:10.1108/02683940310511881

Cattell, R. B. (1947). Confirmation and clarification of primary personality factors. *Psychometrika, 12*(3), 197–220. doi:10.1007/BF02289253

Coetzee, C., & Schaap, P. (2005). The relationship between leadership behavior, outcomes of leadership and emotional intelligence. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 31*(3), 31–38. Retrieved from http://www.sajip.co.za/

Cole, M., & Parker, M. (2011). Culture and cognition. In K. D. Keith (Ed.), *Cross-cultural psychology: Contemporary themes and perspectives* (pp. 133-159). Chichester, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Colfax, R. S., Perez, K. T., & Rivera, J. J. (2010). Applying emotional intelligence (EQ-I) in the workplace: Vital to global business success. *Journal of International Business Research, 9*, 89. Retrieved from http://www.alliedacademies.org/

Cooper, A. & Petrides, K. V. (2010). A psychometric analysis of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Short Form (TEIQue-SF) using Item Response Theory. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 92*, 449–457. doi:10.1080/00223891.2010.497426

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1995). Primary traits of Eysenck's P-E-N system: three- and five-factor solutions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69*(2), 308–317. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.69.2.308

Côté, S., Lopez, P. N., Salovey, P., & Miners, C. T. H. (2010). Emotional intelligence and leadership emergence in small groups. *Leadership Quarterly, 21*, 496–508. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.03.012

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

DeBusk, K. P. A., & Austin, E. J. (2011). Emotional intelligence and social perception.

Personality and Individual Differences, 51(6), 764-768.

doi:10.1016/j.paid.2011.06.026

Eagly, A. H., Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C., & van Engen, M. L. (2003). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing women and men. *Psychological Bulletin, 129*(4), 569–591. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.129.4.569

Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: An analysis of individual interactions across cultures.* Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.

Earley, P. C., & Peterson, R. S. (2004). The elusive cultural chameleon: Cultural intelligence as a new approach to intercultural training for the global manager. *Academy of Management Learning and Education, 3*(1), 100–115. Retrieved from http://aom.org/amle/

Elfenbein, H. A., & Ambady, N. (2003). Universals and cultural differences in recognizing emotions. *Psychological Science 12*(5), 159-164. doi:10.1111/1467-8721.01252

Emmerling, R. J., & Boyatzis, R. E. (2012). Emotional and social intelligence competencies: Cross cultural implications. *Cross Cultural Management, 19*(1), 4-18. doi:10.1108/13527601211195592

Eysenck, H. J. (1994). The big five or giant three: Criteria for a paradigm. In C. F. Halverson, G. A. Kohnstamm, & R. P. Martin (Eds.), *The developing structure of temperament and personality from infancy to adulthood* (pp. 37–51). Hillsdale,

NJ: Erlbaum.

Fall, L. T., Kelly, S., MacDonald, P., Primm, C., & Holmes, W. (2013). Intercultural communication apprehension and emotional intelligence in higher education: Preparing business students for career success. *Business Communication Quarterly, 76*(4), 412–426. doi:10.1177/1080569913501861

Fiedler, F. (1964). A contingency model of leadership effectiveness. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 1*, 149-190. doi:10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60051-9

Fiori, M., & Antonakis, J. (2011). The ability model of emotional intelligence: Searching for valid measures. *Personality and Individual Differences, 50*(3), 329–334. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2010.10.010

Freudenthaler, H. H., Neubauer, A. C., Gabler, P., Scherl, W. G., & Rindermann, H. (2008). Testing and validating the trait emotional intelligence questionnaire (TEIQue) in a German-speaking sample. *Personality and Individual Differences, 45*, 673-678. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2008.07.014

Gabel, R. S., Dolan, S. L., & Cerdin, J. (2005). Emotional intelligence as predictor of cultural adjustment for success in global assignments. *Career Development International, 10*(5), 375–418. doi:10.1108/13620430510615300

Gabel-Shemueli, R. & Dolan, S. (2011). Do emotions matter? The role of emotional intelligence competences in cross-cultural adjustment for international assignment. *Management Research: The Journal of the Iberoamerican Academy*

of Management, 9(3), 207–229. doi:10.1108/1536-541111181912

Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple intelligences: The theory in practice.* New York, NY: Basic Books.

Gardner, L., & Stough, C. (2002). Examining the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence in senior level managers. *Leadership & Organizational Development Journal, 23*(2), 68–78. doi:10.1108/01437730210419198

Gardner, W. L., & Martinko, M. J. (1996). Using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator to study managers: A literature review and research agenda. *Journal of Management, 22*(1), 45-83. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920639602200103

George, J. M. (2000). Emotions and leadership: The role of emotional intelligence. *Human Relations, 53*(8), 1027–1055. doi:10.1177/0018726700538001

George, D. & Mallery, P. (2010). *SPSS for Windows step by step: a simple guide and reference, 18.0 update* (11th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Gökçen, E., Furnham, A., Mavroveli, S., & Petrides, K. V. (2014). A cross-cultural investigation of trait emotional intelligence in Hong Kong and the UK. *Personality and Individual Differences, 65*, 30–35. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2014.01.053

Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An alternative "description of personality": The Big Five factor structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 25*, 201–239. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.59.6.1216

Goldberg, L. R., & Rosolack, T. K. (1994). The big five factor structure as an integrative

framework: An empirical comparison with Eysenck's P-E-N model. In C. F. Halverson, G. A. Kohnstamm, & R. P. Martins (Eds.), *The developing structure of temperament and personality from infancy to adulthood* (pp. 7–35). New York, NY: Erlbaum.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (1998). What makes a leader? *Harvard Business Review, 76*(6), 93-102. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/

Gregersen, H., Morrison, A., & Black, J. S. (1998). Developing leaders for the global frontier. *Sloan Management Review, 40*(1), 21. Retrieved from http://sloanreview.mit.edu/

Groves, K. S., & Feyerherm, A. E. (2011). Leader cultural intelligence in context: Testing the moderating effects of team cultural diversity on leader and team performance. *Group & Organization Management, 36*(5), 535–566. doi:10.1177/1059601111415664

Groves, K. S., McEnrue, M. P., & Shen, W. (2008). Developing and measuring the emotional intelligence of leaders. *The Journal of Management Development, 27*(2), 225–250. doi:10.1108/02621710810849353

Grunes, P., Gudmundsson, A., & Irmer, B. (2013). To what extent is the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model of emotional intelligence a useful predictor of leadership and perceived leadership outcomes in Australian educational institutions? *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 42*(1), 112–135.

doi:10.1177/1741143213499255

Herrera, R., Duncan, P. A., Green, M., Ree, M., & Skaggs, S. L. (2011). The relationship

between attitudes toward diversity management in the Southwest USA and the

GLOBE study cultural preferences. *International Journal of Human Resource*

Management, 22(12), 2629–2646. doi:10.1080/09585192.2011.588037

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1969). *Management of organizational behavior:*

Utilizing human resources. Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions*

and organizations across nations. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (2006). What did GLOBE really measure? Researchers' minds versus

respondents' minds. *Journal of International Business Studies, 37*(6), 882–896.

doi:10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400233

Hofstede, G., & Hoppe, M. H. (2004). Gert Hofstede's "Culture's consequences:

International differences in work-related values." *Academy of Management*

Executive, 18(1), 73–74. Retrieved from http://aom.org/journals/

Hofstede, G., & McCrae, R. R. (2004). Personality and culture revisited: Linking traits

and dimensions of culture. *Cross-Cultural Research, 38*(1), 52–88.

doi:10.1177/1069397103259443

Hong, Y. (2009). A dynamic constructivist approach to culture. Moving from describing

culture to explaining culture. In R. S. Wyer, C.Y. Chiu, & Y. Y. Hong (Eds.),

Understanding culture: Theory, research, and application (pp. 3-23). New York,

NY: Psychology Press.

House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Howell, D. C. (2010). *Statistical methods for psychology* (7th ed.). Belmont CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Hutchison, S. (1997). Perceived organizational support: Further evidence of construct validity. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 57*, 1024–1034. Retrieved from http://epm.sagepub.com/

Ilangovan, A., Scroggins, W. A., & Rozeh, E. J. (2007). Managerial perspectives on emotional intelligence differences between India and the United States: The development of research propositions. *International Journal of Management, 24*(3), 541–548. Retrieved from http://www.theijm.com/

Javidan, M., & House, R. J. (2001). Cultural acumen for the global manager: Lessons from Project GLOBE, *Organizational Dynamics*, *29*(4), 289–305. Retrieved from http://www.organizational-dynamics.com

John, O. P., Donahue, E. M., & Kentle, R. L. (1991). *The Big Five Inventory–versions 4a and 54.* Berkeley, CA: University of California, Berkeley, Institute of Personality and Social Research.

Jordan, P. J., Ashkanasy, N. M., Hartel, C. E. J., & Hopper, G. S. (2002). Workgroup emotional intelligence scale development and relationship to team process

effectiveness and goal focus. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*(2), 195–214. doi:10.1016/S1053-4822(02)00046-3

Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(4), 765–780. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.765

Judge, T. A., Colbert, A. E., & Illies, R. (2004). Intelligence and leadership: A quantitative review and test of theoretical propositions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(3), 542–552. Retrieved from http://jap.physiology.org/front

Jung, C. G. (1926). *Psychological types*. New York, NY: Harcourt.

Kelley, R., & Caplan, J. (1993). How Bell Labs creates star performers. *Harvard Business Review, 71*(4), 128–139. Retrieved from http://www.hbr.org/

Kong, F., Zhao, J., & You, X. (2012). Trait emotional intelligence and mental distress: The mediating role of positive and negative affect. *International Journal of Psychology, 47*(6), 460–466. doi:10.1080/00207594.2012.666352

Kotter, J. P. (1998). What leaders really do. *Harvard Business Review, 68*(3), 103-111. Retrieved from https://hbr.org

Kroeber, A. L., & Kluckhohn, C. (1952). *Culture: A critical review of concepts and definitions*. Cambridge, MA: Peabody Museum.

Larsen, T., Rosenbloom, B., Anderson, R., & Mehta, R. (1999). Global sales manager leadership styles: The impact of national culture, *Journal of Global Marketing, 13*(2), 31–48. doi:10.1300/J042v13n02_03

Law, K. C., Wong, C., Huang, G., & Li, X. (2008). The effects of emotional intelligence on job performance and life satisfaction for the research and development scientists in China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 25*(1), 51–69. doi:10.1007/s10490-007-9062-3

Leban, W. V. (2003). The relationship between leader behavior and emotional intelligence of the project manager and the success of complex projects. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A: Humanities & Social Sciences, 64*(5-A). Retrieved from http://www.proquest.com.

Li, J., & Harrison, R. (2008). Corporate governance and national culture: A multi-country study. *Corporate Governance, 8*(5), 607–621. doi:10.1108/14720700810913278

Locke, E. A. (2005). Why emotional intelligence is an invalid concept. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26,* 425–431. doi:10.1002/job.318

Lopes, P. N., Brackett, M. A., Nezlek, J. B., Schutz, A., Sellin, I., & Salovey, P. (2004). Emotional intelligence and social interaction. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30*(8), 1018-1034. doi:10.1177/0146167204264762

Marlowe, H. A. (1986). Social intelligence Evidence for multidimensionality and construct independence. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 78*(1), 267–298. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.78.1.52

Mavroveli, S., Petrides, K. V., Shove, C., & Whitehead, A. (2008). Investigation of the construct of trait emotional intelligence in children. *European Journal of Adolescent Psychiatry, 17,* 516–526. doi:10.1007/s00787-008-0696-6

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional

    standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence, 27*(4), 267–298. Retrieved from

    http://www.journals.elsevier.com/intelligence/

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Carusco, D. R. (2000). *MSCEIT item booklet* (version 2.0).

    Toronto, Ontario: Multi-Health Systems Publishers.

McCrae, R., & Costa, P. T. (1997). Personality trait structure as a human universal.

    American Psychologist, 52, 509–516. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.52.5.509

McCrae, R., & Terracciano, R. (2005). Universal features of personality traits from the

    observer's perspective: Data from 50 cultures. *Journal of Personality and Social*

    Psychology, 88, 547–561. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.88.3.547

Memar, F. F., Abolhassani, A., Azghandi, A. A., & Taghavi, S. H. (2007). The validity

    and reliability of Petrides and Furnham's Trait Emotional Intelligence

    Questionnaire. *Journal of Iranian Psychologists, 3*(10). Retrieved from

    http://www.jip.ir/en/

Mensah, Y. M. (2014). An analysis of the effect of culture and religion on the perceived

    corruption in a global context. *Journal of Business Ethics, 121*(2), 255–282.

    doi:10.1007/s10551-013-1696-0

Metcalf, L., & Benn, S. (2012). The corporation is ailing social technology: Creating a

    "fit for purpose" design for sustainability. *Journal of Business Ethics, 111*(2),

    195–210. doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1201-1

Metcalf, L., & Benn, S. (2013). Leadership for sustainability: An evolution of leadership

ability. *Journal of Business Ethics, 112*(3), 369–384. doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1278-6

Migliore, L. A. (2011). Relation between big five personality traits and Hofstede's cultural dimensions. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, 18*(1), 38–54. doi:10.1108/13527601111104287

Moon, T. (2010). Emotional intelligence correlates of the four-factor model of cultural intelligence. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 25*(8), 876–898. doi:10.1108/02683941011089134

Morley, M. J., & Cerdin, J. (2010). Intercultural competence in the international business arena. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 25*(8), 805–809. doi:10.1108/02683941011089099

Myers, I. B. (1962). *The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator: Manual*. Palto Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Nuliep, J. W., & McCroskey, J. C (1997). The development of intercultural and interethnic communication apprehension scales. *Communication Research Reports, 14*, 385–398. doi:10.1080/08824099709388656

Ott-Holland, C. J., Huang, J. L., Ryan, A., Elizondo, F., & Wadlington, P. L. (2013). Culture and vocational interests: The moderating role of collectivism and gender egalitarianism. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 60(4), 569–581 doi:10.1037/a0033587

Oyserman, D., & Sorensen, N. (2009). Oyserman & Sorensen: Understanding cultural

syndrome effects on what and how we think. In R. S. Wyer, C. Y. Chiu, & Y. Y. Hong (Eds), *Understanding culture: Theory, research, and application* (pp. 25-52). New York, NY: Psychology Press.

Pagano, R. R. (2010). *Understanding statistics in the behavioral sciences* (9th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2004). *Technical manual of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue).* London, England: University of London, Institute of Education.

Petrides, K. V. (2011). Ability and trait emotional intelligence. In T. Chamorro-Premuzic, A. Furnham, & S. von Stumm (Eds.), *The Blackwell–Wiley handbook of individual differences* (pp. 656-678). New York, NY: Wiley.

Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2001). Trait emotional intelligence. Psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies. *European Journal of Personality, 15*(6), 425–428. doi:10.1002/per.416

Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2003). Trait emotional intelligence: Behavioral validation in two studies of emotion recognition and reactivity to mood induction. *European Journal of Personality, 17*(1), 39–57. doi:10.1002/per.466

Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2006). The role of trait emotional intelligence in a gender-specific model of organizational variables. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*(2), 552–569. doi:10.1111/j.0021-9029.2006.00019.x

Petrides, K. V., Perez-Gonzalez, J. C., & Furnham, A. (2007). On the criterion and

incremental validity of trait emotional intelligence. *Cognition and Emotion, 21*(1), 26–55. doi:10.1080/02699930601038912

Petrides, K. V., Pita, R., & Kokkinaki, F. (2007). The location of trait emotional intelligence in personality factor space. *British Journal of Psychology, 98*(2), 273–289. doi:10.1348/000712606X120618

Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: Problems and prospects. *Journal of Management, 12*, 531-544. doi:10.1177/014920638601200408

Reilly, A. H., & Karounos, T. J. (2009). Exploring the link between emotional intelligence and cross-cultural leadership effectiveness. *Journal of International Business and Cultural Studies, 1,* 1–13. Retrieved from http://www.aabri.com/jibcs.html

Riggio, R. E. (2010). Emotional and other intelligences. In R. Couto (Ed.) *Political and civic leadership* (pp. 997-1005). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Riggio, R. E., Riggio, H. R., Salinas, C., & Cole, E. J. (2003). The role of social and emotional communication skills in leader emergence and effectiveness. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research and Practice, 7*(2), 83–103. doi:10.1037/1089-2699.7.2.83

Roberts, R., Zeidner, M., & Matthews, G. (2001). Does emotional intelligence meet traditional standards for an intelligence? Some new data and conclusions. *Emotion, 1*(3), 196–231. doi:10.1037/1528-3542.1.3.196

Rockstuhl, T., Seiler, S., Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Annen, H. (2011). Beyond general

    intelligence (IQ) and emotional intelligence (EI): The role of cultural intelligence

    (CI) on cross-border leadership effectiveness in a globalized world. *Journal of*

    Social Issues, 67(4), 825–840. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4560.2011.01730.x

Rossen, E., & Kranzler, J. H. (2009). Incremental validity of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso

    Emotional Intelligence Test Version 2. (MSCEIT) after controlling for personality

    and intelligence. *Journal of Research in Personality, 43*(1), 60–65.

    doi:10.1016/j.jrp.2008.12.002

Salovey, P. & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition &*

    Personality, 9(3), 185–211. Retrieved from

    http://www.baywood.com/journals/previewjournals.asp?Id=0276-2366

Sayeed, O. B., & Shanker, M. (2009). Emotionally intelligent managers &

    transformational leadership styles. *The Indian Journal of Industrial Relations,*

    44(4), 593-610. Retrieved from http://www.srcirhr.com/ijir.php

Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership* (4th ed.). San Francisco,

    CA: Jossey-Bass.

Scholte, R. H. J., & De Bruyn, E. E. J. (2004). Comparison of the giant three and the big

    five in early adolescents. *Personality and Individual Differences, 36*(6), 1353–

    1371. doi:10.1016/S0191-8869(03)00234-4

Schutte, N. S., & Loi, N. M. (2014). Connections between emotional intelligence and

    workplace flourishing. *Personality and Individual Differences, 66*, 134–139.

doi:10.1016/j.paid.2014.03.031

Schwartz, S. H. (1994). In Kim, U., Triandis, H. C., Kagitcibasi, C., Choi, S. C., and Yoon, G. (Eds.), *Beyond individualism/collectivism, new dimensions of values, individualism and collectivism: Theory application and methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Shemueli, R. G., & Dolan, S. (2011). Do emotions matter? The role of emotional intelligence competences in cross-cultural assignment for international assignment. *Management Research: The Journal of the Iberoamerican Academy of Management, 9*(3), 207–229. doi:10.1108/1536-541111181912

Shipper, F., Kincaid, J., Rotondo, D. M., & Hoffman, R. C. (2003). A cross-cultural exploratory study of the linkage between emotional intelligence and managerial effectiveness. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 11*(3), 171–191. doi:10.1108/eb028970

Siegling, A. B., Nielsen, C., & Petrides, K. V. (2014). Trait emotional intelligence and leadership in a European multinational company. *Personality and Individual Differences, 65*, 65–68. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2014.01.049

Siegling, A. B., Sfeir, M., & Smyth, H. J. (2014). Measured and self-estimated trait emotional intelligence in a UK sample of managers. *Personality and Individual Differences, 65*, 59–64. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2014.01.027

Singleton, R. A., & Straits, B. C. (2010). *Approaches to social research* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Smith, P. B. (2011). Communication styles as dimensions of national culture. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 42*(2), 216–233. doi:10.1177/0022022110396866

Stevens, J. P. (2009). Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences (5th ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Routledge Academic.

Sternberg, R. J. (1985). *Beyond IQ: A triarchic theory of human intelligence.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Sungwon, C., Kluemper, D. H., & Sauley, K. S. (2011). What if we fake emotional intelligence? A test of criterion validity attenuation. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *93*(3), 270–277. doi:10.1080/00223891.2011.558870

Tabachnick, B. G. & Fidell, L. S. (2012). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Tang, H. V., Yin, M., & Nelson, D. B. (2010). The relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership practices: A cross-cultural study of academic leaders in Taiwan and the USA. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 25*(8), 899–926. doi:10.1108/02683941011089143

Thorndike, R. L., & Stein, S. (1937). An evaluation of the attempts to measure social intelligence. *Psychological Bulletin, 34*, 275–285. doi:10.1037/h0053850

Trochim, W. & Donnelly, J. (2008). *The research methods knowledge base* (3rd ed.). Mason, OH: Cengage.

Ugarriza, N. (2001). La evaluación de la inteligencia emocional a través del inventario de BarOn (I-CE) en una muestra de Lima Metropolitana. *Persona, 4*, 129–160.

Retrieved from http://www.redalyc.org/home.oa

Vangeant. (2002). *Integrity express*. Chicago, IL: Vangeant.

Vera, M. (2008, November). *Emotional intelligence and communication apprehension in intercultural relationships.* Paper presented at the 93rd annual meeting of the National Communication Association, San Diego, CA.

Vigoda-Gadot, E., & Meisler, G. (2010, January/February). Emotions in management and the management of emotions: The impact of emotional intelligence and organizational politics on public sector employees. *Public Administration Review*, 72–86. doi:10.1111/j.1540-6210.2009.02112.x

Walker, R. E., & Foley, J. M. (1973). Social intelligence: Its history and measurement. *Psychological Reports, 33*, 839–864. Retrieved from http://www.amsciepub.com/loi/pr0

Walter, F., Cole, M. S., & Humphrey, R. H. (February 2011). Emotional intelligence: Sine qua non of leadership or folderol? *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 45–59. Retrieved from http://amp.aom.org/content/25/1/45.abstract

Wolff, S. B. (2005). *Emotional competency inventory technical manual.* Boston, MA: The Hay Group.

Wonderlic, E. F. (2003). *Wonderlic Personnel Quicktest (WPT-Q) user's guide.* EF Wonderlic: Libertyville, IL.

Wong, C. S., & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *The Leadership*

Quarterly, 13(3), 243–274. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(02)00099-1

Zaccaro, S. J. (2002). Organizational leadership and social intelligence. In R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, & F. J. Pirozzolo (Eds.), *Multiple intelligences and leadership* (pp. 29–54). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Appendix A: TEIQue-SF

Instructions: Please answer each statement below by putting a circle around the number that best reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with that statement. Do not think too long about the exact meaning of the statements. Work quickly and try to answer as accurately as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. There are seven possible responses to each statement ranging from 'Completely Disagree' (number 1) to 'Completely Agree' (number 7).

1 . . . . 2 . . . . 3 . . . . 4 . . . . 5 . . . . 6 7

Completely Disagree   **Completely Agree**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. On the whole, I am a highly motivated person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I generally do not find life enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I can deal effectively with people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I tend to change my mind frequently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Many times, I cannot figure out what emotion I am feeling.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I often find it difficult to stand up for my rights.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I am usually able to influence the way other people feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Those close to me often complain that I do not treat them right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. On the whole, I am able to deal with stress.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I'm normally able to "get into someone's shoes" and experience their emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I am usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. On the whole, I am pleased with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I would describe myself as a good negotiator.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I often pause and think about my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I believe I am full of personal strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I tend to "back down" even if I know I am right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I do not seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

29. Generally, I am able to adapt to new environments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Others admire me for being relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Scoring key: Reverse-score the following items and then sum up all responses

I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me. (R) 16
I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint. (R) 2
I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated. (R) 18
I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions. (R) 4
I generally do not find life enjoyable. (R) 5
I tend to change my mind frequently. (R) 7
I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of. (R) 22
Many times, I cannot figure out what emotion I am feeling. (R) 8
I normally find it difficult to stand up for my rights. (R) 10
I tend to "back down" even if I know I am right. (R) 25
I do not seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings. (R) 26
Overall, I have a gloomy perspective on most things. (R) 12
Those close to me often complain that I do not treat them right. (R) 13
I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me. (R) 28
I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances. (R) 14

*Numbers on the right correspond to the position of the items in the short form of the questionnaire.