KARADENİZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY * INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

PhD IN BUSINESS ADMINSTRATION

THE IMPACT OF INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE ON GLOBAL LEADERSHIP EMERGENCE: THE MODERATED MEDIATION EFFECT OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE AND INTERCULTURAL ADJUSTMENT

PhD DISSERTATION

Huda MOHAMMAD AREF QASIM

JULY-2021

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Dissertation Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Adnan ÖZYILMAZ

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APPROVAL

Upon the submission of the dissertation, **Huda MOHAMMAD AREF QASIM**, had have defended the study **"The Impact of International Experience on Global Leadership Emergence: The Moderated Mediation Effect of Cultural Intelligence and Intercultural Adjustment"** in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration at Karadeniz Technical University, and the study has been found fully adequate in scope and quality as a **unanimous/majority** vote on **20.08.2021**.

Committee Members		Decision		Signature
Name and Surname	**Mission**	**Accept**	**Reject**	
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Approved of Graduate School of Social Sciences.

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Huda MOHAMMAD AREF QASIM, hereby confirm, and clarify that:

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14.07.2021

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The field of leadership research has been an integral part of organizational behavioural research for a significant period of time. With globalization, and as organizations started expanding internationally, the need for global leadership emerged. The capacity to lead people from different cultural back grounds and the ability to provide effective leadership in different cultural contexts presented a challenge to practitioners, that was soon reflected in global leadership emerging as distinctive research field. However, the majority of research done in the field either views global leadership as a learnt capacity (learning approach), or as an innate characteristic that people are either born with or without (personality trait approach).

The current study merges the learning and personality trait approaches together, and thus presents a comprehensive understanding on how global leadership potential emerges. It does so by indicating that not only does international experience allows an individual to develop leadership potential through the elevating their cultural intelligence and intercultural adjustment sequentially, but that that the personality traits an individual possesses determine to a large extend the level to which he/she is capable of leveraging that international experience as a learning opportunity that allows him/her to develop global leadership capabilities.

This dissertation makes two important contributions to the global leadership research field. First, it expands the understanding of the social cognitive theory in the global leadership field by introducing personality traits as self-regulatory mechanisms that influence the outcomes of the social learning process. Second, it illustrates how the impact of personality traits goes beyond affecting cultural intelligence and intercultural adjustment as preliminary outputs for international experience, but also indirectly influences global leadership potential.

I would like to thank my supervisor Associated Professor Adnan ÖZYILMAZ for his incredible support and guidance throughout this study.

July, 14.07.2021   Huda MOHAMMAD AREF QASIM

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ÖZET

Sosyal bilişsel teoriden yola çıkarak bu çalışma, kültürel zeka ve kültürlerarası uyumun uluslararası deneyim ve küresel liderlik potansiyelleri arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık ettiğini iddia etti. Bu çalışma, uluslararası deneyim ile kültürel zeka arasındaki ilişkinin gücünün çalışanın kişilik özelliklerine, genel özyeterliğine ve dil yeterliliğine bağlı olduğunu ve uluslararası deneyim ile kültürlerarası uyum arasındaki ilişkinin gücünün çalışanların çalışanlarına bağlı olduğunu beklemektedir. genel öz-yeterlik ve dil yeterliliği düzeyi. Avustralya'da çok franchise'lı bir kuruluşta 312 çalışandan üç aşamalı bir süreçte veri toplamak için bir anket uygulandı. Bulgular, kültürel zekanın uluslararası deneyim ile küresel liderlik potansiyeli arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık ettiğini ve uluslararası deneyimin kültürlerarası uyum üzerindeki etkisinin kültürel zeka tarafından aracılık ettiğini göstermiştir. Bu nedenle, en büyük katkı, kültürlerarası uyumun etkisinin sıralı ve kültürel zeka yoluyla olduğunu göstermektir. Ek olarak, ilişkinin gücünün dil yeterliliği ve deneyime açıklık düzeyine bağlı olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, yüksek düzeyde dışadönüklük ve kabul edilebilirlik, uluslararası deneyim ve kültürel zeka arasındaki ilişkiyi güçlendirmekle kalmamış, aynı zamanda bu kişilik özelliklerinin daha düşük düzeyleri de birlikteliğin doğasını olumsuza çevirmiştir. Dışadönüklük ve uyumluluk, yalnızca uluslararası deneyimin kültürel zeka üzerindeki etkisini yumuşatmakla kalmadı, aynı zamanda uluslararası deneyimin kültürel zeka yoluyla küresel liderlik potansiyeli üzerindeki dolaylı etkisini de yumuşattı. Ayrıca, uluslararası deneyim ve kültürlerarası uyum arasındaki ilişkinin gücünün genel öz-yeterliğe bağlı olduğunu, yüksek düzeyde dil yeterliliğinin uluslararası deneyim ve kültürlerarası uyum arasındaki ilişkiyi güçlendirdiğini, düşük düzeyde dil yeterliliğinin ise kültürlerarası uyum arasındaki ilişkiyi tersine çevirdiğini bulduk. yapılar. Mevcut çalışmanın en önemli teorik katkısı, sosyal bilişsel teoriye dayalı öğrenme ve kişilik merceklerini birleştirerek, teori anlayışını kişilik özelliklerini öz-düzenleme mekanizmaları olarak içerecek şekilde genişleterek küresel liderlik geliştirme sürecine ilişkin kapsamlı bir anlayış oluşturmaktır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Küresel Liderlik Potansiyeli, Kültürel Zeka, Kültürlerarası Uyum, Kişilik Özellikleri, Dil Yeterliliği.

ABSTRACT

Drawing on the social cognitive theory this study contended that cultural intelligence and intercultural adjustment mediated the relationship between international experience and global leadership potentials. This study expected that the strength of the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence depended on the personality traits, general self-efficacy, and language proficiency of the employee and that the strength of the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment depended on the employees' level of general self-efficacy and language proficiency. A questionnaire to collect data from 312 employees in a multi-franchise organization in Australia in a three-tier process was administered. The findings indicated that cultural intelligence mediates the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential, and that the effect international experience has on intercultural adjustment is mediated by cultural intelligence. Hence, the major contribution is illustrating that the effect intercultural adjustment has is sequential and through cultural intelligence. Moreover, the strength of the relationship was found to be conditioned upon the level of language proficiency and openness to experience. Furthermore, not only did higher levels of extroversion and agreeableness strengthen the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence, but also lower levels of these personality traits change the nature of association into a negative. Extroversion and agreeableness not only moderated the impact of international experience on cultural intelligence, but they also moderated the indirect impact of international experience on global leadership potential through cultural intelligence. We have also found that the strength of the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment depended on the general self-efficacy, while higher levels of language proficiency strengthen the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment whereas lower levels of language proficiency reverse the association between the constructs. The current study's most important theoretical contribution is building a comprehensive understanding of global leadership development process by merging the learning and personality lenses based on the social cognitive theory through expanding the understanding of theory to include personality traits as self-regulatory mechanisms.

Keywords: Global Leadership Potential, Cultural Intelligence, Intercultural Adjustment, Personality Traits, Language Proficiency.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BCQ	: Behavioural Cultural Intelligence
BTI	: Basic Test Inventory
CCQ	: Cognitive Cultural Intelligence
CE	: Cultural Empathy
CFA	: Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	: Comparative Fit Index
CI	: Confidence Interval
CMV	: Common Method Variance
CQ	: Cultural Intelligence
DF	: Degree of Freedom
EL	: Educational Level
ES	: Emotional Stability
F	: Flexibility
GFI	: Goodness of Fit Index
GLP	: Global Leadership Potential
GSE	: General Self-Efficacy
HR	: Human Resources
ICA	Inter-Cultural Adjustment
IE	: International Experience
IFI	: Incremental Fit Index
LP	: Language Proficiency
MCQ	: Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence
MOTCQ	: Motivational Cultural Intelligence
MSB	: Mean Square Between-groups
MSW	: Mean Square Within-groups
NFI	: Normed Fit Index
NNFI	: Non-Normative Fit Index
OM	: Open Mindedness
OtE	: Openness to Experience
RMSEA	: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SCT	: Social Categorization Theory
SD	: Standard Deviation
SI	: Social Initiative

SRMR   : Standardized Root Mean Residual

TLI   : Tucker-Lewis Index

ToA   : Tolerance of Ambiguity

VIF   : Variance Inflation Factor

INTRODUCTION

Global leadership has emerged as the most valuable form of leadership (Osland et al., 2020). The value of global leaders stems from their ability to deal effectively with the complexities associated with internationalization; they can identify business opportunities in the global arena (Morrison, 2000). Furthermore, they can motivate, and manage employees in geographically scattered diverse teams, they can also promote innovation (Islam et al., 2019), and these capabilities are considered vital in the organization's ability to expand offshore. Global leaders empower their employees and act as catalysts for strategic cultural change (Rahman, 2019). They communicate effectively across cultures and contribute to the success of their organization (Islam et al., 2019). Global organizations present the need for global leaders capable of dealing with a great deal of uncertainty, leaders who can think globally, act locally, and can create global integration without giving away with local responsiveness (Conger & O'neill, 2012). Therefore, global leadership capabilities scarce as they are have become a source of competitive advantage for organizations (Osland et al., 2020). The lack of global leadership capabilities is considered one of the most urgent challenges faced by organizations (Lane et al., 2017; Vora, 2020). Organizations need to make a knowledgeable selection decision, and design effective training programs to be able to overcome this challenge (Tarique & Weisbord, 2018). However, doing so requires a comprehensive understanding of the global leadership development process. This limited understanding of the global leadership development process will continue to drive research until a uniform understanding of the process is reached (McClellan, 2021).

Global leadership occurs when an individual takes a multi-faceted approach that stems from a global mindset to interacting with others (Mendenhall et al., 2012). A global leader is seen as someone who can understand, function, and manage in a global context, someone who has a flexible leadership style and capable of accommodating different cultural contexts. Research links these capabilities to cultural intelligence and intercultural adjustment (Ramalu et al., 2010; Shu et al., 2016). Those competencies are rather homogeneous across cultures, such competencies are not to be gained over a short period, nor with limited practice, which makes it that much more important to recognize the global leadership potential in employees so that they can be nurtured (Mukherjia et al., 2016; Park et al., 2018; Solomon & Steyn, 2017).

The learning lane and the personality trait lane are two distinct lanes/lenses within which research has been conducted in the field of global leadership, the learning lane of global leadership research focuses on the role of training and observation in the development of global leadership

potential (Vijayakumar et al., 2018). First-hand international experience is believed to be the most effective learning tool when it comes to the development of global leadership potential (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Mor et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2009b; Osland, 2008; Triandis, 1972). This lane of research focuses on the individual ability to accumulate knowledge and translate it to new skills and behaviors through experience (Vijayakumar et al., 2018). Research in this area is dominated by the contact theory (Caligiuri, 2006; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012), the social learning theory (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; Macnab & Worthley, 2012; Van Dyne & Ang, 2006), the situated learning theory (Şahin et al., 2014), the experiential learning theory (Li et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2009b), and social categorization theory (Erez et al., 2013; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). All these theories are deployed in an attempt to explain how cross-cultural interaction can be a learning experience that results in the development of the skills and competencies of global leadership. The personality trait lane focuses on the impact certain personality traits might have on the effectiveness of the global leader. Personality traits are the immutable characteristics that differentiate between the high performers and those who fail in international assignments (Van Dyne & Ang, 2006). There is a clear dominance of the big five-personality trait as the underpinning theory in this lane (Vijayakumar et al., 2018).

This study deploys the contact theory (Allport, 1954) to explain the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential. The basic premise is that the chance of meaningful contact with individuals from different cultures under the right conditions provided by international cultural experience is likely to eliminate prejudice and promote social tolerance among the parties. Allowing the individual to develop higher cultural awareness and improving their cross-cultural capabilities (Rosenblatt et al., 2013), such capabilities are essential in global leaders (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011). This research will also draw on the social learning theory to explain the relationship between international experiences, on the one hand, and global leadership potential through intercultural adjustment (Bandura, 1986). As the individuals during their international experience are likely to go through the attention, retention, production, and motivation phases. Which is how they learn to adapt and adjust to different cultural contexts (Takeuchi & Chen, 2013), the positive adjustment experience results in higher willingness to engage in future cross-cultural interactions critical for global leaders as opposed to maladjustment that is associated with failure and premature returns (Caligiuri, 2000). The social learning theory also explains how self-efficacy can strengthen the relationship between international experience on one hand and cultural intelligence and intercultural adjustment on the other. The level of self-efficacy determines the effort that is going to be dedicated to performing the task at hand (Bandura, 1977a), meaning that higher self-efficacy results in dedicating more effort to overcoming the challenges associated with cross-cultural interactions, leading to higher cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003) and better intercultural adjustment (Nguyen et al., 2018). The personality trait theory proposed by Cattell (1943) states that individuals with certain personality traits have more flexibility and different thought structure, which provide grounds for explaining why international experience will

have an ununiformed impact among individuals, and why international experience will yield higher cultural intelligence (Şahin et al., 2014) and higher global leadership potential thereafter for certain individuals than it would for others.

Research in the global leadership field can be criticized for several issues: Firstly, the field lacks a comprehensive model of global leadership potential (Park et al., 2018). Existing models also fail to predict global leadership potential in employees (Osland, 2008). Being unable to identify the antecedents of global leadership potential prohibits organizations from making informed selection and training decisions (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). Secondly, even the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential is not a direct one (Li et al., 2013), the nature of this relationship has not been settled yet. Previous research has suggested that the relationship is moderated by cultural intelligence (Li et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2009b; Ramsey et al., 2017), at other instances cultural intelligence was presented as a mediator (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012), along with inconsistencies in research results regarding the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence despite its intuitive appeal (Ott & Michailova, 2018). Thirdly, research focused on studying the simple and direct effect international experience has on the development of cultural intelligence (Ott & Michailova, 2018). With an underlying assumption that the impact international experience has on cultural intelligence is a uniform one, even though the relationship is not simple. Different people might have the same depth and breadth of international experience but the impact of such experience may not be the same. Up until now, there has not been any scientific explanation as to why such variance exists (Kumar et al., 2008). This begs for presenting moderators to the relationship in future research (Ott & Michailova, 2018). Finally, despite acknowledging the existing overlap in the competencies needed for both, current research fails to provide an understanding of the relationship between intercultural adjustment and global leadership potential (Mendenhall, 2001).

The moderated mediation model presented by this study will remedy many of the issues in global leadership research by illustrating how and when international experience yields global leadership potential. First, instead of opting for a single path through which international experience improves global leadership potential (cultural intelligence) (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012), which have limited the predictive abilities of previous models (Osland, 2008), this current research model introduces two paths through which international experience can lead to higher global leadership potential (cultural intelligence and intercultural adjustment) which is expected to improve the predictive abilities of the research model. This research model will help overcome the inconsistencies in previous research studying the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence and resolve it by introducing moderating variables that present the contingencies under which the relationship will be stronger. The research model will explain the ununiformed impact international experience has on cultural intelligence, intercultural adjustment, and global leadership potential by extension, through taking into account how certain personality

traits (extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and self-efficacy) along with language proficiency can maximize influence some international experience has on cultural intelligence. The research model will also provide a well-grounded theoretical explanation of the relationship between intercultural adjustment and global leadership potential, and explain how and why intercultural adjustment can predict global leadership potential.

The present study aims to make the following contributions; first, it will present a better understanding of the antecedents of global leadership potential and how they interact with the big-five personality traits, self-efficacy, along language proficiency. That will be done by combining two of the main lanes in the global leadership research field (the learning lane and the personality trait lane) (Vijayakumar et al., 2018). Combining the two lanes is warranted for, given the influence, the leader's personality has on the effectiveness of their learning, and whether the learning opportunities are maximized or not (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; Dalton & Ernst, 2004), which will allow the development of a comprehensive model with sufficient predictive abilities. This research will also contribute to the body of literature in the global leadership field by testing the research model in the Australian context. This study will also validate a measurement tool that can be used in the Australian context as well. Finally, the findings of this study can serve as guidelines in the employees' selection process as well as organizational career planning for organizations seeking to foster global leadership potentials in current or potential employees, the findings should also be of use to individuals for their personal development and career planning purposes.

The study will use a quantitative research methodology to test the developed model. After a thorough review of previous research in the field of global leadership, the research hypothesis will be developed. To build a proper measurement tool, existing measurement tools will be assessed, items selected from literature or developed by the author will be designed in ways that ensure cultural propriety, and experts will be consulted. The questionnaire was administered using a data collection process that is designed to elevate the possibility of common method variance. The gathered data will be statistically analysed to test the research hypothesis.

The study is implemented in the Australian context, which is clustered as a short-term oriented, low power distance, highly individualistic, masculine, and low uncertainty avoidance culture (Hofstede, 2001). High individualism is known to induce higher workforce diversity (Lombardo, 2011). Individuals from different cultural backgrounds work together within a highly diversified workforce, bringing about unique leadership challenges (Green et al. 2002). Conducting the study of global leadership potential in the Australian context is especially relevant. Because it would provide an insight into the process of global leadership development through international experience in an individualistic national culture. Where people are expected to pay less attention to behaviour influencing external factors such as context, norms, and values than in collectivist

cultures, and hence are expected to face more challenges in the process of developing global leadership potential given the contextuality of cultural intelligence and intercultural adjustment capabilities (Triandis, 2006).

The first chapter of this study will begin with a thorough review of the literature, to synthesize the existing research and identify inconsistencies and shortcomings. The second chapter will also include the theoretical background for developing the research model and hypothesis. The third chapter will explain the methodology that is going to be used to test the proposed hypothesis, it will also include a description of the measurement tool, how it was developed, the sampling technique, and the design of the data collection process. The findings chapter (chapter four) will detail the statistical tests implemented, including the tests used to validate the measurement instrument, and the ones used to test the proposed model. Finally, the results and contributions chapter will compare and contrast the findings of this study to previous literature, the possible limitations of the study, future research directions, and both the academic and practical implications of the findings.

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CHAPTER ONE

1. THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

1.1. Relevant Theories

The global leadership research field is characterized by being founded on a wide variety of theories, with no clear dominance of any particular theory other than the theory of cultural intelligence (CQ) (Mendenhall et al., 2012). Alongside the CQ theory, this section will discuss the theories underpinning the current study (contact theory, the social categorization theory, the personality trait theory, and the social cognitive theory), and how they relate to the global leadership research. Not only that but also this section will attempt to consolidate the multiple theories underpinning the relationships between the constructs of the study under one overarching theory.

1.1.1. Contact Theory

The contact theory has a longstanding status as one of the most important theories explaining intergroup relations (Pettigrew, 1998). According to the contact theory, the social interaction between different groups significantly improves intergroup relations (Allport, 1954). Provided that, the social interaction in question satisfies the following conditions: equal status among the parties, institutional support, highly frequent interactions, and working to achieve a common goal. Intergroup contact has been shown to reduce prejudice (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). Because contact increases intergroup empathy by helping the individual to understand how out-group members feel and how they perceive the world (Pettigrew, 1998). The reduction of prejudice and change in attitude resulting from intergroup contact encompasses four processes of change: 1. Learning about the out-group: This is the most effective process in reducing prejudice (Allport, 1954), as intergroup contacts facilitate learning new information and correcting the existing negative views about the out-group. 2. Changing behavior: Being exposed to new situations dictates conforming to expectations, the change of behavior over time and through repetition results in a change of attitude (Zajonc, 1968). 3. Generating effective

Continued and optimal contact reduces anxiety and gives rise to a range of positive emotions towards the out-group such as empathy and admiration. This introduces the chance of building intergroup friendships. 4. In-group appraisal: Ibehaiontergroup contact does not only influence

intergroup dynamics, but it also provides in-group members with a new insight into their own group's norms and values, which might result in reshaping the in-group into a more tolerant one (Pettigrew, 1998). Intergroup contact provides the chance to gather intergroup information, reduces the prejudice, anxiety, and uncertainty associated with intergroup interactions, and increases intergroup awareness and empathy. Hence, it allows individuals to build positive and functional intergroup relations.

The interaction between individuals from different cultures will decrease prejudice and increase mutual understanding among members of the group (Hanvey, 1979), through facilitating, and accelerating a cultural learning process (Ward, 2004), because it provides the individual with factual knowledge about the foreign culture which reduces the anxiety associated with cross-cultural contact and increases empathy felt toward host-nationals (Caligiuri, 2006; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). Therefore, cross-cultural relations and expatriate research have been one of the permanent fields for applying the contact theory as it has been used as the theoretical foundation to explain the relationship between international experiences on one hand and constructs like CQ (Engle & Crowne, 2014; Macnab & Worthley, 2012), intercultural adjustment (Caligiuri, 2000; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Selmer, 2002), and intercultural effectiveness (Shay & Baack, 2004; Wang & Varma, 2018). The contact hypothesis provides grounds for explaining how cross-cultural interaction and intercultural exposure may reduce anxiety and prejudice, promote tolerance and cultural empathy; it has been used in global leadership research (Caligiuri, 2006; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012).

1.1.2. The Personality Trait Theory and the Big-Five Model

The personality trait theory presented by Cattell (1943) has it that personality traits predict behaviors. The big-five model was originally based on Cattell's (1943) work, and they are a summary of the 171 traits presented in the original work (Corr & Matthews, 2009). Considerable overlap between the 171 traits have been detected, and a rather operational personality trait taxonomy that consists of five major traits (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability) emerged (Costa & McCrea, 1985), each of which have several facets as illustrated in Table 1 (John & Srivastava, 1999). Every trait entails a wide set of behavioral characteristics (Soto, 2018). The openness to experience dimension aims at distinguishing between being open to new ideas and being conventional (Costa & McCrea, 1985), individuals who are open to experience are characterized as intellectually curious, imaginative, and creative (McCrea & Costa, 1997). The conscientiousness dimension distinguishes between being deliberate and being careless, conscientious individuals are characterized as self-motivated, goal-oriented, and well-organized (Costa & McCrea, 1985). The Extraversion dimension makes the distinction between being outgoing and being introverted, extraverted individuals are known to engage in more interpersonal interaction and are characterized as energetic, talkative, and self-

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assertive (McCrea & Costa, 1997). Agreeableness is the dimension distinguishing between good-natured and cynicism, agreeable individuals are pro-social oriented, cooperative, and trusting. The final dimension makes the distinction between emotional stability and emotional instability, emotionally stable individuals are more adaptive, less anxious, and calm (McCrae & John, 1992).

Table 1: Facets of the Big Five Personality Traits

Personality Trait	Sub-Dimensions	Personality Trait	Sub-Dimensions
Extroversion	Gregariousness (Sociable) Assertiveness (Forceful) Activity (Energetic) Excitement-Seeking (Adventurous) Positive Emotions (Enthusiastic) Warmth (Outgoing)	Conscientiousness	Competence (Efficient) Order (Organized) Dutifulness (Not Careless) Achievement Striving (Thorough) Self-Discipline (Not Lazy) Deliberation (Not Impulsive)
Agreeableness	Trust (Forgiving) Straightforwardness (Not Demanding) Altruism (Warm) Compliance (Not Stubborn) Modesty (Not Show-Off) Tender-Mindedness (Sympathetic)	Openness To Experience	Ideas (Curious) Fantasy (Imaginative) Aesthetics (Artistic) Actions (Wide Interests) Feelings (Excitable) Values (Unconventional)
Emotional Stability	Anxiety (Tense) Angry Hostility (Irritable) Depression (Not Contented) Self-Consciousness (Shy) Impulsiveness (Moody) Vulnerability (Not Self-Confident)		

Source: John & Srivastava, 1999:110

The big-five personality trait model has been heavily utilized in organizational behavior research as a reliable and acceptable measure to explain individual differences (Shaffer, 2006). The use of personality traits to explain cross-cultural behavior has also been noted (Ang et al., 2006; Caligiuri, 2000; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Shaffer et al., 2006; Şahin et al., 2014). Personality traits predispose an individual's behavior in cross-cultural interactions (Caligiuri, 2000), therefore they are critical in the outcomes of international experience (Dalton & Ernst, 2004), the development of CQ (Ang et al., 2006; Oolders et al., 2008; Şahin et al., 2014; Ward & Fischer, 2008), and cross-cultural competencies effectiveness (Caligiuri, 2000). Studying the impact of personality traits on cross-cultural leadership activates started with expatriate managers and was later extended to include global leadership, given that certain personality traits were found to influence the actual or potential effects of global leaders (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012).

1.1.3. Social Categorization Theory

The social categorization theory (SCT; Turner, 1987) was developed to explain the existence of groups and the likelihood of interaction among them. Social categories are "cognitive groups of oneself and some class of stimuli as the same (identical, similar, equivalent, interchangeable, and so on) in contrast to some other class of stimuli". The categorization process is increasingly inclusive and abstract, and categories are organized by their levels of abstraction. The theory identifies three main levels of categorization that shape the self-concept; human identity, social identity, personal identity. The social identity level is the intermediate level of categorization that defines "self" as a member of a social group (in-group) as opposed to other groups (out-groups) (Hornsey & Hogg, 2000). There are infinite numbers of social categories that can serve as grounds for categorization. The SCT posits that accessibility and fit define the grounds for categorization in any given context. Fit refers to the degree to which the given social category is diagnostic of social reality, and reflects real differences, a social category is said to be a good fit if it minimizes intragroup differences and maximizes intergroup differences. Furthermore, the use of a particular category is closely linked to its accessibility otherwise known as perceiver readiness that is reflective of the individual's past experiences, values, goals, and needs (Voci, 2006).

The social classification process serves two main purposes. First, it facilitates the segmentation and order of the social environment. Second, it enables the individual to locate him/herself within that social environment (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Bringing about social self-identification where the individual defines him/herself in relation to other group members (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). People use social categorization to infer social information about an individual among meeting them, and whether they are an in-group member or an out-group member. Whenever an individual operating in a foreign environment fails to identify with host-nationals they are perceived as an out-group member, which can cause mental and cognitive biases that hinder cross-group effectiveness (Cronin et al., 2011). Whereas being able to identify with the host-national can lead to adherence to the behavioral norms of that group (Turner, 1984). Language proficiency is used as grounds for social categorization and self-identification in cross-cultural contexts (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Individuals who have high language proficiency are perceived as in-group members, whereas individuals who have low language proficiency are viewed as out-group members in both work and non-work environments (Selmer, 2006; Shaffer et al., 1999; Takeuchi et al., 2002; Peltokorpi, 2008).

1.1.4. Social Cognitive Theory

The social cognitive theory is a holistic learning theory that tries to explain the determinants of human motivation and action. The theory states that cognitive, behavioral, and other personal and environmental factors interact to determine human behavior. The interaction is characterized

by reciprocity and bi-directionality. The reciprocity of the interaction does not necessitate equality of strength nor simultaneity (Bandura, 1986). The theory describes a human agency model where the individual is neither completely autonomous nor entirely controlled by their environment. It differentiates between three types of environments; an imposed, a selected, and a constructed environment. According to the social cognitive theory, the environment is not entirely imposed. A particular social environment along with its reward and punishment systems is only a possibility that is realized when actively selected through action on the part of the individual (Bandura, 1997).

The social cognitive theory states that social diffusion is governed by three mechanisms (Bandura, 1986); first the symbolic modeling through which knowledge, new practices, ideas, and their values are acquired. The second mechanism determines adoption, where several factors including self-efficacy determine whether or not an individual will put what they have learned into practice. The final major mechanism in the social defies process is the social network and the ties connecting people that can act as a path of influence. These social relations determine what gets diffused through social networks (Bandura, 1986; Granovetter, 1983)

Symbolic modeling is a basic form of learning that includes direct experience that takes place through the positive or negative consequences of a certain behavior, and the experienced consequences determine future behavior. The social learning process goes through four phases: 1. the attention phase: noticing the behavior. 2. Retention phase: where the behavior is modeled and coded into memory. 3. The reproduction phase: This entails decoding the modeled behavior and translating it into action. 4. The incentive and motivation phase: At this stage, the behavior is reassessed based on the consequences of the environment. When the environment feedback is positive, the learned behavior is retained and repeated, and when the feedback is negative the behavior is refined or omitted (Bandura, 2008).

Efficacy is a central determination mechanism. Unless an individual believes that his/her actions can produce desirable results or avert unwanted ones, they will have but little incentive to act and persist in their actions (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy can be developed through multiple ways one of which is successful past experiences, through a cycle where self-efficacy causes individuals to persist and achieve positive results, and successful experience generates higher self-efficacy encouraging the individual to set even higher goals, and so on (McCormick, 2001). Moreover, emotional arousal that results from stress and anxiety reduces perceived self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982). This creates even more stress, augmenting mishaps, and demolishes performance by shifting attention from the task itself to personal deficiencies and failures (Bandura, 1982). According to the social cognitive theory, self-efficacy inspires individuals to set more challenging goals, persevere in the face of obstacles, dedicate cognitive and behavioral resources to perform relevant actions, and proactively seek strategies to increase effectiveness (Bandura, 1997).

Since culture manifests itself through social phenomenon (Adler, 1986), that is transmitted through social interaction. Therefore, cross-cultural acculturation is subject to the social cognitive theory, as individuals accumulate knowledge about a foreign culture through behavioral modeling (Bandura, 2001). This is the reason the social cognitive theory has been used in earlier studies as a theoretical foundation to explain the relationship between international experience on the one hand and CQ (Ng et al., 2009b) intercultural adjustment (Chew et al., 2019; Takeuchi & Chen, 2013; Ramalu et al., 2010), cross-cultural competence (Johnson et al., 2006), and expatriate success (Robinson, 2003; Tarique & Schuler, 2008) on the other. The social cognitive theory posits that learning can occur when one can practice newly learned behaviors in a cross-cultural setting and receive feedback to adjust that behavior to be of a better fit to their cultural surroundings, this reasoning was used to explain how global leaders develop the desired competencies that allow them to become effective global leaders (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; Ensign, 2019).

1.1.5. The Social Cognitive Theory as the Overarching Theory

The social cognitive theory serves as an overarching theory in this research as it binds the theories deployed to explain the relationships between the constructs of this study. The social cognitive theory is a meta-theoretical foundation concerning bi-dimensional reciprocal intergroup relations and self-concept. The theory in itself is used to explain the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment, the role general self-efficacy plays in the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment on one hand, and the relationship between international experience and CQ on the other. The theory also supports the theoretical reasoning linking intercultural adjustment to global leadership potential through task-specific self-efficacy. The social cognitive theory has also laid the ground for the articulation of social interaction, intergroup, and socio-cognitive constructs (Abrams & Hogg, 2004). The basic assumptions of the contact theory are embedded in the social cognitive theory (Granovetter, 1983). Moreover, personality traits are at the core of human agency (Blair et al., 2010). Furthermore, the social cognitive theory explains the motivation of social categorization as explained below (Riordan, 2000).

Contact theory states that our ability to accept out-group members is determined by the ability to establish meaningful contact with them (Allport, 1954). The determining role social relationships have on behavior is embedded in the social cognitive theory, as it states that social networks and relationships between individuals are one of the determining mechanisms of the social diffusion process (Bandura, 1986; Granovetter, 1983). According to the social cognitive theory, the possibility of an encounter with people from different social affiliation (intergroup contact) will usher enduring behavioral changes if (among other factors) the individual can build

strong social ties (meaningful contact) through which they can receive the support they need to overcome the stress and obstacles encountered (Bandura, 1982).

In terms of the relationship between the social cognitive theory and the personality trait theory, personality traits are seen as self-regulatory mechanisms that influence social cognition. That according to the social cognitive theory self-regulatory behavior is one of the mechanisms individuals practice personal agency (Bandura, 1986). The operationalization of personality traits includes self-regulatory tendencies and predispositions (Barrick & Mount, 1991). For example, conscientiousness depicts a predisposition towards certain self-regulatory behaviors such as planning, organizing, and persistence (McCrae & Costa, 1997). In light of the social cognitive theory, the big five personality traits can be seen as self-regulating mechanisms that influence social learning outcomes (Bandura, 1986). Within the cross-cultural context, personality traits are the determinants that define which parts of the foreign culture the individual will select, respond to, and learn from.

The social cognitive theory explains the motivation behind the need for social categorization. According to the social cognitive theory, people are inclined to maintain positive self-esteem through behaving in manners that induce positive self-reaction (Bandura, 1991). Moreover, the social cognitive process triggered by observation resulting in the modeling of newly learned behaviors serves as grounds for social-categorization (Turner, 1987). The ability to achieve a favorable self-perception depends on the outcome of social comparison. The comparison results in the identification of positive distinctiveness in relation to out-groups. The resulting social discrimination is an attempt to establish a positive social identity, and also serves as grounds for social categorization (Turner, 1985).

1.2. Constructs and Relationships

Sections 2.1 through 2.12 define the constructs of the current study and explains the mediating relationships depicted in the proposed model as seen in figure 1. While sections 3.1 through 3.3 define the moderators in the current study and explain how they behave as boundary setters.

Figure 1: Research Model
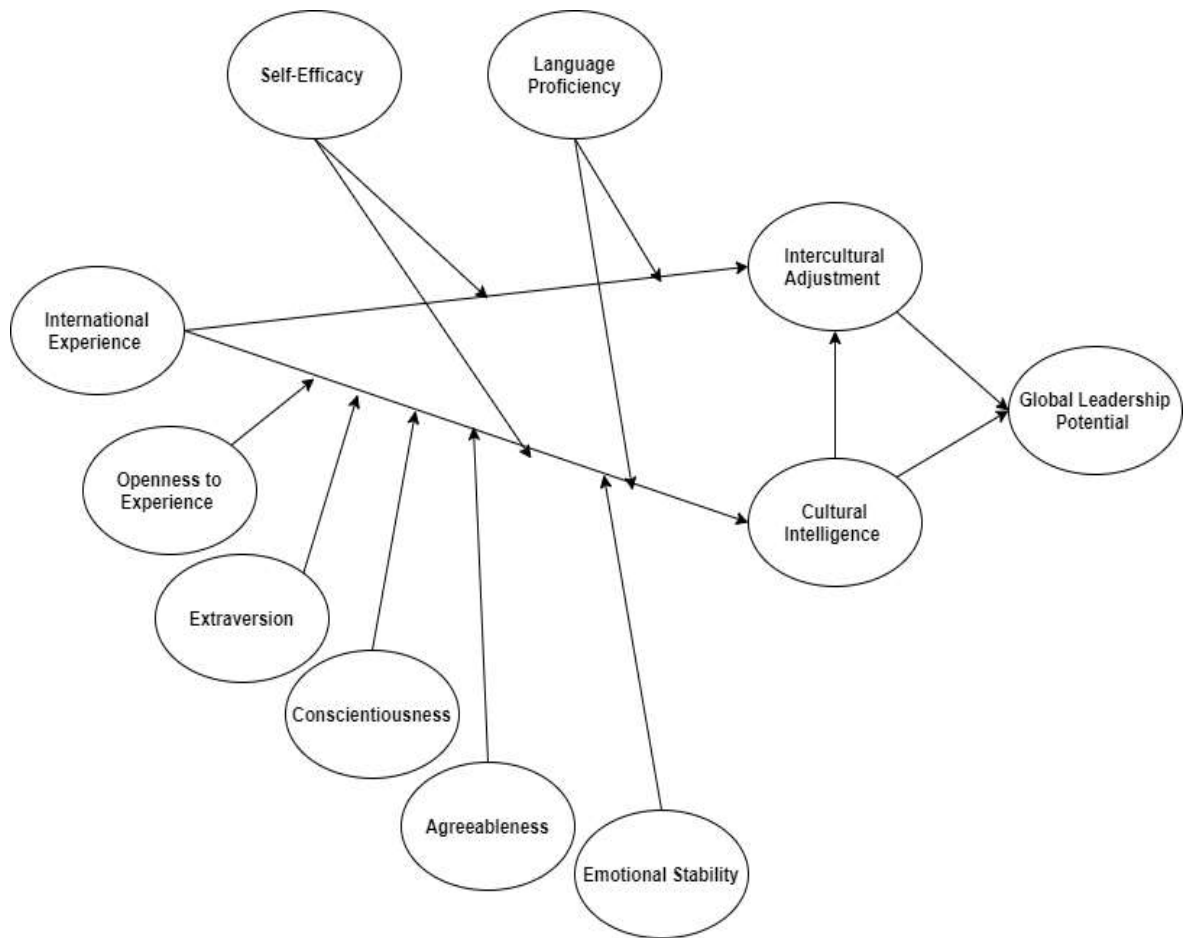
1.2.1. International Experience

International experience can be defined as the engagement, or direct observation of situations or states of being in a culture other than one's own, which includes experience gained while working, studying, living, or even through traveling for leisure (Bano & Nadeem, 2017). International experience has been the most studied form of international exposure that leads to higher CQ (Ng et al, 2009). Due to spending time, interacting with host-national, international experience reduces the levels of uncertainty an individual is likely to experience in an unfamiliar cultural context through the accumulation of first-hand information (Buckley, 2014). International experience also increases awareness and opens the door to questioning one's assumptions and patterns of thinking; it increases openness, and awareness of cultural diversity (Murtha et al., 1998). The knowledge gained through international experience is not only culture-specific explicit knowledge but also through practical experience and observation, individuals accumulate tacit knowledge as well (Vora et al., 2019). The accumulated knowledge is directed towards active experimentation to form culturally appropriate behaviors (Li et al., 2013), more complex mental frameworks, and comprehensive cultural schemas (Endicott et al., 2003). That allows them to

select from wider behavioral repertoire behaviors compatible with different cultural contexts (Endicott et al., 2003).

A wide number of studies investigated the link between international experience and CQ, a considerable majority of that research concluded that international experience predicted CQ (Ott & Michailova, 2018). Most studies focused on the length of the international experience as a predictor of how impactful, international experience is going to be (Black & Stephens, 1989). The longer the international experience the higher the impact it is going to have on CQ (Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Li et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2009b; Shannon & Begley, 2008). While the short-term international experience does not provide the individual with the chance to develop a deeper understanding of the culture, therefore, does not influence CQ (Tay et al., 2008). Other studies have extended these benefits to include short-term experience as well (Engle & Crowne, 2014; Nguyen et al., 2018). The apparent incongruence suggests that although longer international experience allows for a longer exposure and cross-cultural interaction, the impact of shorter international experience should not be disregarded (Solomon& Steyn, 2017).

The breadth of the international experience can be defined as the number of cultures the individual has been exposed to. The breadth of the international experience has also been found to influence the effect international experience has on CQ (Engle & Crowne, 2014). The breadth of the international experience is valuable because it allows the individual to compare and contrast different cultural contexts and, accordingly, develop a deeper understanding of the cultural variations (Crowne, 2013; Tarique & Takeuchi, 2008). The timing of the international experience has been shown to influence the effectiveness of the experience as well, as it is believed that the earlier the experience is, the more influence it is going to have on CQ development (Harrison, 2012).

International experience is believed to be one of the most effective tools in the development of CQ and global leadership thereafter (Kim & Van Dyne 2012). Because it allows the individual to contact host-national, this facilitates gathering information about the foreign cultural context. This helps reduce the uncertainty associated with cross-cultural interactions (Caligiuri, 2006; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012), and allows the individual to develop a better understanding of the perspective of host-nationals elevating their cultural empathy and awareness of one's own culture and that of others (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Triandis, 1972). The higher cultural empathy and awareness then improves the individual's ability to behave in a culturally appropriate and effective manner in cross-cultural contexts (Li et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2009b; Ramsey et al., 2017).

Prior work-related international experience such as expatriate is believed to help individuals develop more precise expectations, and generate strategies for interacting in diverse environments (Li et al., 2013). Work-related international experience has a major impact on CQ (Moon et al.,

2013; Shannon & Begley, 2008). Work-related experience is most effective if the individual has an accommodative learning style (Li et al., 2013). Work and non-work-related international experience are associated with aggregated CQ (Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Takeuchi et al., 2005). International educational experience on its own has been found to influence CQ (Bell & Harrison, 1996). More specifically, international educational experience influences the cognitive and behavioral CQ, while other travel experiences only influenced the motivational CQ (Crowne, 2008). In general, all travel experience was found relevant in CQ development (Macnab & Worthley, 2012).

Research linking international experience to CQ lacked proper theoretical grounding and has produced inconsistent results so far (Ott & Michailova, 2018). For example, while some studies have demonstrated that both work and travel experience were relevant to CQ development (Engle & Crowne, 2014; Lee & Sukoco, 2010), other studies have provided evidence that international experience does not have a significant effect on the aggregated CQ (Eisenberg et al., 2013), nor is it correlated with any CQ facet (Shu et al., 2017). More importantly, there is also a gap concerning how the quality of the international experience may influence intercultural competence (Ng et al., 2012).

Some researchers look into cross-cultural training and social media usage as sources of international exposure that inform individuals about foreign cultures and supposedly increase their CQ (Hu et al., 2020). However, it has to be said that knowing the right behavior in a certain situation is not the same as behaving it, and knowledge is not always going to translate into action. Because cross-cultural interaction is extremely complex and overwhelming, the individual may have both the knowledge and the motivation to behave in a certain manner and still be unable to do so. Since all that can be done remotely (not within the foreign culture) can only increase cultural awareness, inform trainees about cultural values but do not ensure the propriety of behavior (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Triandis, 1972). Even if we are going to assume the effectiveness of training programs, it has to be kept in mind that these programs are often designed with a specific cultural context in mind, whereas CQ entails the ability to function effectively in various cultural contexts. Therefore, the international experience remains the most effective form of international exposure to develop CQ (Mor et al., 2013).

1.2.2. Cultural Intelligence

Thomas and Inkson (2005) defined cultural intelligence "as being skilled and flexible about understanding a culture, learning increasingly more about it, and gradually shaping one's thinking to be more sympathetic to the culture and one's behavior and to be more tuned and appropriate when interacting with others from the culture." Cultural intelligence (CQ) as a term was first presented by Earley & Ang (2003), and it was conceptualized based on Sternberg & Detterman's

(1986) multiple intelligence frameworks. CQ has gained attention with the rapid increase in workplace diversity. It became a crucial part of the selection criteria for individuals working in culturally diverse organizations (Cartwright & Pappas, 2008). CQ as a construct was devised to explain why some people thrive in culturally diverse sittings while others cannot (Early & Mosakowski, 2004). An issue that becomes more relevant given the spike in cross-cultural interactions, which increased the possibility of misunderstandings due to intercultural differences (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). CQ refers to the ability to operate effectively in a culturally diverse environment. CQ is a malleable capability that can be improved through intercultural exposure (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Ng et al., 2009). CQ is not only concerned with the ability to accumulate knowledge about foreign cultures, but also the ability to think strategically, widen the field of interests, and the consequences it has on an individual's behavior during cross-cultural interactions (Presbitero & Attar, 2018). It entails observing behaviors and detecting the similarities and differences to the individual's own culture, the ability to reveal behavioral patterns, predict future behaviors, and behaving accordingly without stereotyping (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). CQ is a higher-order mental capacity that is the manifestation of cultural knowledge through actions in cross-cultural settings (Lin et al., 2012)

Culturally intelligent people do not only possess the knowledge about a particular culture, but also the motivation to learn about different cultures to expand their behavioral repertoire, which is the competence that allows individuals to perform effectively in culturally diverse contexts (Ng et al., 2009b). Having a broad range of behaviors accumulated to be utilized innately in different contexts (behavioral repertoire), distinguishes culturally intelligent individuals from others (Hooijberg et al., 1997). It is a product of the intricacy of the dynamics and interconnections of individuals, groups, and systems in the environments one has been exposed to. The propensity to suspend judgment is also believed to be a crucial element of CQ, that is to say, that individuals with high CQ do not jump to conclusions and try to gather as much information as possible before passing judgment (Earley & Mosakowsk, 2004).

CQ comprises four CQ dimensions: metacognitive capabilities, cognitive capabilities, motivational capabilities, and behavioral capabilities. These four capabilities are all at the same level and they represent the sub-dimensions that make up the aggregated CQ construct (Ang et al., 2007). The CQ theory has it that the construct is not culture-specific and that individuals who score relatively high on CQ's four dimensions have superior performance in intercultural settings (Van Dyne et al., 2007). The metacognitive dimension refers to the individual's awareness before and during an interaction when in a different culture. This capability enables an individual to assess the basic assumptions in light of the given cultural context. It is the dimension responsible for an individual ability to adjust their cognitive map, and consequently their behavior to accommodate the cultural context within which they operate. The cognitive dimension refers to the individual's knowledge of the values, norms, and practices of a particular culture (Van Dyne et al., 2008).

Cognitive CQ is closely linked to the decision-making abilities in foreign contexts as individuals with high cognitive CQ have more accurate expectations and interpretation of cross-cultural interactions (Triandis, 1994) rendering them capable of making more accurate decisions compared to others. The motivational dimension refers to showing interest, mobilizing energy, and making an effort to adapt to the foreign culture. Individuals with higher motivational CQ have higher satisfaction and have more confidence in their ability to function in foreign contexts (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). The behavioral dimension refers to the individual's possession of the verbal and non-verbal skills needed for communicating effectively with people from different cultures (Ang et al., 2007) including words, tones, facial expressions, and gestures (Gudykunst et al., 1988). However, these dimensions are distinctly different from one another (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008), they may or may not correlate with each other (Early & Ang, 2003), yet individuals with high CQ use all four dimensions in unison (Ang et al., 2004; Ang et al., 2006; Ng & Earley, 2006). Therefore, studying the aggregation of all four CQ sub-dimensions grants a better understanding of the construct (Engle & Nehrt, 2012; Kour & Sharma, 2017; Moody, 2007; Ott & Michailova, 2017; Şahin et al., 2014).

Knowing the local language of the host-culture, living, or work abroad is known to increase CQ. However, finding oneself in a diverse cultural setting without the proper background is likely to produce elevated levels of anxiety as a result of being uncertain as to what behaviors are considered proper in that context (Leung et al., 2014). The elevated levels of stress cause cognitive simplicity that in turn results in behavioral inflexibility and impairs decision-making abilities (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). People characterized with cognitive simplicity are known to have a narrow understanding of the world, a prejudiced stereotypical perception of cross-cultural situations (Levy et al., 2007). Nevertheless, certain personality traits such as openness to experience and extraversion are known to help overcome cognitive simplicity and allow individuals to interact more effectively in cross-cultural settings (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008).

CQ has a wide range of effects, on the psychological front the position of high CQ acts as a stress reliever, lowering the anxiety experienced in culturally diverse contexts (Leung et al., 2014). Therefore, it is believed to lead to better intercultural psychological adjustment, ensures psychological well-being (Ang et al., 2007), lowers cultural shock (Chen et al., 2011), facilitates intercultural adjustment (Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Moon et al., 2013; Templer et al., 2006; Ward & Fischer, 2008; Wu & Ang, 2011), and limit emotional exhaustion (Tay et al., 2008). The behavioral outcomes related to CQ are better inter-cultural social networking (Leung et al., 2014), and sharing ideas (Chua et al., 2012). In the performance outcomes of CQ, individuals with higher CQ are known to outperform their counterparts. Their high level of CQ allows them to predict intercultural cooperation (Leung et al., 2014; Mor et al., 2013), increase their intercultural effectiveness (Leung et al., 2014), improve task contextual performance (Chen et al. 2011; Rockstuhl et al., 2013),

produce better intercultural negotiating results (Groves et al., 2015), and boost global leadership potential (Kim & Van Dyne 2012).

The research looked extensively into the antecedents of CQ (Moon et al., 2013). Personality traits predict CQ because they influence how individuals perceive cross-cultural environments and how well they can function in them (Ang et al., 2006; Caligiuri, 2000; Moody, 2007; Oolders et al., 2008). Prior research studying the impact of personality traits on CQ have focused on extraversion (Ang et al., 2006; Moody, 2007) and openness to experience (Ang et al., 2006; Caligiuri, 2000; Moody, 2007; Oolders et al., 2008; Ward & Fischer, 2008) as the main personality traits predicting CQ (Şahin et al., 2014). Self-efficacy is a reliable predictor of CQ because individuals with higher self-efficacy are more motivated to engage in cross-cultural interactions (MacNab & Worthley, 2012; Rehg et al., 2012). Research presented mixed results in terms of the effect language proficiency has on CQ; Higher language proficiency makes connecting and establishing relations with the host-national much easier. Therefore, it has been studied as an antecedent of CQ (Chen et al., 2010). Foreign language proficiency, in general, predicted the cognitive CQ (Shannon & Begley, 2008), it is directly correlated to all facets of CQ (Chen et al., 2010). However, other studies have found that its impact was negligible (Huff, 2013).

1.2.3. International Experience Increases Cultural Intelligence

The link between international experience and CQ is established based on the contact theory (Allport, 1954). I contend that the chance of meaningful contact with individuals from different cultures under the right conditions is provided by international experience. The contact theory asserts that frequent contact will reduce stereotyping and uncertainty because it allows the individual to gather more information and form more accurate expectations (Allport, 1954). Intergroup contact does not only accommodate the development of new knowledge and behavioral skills but also allows individuals to develop greater awareness by challenging current cognitions. All of which will reduce the anxiety associated with intergroup interactions, rendering the individual more willing to engage with intergroup members (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). International experience allows for frequent and meaningful contact with host-nationals that is known to permit acculturation (Rosenblatt et al., 2013). The acculturation results in the erosion of cognitive barriers (negative stereotypes and out-group biases), increase out-group empathy, promote social tolerance among the parties, promote propriety behavior, and improve cultural awareness (Pettigrew, 1998). The theoretical reasoning behind this assumption is that cross-cultural contact that involves interconnectedness facilitates self-expansion where the individual is motivated to expand one's sense of self to include out-group members and out-group as a whole (Phinney et al., 2001).

According to the social cognitive theory, building ties, and establishing a social network with host-national facilitates the diffusion of the norms and values of the host culture through facilitating cultural learning (Bandura, 2002). International experience provides the intercultural contact needed to lower the level of uncertainty associated with unfamiliar contexts by allowing individuals to gather information about the foreign culture (Kim & Slocum, 2008). The frequent cross-cultural counter-stereotype contact results in higher acceptance towards individuals from different cultural backgrounds and fosters positive intergroup attitudes (Pettigrew, 1997). A successful contact is conditioned upon the equality and inter-dependability of the parties involved, institutional, or social support, and personalized contact (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008).

Individuals develop cognitive structures to deal with stressful external stimuli such as cross-cultural interaction. These cognitive structures (values, beliefs, stereotypes) are influenced by the individual's cultural background. Individuals use these structures to predict the behavior of others. Due to cultural differences, these cognitive structures are not effective in cross-cultural settings. Through contact, individuals can detect the discrepancies between expected and actual behavior and modify their cognitive structures accordingly (Weber & Crocker, 1983), the elevated cognitive awareness, cognitive adjustment, and information seeking are associated with CQ development (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Several studies have studied and validated this line of reasoning (Engle & Crowne, 2014; Macnab & Worthley, 2012; Rosenblatt et al., 2013).

The research model (Figure 1) presented by the current study maintains that international experience increases CQ among individuals. Contacting foreign-nationals during work-related (Moon et al., 2013; Shannon & Begley 2008) and non-work-related travel (Bell & Harrison, 1996; Macnab & Worthley, 2012) presents the individuals with an opportunity to build positive cross-cultural relations and engage in meaningful cross-cultural contact (Caligiuri, 2006). The meaningful contact erodes communication barriers, presents the opportunity of acquiring cultural knowledge (Rosenblatt et al., 2013). The newly attained cultural knowledge (acculturation) helps the individuals to question stereotypes and generalizations they had about host-national and allows them to develop a more accurate understanding of the other (Ward, 2004) results in eroding stereotypes, reducing prejudices and hostility, and increasing empathy (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). Establishing contact with host-nationals under the right conditions provides the opportunity to question the cultural beliefs, assumptions, and behavior of one's self and those of others. The ease in cross-cultural contact facilitates learning and receiving feedback from others, which allows for establishing and practicing new behavioral patterns, and expanding the individual's behavioral repertoire (Rosenblatt et al., 2013). The knowledge gained through international experience is not only specific to a particular cultural context (Ang et al., 2006; Engle & Crowne, 2014), but it also creates motivation to learn about other cultures and includes tacit knowledge that helps individuals develop more sophisticated cultural schemes (Vora et al., 2019). Therefore, international experience facilitates improving an individual's cultural sensitivity and awareness, which gives

them both the incentive (motivational CQ) and the capacity (cognitive, metacognitive, and behavioral CQ) to behave in more culturally appropriate manners, which indicate higher levels of CQ (Caligiuri, 2006; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Rosenblatt et al., 2013).

1.2.4. Intercultural Adjustment

Intercultural adjustment is the ability to adapt to the requirements, values, and beliefs of another culture. It includes three forms of adjustment: general, interaction, and work adjustments (Gregersen & Black, 1990). The general adjustment refers to the level of comfort with the overall living conditions, the less the cultural distance between the home and host culture, the easier the adaptation is likely to be. Interaction adjustment refers to the level of comfort in dealing with the host nationals, making it the most difficult form of adjustment because it entails the ability to sort out the differences in values and assumptions between the home and the host culture. Work adjustment is the level of comfort with the work conditions (Black & Stephens 1989). Given that, there are considerable similarities in tasks between the home and the host work environment, making this form of adjustment is the easiest of all three (Caligiuri & Tung, 1999). Instead of thinking about the cross-cultural adjustment process as a period adaptation that all individuals go through, research has shown that it is a predictable construct that varies widely across individuals (Black, 1990).

The importance of intercultural adjustment stems from the fact that most problems faced in cross-cultural settings are due to the inability of cultural novice individuals to manage themselves in these contexts (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Therefore, intercultural adjustment is a form of learning cultural-specific skills (Masgoret & Ward, 2006). Intercultural adjustment is a learning process through which individuals learn the behavioral norms and the skills needed to appropriate their behaviors to their cultural context (Earley & Ang, 2003). Individuals who can achieve a certain level of psychological comfort, open up, and expand their behavioral repertoire in ways that are compatible with the norms of their host cultures, are said to be well adapted. While individuals who fail to assimilate, remain maladjusted (Peltokorpi, 2008). Well-adjusted individuals acquire knowledge about the skills and behaviors considered acceptable in the cultural context, winning them global competencies. Some even suggest that there is an overlap between global leadership competencies and intercultural adjustment competencies (Mendenhall, 2001; Mendenhall & Osland, 2002). Well-adjusted individuals conduct themselves with greater ease than others; this is why they are more likely to engage with people from different cultures, which opens the door to the development of global leadership potential (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2014). Intercultural adjustment is seen as a make or break factor in an expatriate's performance in foreign cultural contexts. Expatriates' inability to adapt to a new culture or maladjustment is a major cause of expatriates' failures (Black & Stephens, 1989; Huff et al., 2013).

When individuals find themselves in a new culture, they are usually intrigued and fascinated by almost all aspects of the host culture known as the honeymoon phase. At this stage, individuals are not even aware of any cultural differences therefore their perceived adjustment is high. As individuals become aware of the differences, they become frustrated as they start noticing the negative feedback due to continuing to behave as they would in their home culture; this stage is known as the cultural shock. As they start learning the appropriate behaviors through observing and reinforcement in the host culture and manifesting them their sense of adjustment raises. Finally, they can function effectively in that cultural context (Black & Mendenhall, 1991).

Studying the antecedents of one domain of the adjustment process can never be sufficient on its own. A comprehensive understanding of the antecedents of intercultural adjustment necessitates understanding the antecedents of all the domains due to the spillover effect (Takeuchi et al., 2002). The spillover effect is the phenomenon where the adjustment process in one domain (e.g., work adjustment) is influenced by factors outside that particular domain (e.g., general adjustment). Even though the impact of non-work-related factors on work adjustment has been long established (Jex & Beehr, 1991; Williams & Alliger, 1994), the recognition that non-work-related factors influence work adjustment is relatively recent (Takeuchi et al., 2002).

The antecedents of intercultural adjustment have been studied rigorously (Waxin, 2004). The list of factors that influences an individual cross-cultural adjustment ability includes international experience (Black et al., 1991), cultural intelligence (Chen et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2006; Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Lin et al., 2012), and language proficiency (Huff, 2013; Selmer, 2006) as well as personal factors such as self-efficacy (Harrison et al., 1996; Nguyen et al., 2018; Takeuchi & Chen, 2013). International experience gives the individual an idea of what to expect regarding the transition process (from native-culture to host-culture) (Black et al., 1991) and serves as a learning experience where they develop the needed competencies to relocate and communicate in cross-cultural contexts ensuring a smoother adaptation process (Takeuchi et al., 2005). Higher CQ is believed to be an asset in cultural learning, which is an important component in the cross-cultural adjustment process, cultural intelligence people can make accurate predictions about cultural preferences, and they can adjust their mental state during intercultural interactions. Therefore, they can develop a deeper understanding of cross-cultural interactions, which facilitates their adaptation process (Johnson et al., 2006). Language proficiency is believed to affect intercultural adjustment because the better adjustment to the host culture entails the ability to communicate effectively with a host national, which is contingent on their ability to speak their language (Huff, 2013). Individuals with higher self-efficacy are not only going to make more effort during their cross-cultural interaction, but they also have more confidence in dealing with their foreign surroundings which results in better learning outcomes (Black et al., 1991).

Former international experience is the most critical factor in intercultural adjustment (Black et al., 1991). However, it has been studied as a control variable rather than an antecedent (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998). Moreover, most research studying the impact of international experience on intercultural adjustment has found it insignificant, and the findings of the research that supported the relationship were inconsistent (Takeuchi et al., 2005). The length of the work-related international experience only predicted intercultural work adjustment (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Similarly, living experience (non-work experience) was found to predict only general adjustment (Parker & McEvoy, 1993). Despite the conscience, the impact experience has in any domain on intercultural adjustment is not strict to that particular domain per se (spillover effect) (Takeuchi et al., 2002).

Cultural intelligence is one of the factors that contribute to a better intercultural adjustment (Earley & Ang 2003; Lee & Sukoco, 2007; Templer et al., 2006). Culturally intelligent individuals possess higher adaptation abilities because they are able to recognize the unique and specific features of different cultures compared to their own (Ang et al., 2007). There is evidence suggesting that motivational CQ predicts intercultural adjustment (Earley & Ang, 2003), others have found that it only predicted general adjustment (Ang et al., 2006), while Templer et al. (2006) and Chen et al. (2012) concluded that motivational CQ has a significant impact on all three-adjustment factors after controlling for age, gender, and length of the assignment. Besides, both the cognitive and metacognitive CQ predicted intercultural adjustment while both behavioral and motivational CQ did not (Rockstuhla & Van Dyne, 2018). Whereas others have found that, all facets of CQ predicted all aspects of intercultural adjustment (Lin et al., 2012).

Most research studied intercultural adjustment as an end on its own, and only a few studies looked into its mediation effect (Takeuchi, 2010). Intercultural adjustment mediates the relationship between CQ and intercultural performance (Chen et al., 2010; Lee & Sukoco, 2010). CQ and intercultural adjustment constructs are clearly distinct but closely related, in that not only CQ is studied as an antecedent of intercultural adjustment, but there is also evidence suggesting that positive intercultural adjustment predicts CQ as well (Chao et al., 2017).

1.2.5. International Experience Increases Intercultural Adjustment

The research model also depicts the role international experience has on intercultural adjustment. Individuals immersed in a new culture often notice the similarities between their home culture and the host culture first, and they only notice the differences if they are glaring due to selective perception. Therefore, initially, they continue to behave in ways that have been proven successful in their home culture. However, and due to the cultural differences a behavior that may be appropriate in a certain situation within the home culture may be outright offensive in a similar situation within the host-culture producing negative consequences, and that is when an individual

faces the demand to amend and adjust their behaviors (Black & Mendenhall, 1991). Therefore, they start their social learning process through observation and interaction going noticing behaviors of host nationals (attention), cognitively rehearsing them (retention), initiating the learned behaviors in a similar context (reproduction), and assessing the outcomes of these behaviors (motivational processes) (Takeuchi & Chen, 2013). If host-nationals give positive feedback to the behavior is learned and becomes part of the behavioral repertoire of the individual to be repeated in similar contexts. However, if the host national gives negative feedback to that behavior it is omitted. The more exposed individuals are to a certain culture, the more they have the chance to observe, learn, receive feedback, and eventually adapt their behavior to fit their context (Ott & Michailova, 2018; Tarique & Takeuchi, 2008). Given that, international experience provides cross-cultural exposure it can be considered a tool for learning to adapt to cross-cultural contexts (Crowne, 2008; Crowne, 2014).

I draw on the social cognitive theory to explain the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment (Black & Mendenhal, 1990; Takeuchi & Chen, 2013; Ramalu et al., 2010). According to the theory observing the behavior of host-nationals or interacting with them during international experience results in learning the routines and schemas appropriate for functioning in that foreign culture. During the international experience, the individuals are likely to go through the attention, retention, production, and motivation phases (Takeuchi & Chen, 2013).

In different cultural settings, similar situations may call for radically different behaviors. However, individuals entering a foreign culture are likely to repeat behaviors they believe to be effective in familiar situations. Due to cultural novelty, these behaviors might produce negative consequences sparking the learning process (Selmer, 2006). Taking notice of new behaviors and the consequences of these behaviors represents the attention phase of the learning process. Encoding these new behaviors into memory represents the retention phase. Then an individual is likely to reproduce these behaviors from memory. Finally, they decide to retain or refine the learned behaviors based on the direct or indirect feedback they get from their environment. Positive reinforcement will increase the motivation to repeat the behavior in question and vice versa, which encompasses the last phase of the social learning process (Bandura, 1977b).

Nevertheless, according to the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1995), the type of reinforcement or feedback the individual receives is not the only tool for controlling future behavior. Self-efficacy also determines what an individual chooses to do, and the amount of effort they put into it. For example, an individual with lower self-efficacy believes that they do not possess the capacity to deal with a situation, and therefore is not going to dedicate as much effort to do so as an individual with higher self-efficacy. Self-efficacy determines the amount of effort an individual is likely to make to engage in cross-cultural interaction during their international

experience. Therefore, based on the social learning theory, the effect international experience has on intercultural adjustment (Harrison et al., 1996; Nguyen et al., 2018) and cultural intelligence (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; MacNab & Worthley, 2012; Nguyen et al., 2018; Rehg et al., 2012) is contingent upon self-efficacy.

1.2.6. Cultural Intelligence Increases Intercultural Adjustment

Among the relationships depicted in the research model in Figure 1 is the relationship between CQ and intercultural adjustment. Adjusting to a cross-cultural setting is particularly challenging because it is not limited to adjusting to the changes in job requirements (work adjustment), but also dealing with other aspects of that culture such as food, care services, and language barriers (general adjustment), along with dealing with the differences in values, assumptions, and behavioral expectations (interactive adjustment) (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). CQ explains the variance among individuals in their abilities to adjust to intercultural settings because; culturally intelligent people can predict the cultural preferences of host-national and adapt their mental models accordingly (Ang et al., 2007), they are more persistent in their cross-cultural interactions and actively seek to understand cross-cultural situations which facilities adjustment (Ramalu et al., 2010). Furthermore, the cultural knowledge culturally intelligent individuals possess is not context-specific (Ang et al., 2006), and serves as a reference for understanding, comparing, and contrasting different cultures, which minimizes the chances of misunderstanding and promotes better adjustment (Ramalu et al., 2010).

According to the social cognitive theory individuals possess an intrinsic motivation to maintain positive self-esteem (Bandura, 2002), which can be achieved through behaving in ways that produce positive self-reaction (Bandura, 1991). Therefore, in cross-cultural contexts, individuals are expected to persist in their efforts to achieve such an image (Bandura, 2002). Hence individuals who have higher CQ intelligence have an intrinsic motivation that sparks their interest in foreign cultures and drives their efforts in searching for strategies that allow them to achieve their objectives in cross-cultural encounters (Bandura, 1986; Earley & Ang, 2003). Moreover, culturally intelligent people have both the incentive to learn about foreign cultures, which means that they will be making an effort and actively seek to develop new strategies to improve their effectiveness in cross-cultural interactions, and persist even in difficulties (Earley & Ang, 2003). Not only that but they also possess a wide behavioral repertoire, which allows them to portray the behavioral flexibility needed to adjust to the social norms of different cultures, be less offensive, and adjust better to diverse cultural environments (Gudykunst et al., 1988).

1.2.7. International Experience Increasing Intercultural Adjustment Through CQ

The impact international experience has on intercultural adjustment is not strictly a direct one; part of the influence takes place through the development of CQ. Hence should international experience not yield the development of CQ the impact it has on intercultural adjustment will be limited to a specific culture (Moon et al., 2013). The direct impact international experience has on intercultural adjustment is a culture-specific adjustment experience (Bhagat et al., 2002). Such an intercultural adjustment experience is only applicable in similar cultural contexts where the individual is likely to experience a similar adjustment process (Hofstede, 1980). Because the knowledge structure gained through observing members of that particular culture is only applicable in similar contexts (Bandura, 2001). However, the other side of the influence happens through CQ (Moon et al., 2013), which is a culture-free construct (Crowne, 2013). The development of CQ entails the development of skills and competencies that can be effective in different cultural contexts (Thomas et al., 2008) allowing the impact of international experience on intercultural adjustment to transcend cultural-specificity.

International experience facilitates the development of CQ (Engle & Crowne, 2014; Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Liet al., 2013; Macnab & Worthley, 2012; Ng et al., 2009b; Shannon & Begley, 2008), which in turn will assist intercultural adjustment by allowing individuals to appropriate their behaviors to different cultural contexts rather than being able to adjust only to previously experienced cultural contexts. Because according to the contact theory (Allport, 1954), contact with members of the host-culture during international experience leads the individual to question their cultural assumptions (Triandis, 2006) and breaks down social categories, and increases the salience of group membership (Chao et al., 2017). Leading to a more tolerant and less judgemental approach to different cultures, and greater awareness of oneself, as well as higher CQ (Pless & Stahl, 2011). Allowing the individual to adjust to different cultural contexts (Moon et al., 2013).

1.2.8. Global Leadership Potential

Global leadership is defined as "the process of influencing others to adopt a shared vision through structures and methods that facilitate positive change while fostering individual and collective growth in a context characterized by significant levels of complexity, flow, and presence" (Mendenhall et al., 2012). The term global leadership started being used in the early 90s of the last century. Fashioning the term came as a response to the recognition that the term leadership on its own was no longer sufficient given the qualitative difference in competencies needed to be an effective leader in the global arena (Osland, 2008). Recently companies operating internationally started realizing that to operate effectively in the global market they needed to conduct their operations with cultural propriety in their minds, shifting their focus from expatriates to a more global outlook (Morrison, 2000). Leaders whether they are working domestically with a

culturally diverse workforce, or globally in an international context must have more international experience, higher cultural sensitivity, and greater awareness about not only their own culture but also their host cultures, or that of those working with them (Ducker, 2012).

Global leadership potential is an estimation of future international leadership performance (Lievens et al., 2003); it is a construct distinct from actual global leadership performance effectiveness. As the latter is concerned with the retrospective judgment of actual performance, and serves as a basis for evaluation, feedback, and change decisions, while the former is concerned with future effectiveness and serves as a basis for selection, training, and development decision (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). The decisions have been intuitive, unsystematic, relying on technical knowledge, managerial skills (Murphy, 2006), and willingness to relocate thus far (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Sinangil & Ones, 1997).

Evaluating global leadership potential is based on a wide range of competencies such as curiosity, flexibility, openness to experience, business knowledge (Spreitzer et al., 1997), and cross-cultural competencies (Shaffer et al., 2006). Global leadership competencies can be defined as the underlying characteristics that can make a leader effective in the global arena. Even though there is a substantial overlap in the local and the global competencies needed for actual or prospective effective leadership performance, some of the competencies required for them are unique to global leaders. For the most part, these competencies are related to the awareness of differences across cultures and the ability to behave properly in different cultural contexts in ways that would facilitate the achievement of organizational goals. The identification of the distinct competencies for global leaders is considered integral when it comes to activities like succession planning and career planning within the organization (Conger & O'Neill, 2012).

The multicultural skills associated with global leadership potential can be dissected into five groups; social initiative, cultural empathy, flexibility, open-mindedness, and emotional stability (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Later responding to ambiguity was added (O 'Keefe, 2018). The social initiative, conceptualized as interpersonal impact, refers to the ability to build and sustain positive cross-cultural relationships, through having the capacity to build productive relationships and a positive attitude towards these relations (Javidan & Walker, 2013). The social initiative is the strongest indicator of global leadership potential (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Javidan & Walker, 2013; O 'Keefe, 2018). The cultural empathy competency also referred to as perspective taking (O'Keefe, 2018) is the set of competencies that allow the individual to be conscious of their stance on a particular issue (self-understanding), be aware of how others might feel about it (empathy), and take into consideration others perspectives before making a decision (O 'Keefe, 2018). Competencies that fall in the cultural empathy category are cognitive; they are related to the ability to correctly attribute the behavior of host-nationals. Such competencies facilitate 1. Understanding the underlying causes and intentions behind the behavior of others in

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cross-cultural interactions. 2. Making judgment-free assessments of intercultural encounters. 3. The continuous modification of cognitive schemas that would allow the selection of appropriate behaviors in diverse contexts (Mendenhall et al., 2012). Flexibility refers to the individual ability to self-develop and responds to change (O 'Keefe, 2018; Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000), this set of competencies allows individuals to accept and accumulate new information and change their behaviors according to that information (Stevens et al., 2014). An individual operating in a cross-cultural setting has to be able to change their strategies seamlessly, because effective local strategies may not be effective in a cross-cultural environment (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Open-mindedness otherwise referred to as passion for diversity is the degree to which an individual enjoys traveling, living, and getting to know people from different parts of the world (O 'Keefe, 2018). Open-mindedness is not about the ability to tolerate diverse settings but the ability to thrive in them (Javidan & Walker, 2013). Open-mindedness is the appreciation of out-group norms and values and the ability to interact with out-group members without prejudice (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Being emotionally stable or resilient is essential to the ability to understand cultural differences, the capacity to manage them, and the ability to enjoy the process (Javidan & Walker, 2013). Emotional resilience is the emotional strength needed to cope with the challenges of cross-cultural settings (Stevens et al., 2014). Emotionally stable individuals can handle the psychological stress inherent in cross-cultural interactions and therefore essential to cross-cultural effectiveness (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Responding to ambiguity refers to the individual's ability to endure uncertainty under complex situations (Stevens et al., 2014). Responding to ambiguity is particularly important given that global leaders can never control all the circumstances and will usually operate under uncertainty. Their ability to navigate these situations is critical (O 'Keefe, 2018) because the willingness to engage in new experiences or the openness to new ideas does not mean the ability to endure the ambiguity associated with it (Bird et al., 2010).

Global leadership entails 1. Operating within high diversity contexts. 2. Extensive cultural and functional knowledge. 3. The ability to factor in multiple stakeholders during the decision-making process. 4. Greater on-job off-job tension 5. Operating under a great deal of ambiguity (Pless & Stahl, 2011). Making global leadership a highly volatile and complex endeavor (Bird & Osland, 2004; Lane et al., 2004; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). Earlier research in the global leadership field focused almost exclusively on identifying global leadership competencies while overlooking the global leadership development process (Pless & Stahl, 2011). The means of developing global leadership potential are not clear yet, therefore most organizations still rely on methods such as traditional training, education, and career development. However, for organizations to be able to develop leadership capabilities they need to utilize overseas travel, international teamwork, both short and long-term expatriate assignments as challenging learning opportunities (Terrell & Rosenbusch, 2013). Not only that but they need to make sure that these

individuals have the personal characteristics that will allow them to maximize the value of these opportunities (Reiche et al., 2006).

The ability to navigate cross-cultural contexts is a prerequisite for global leaders (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012) the capacity to do so is at the heart of CQ (Earley & Ang, 2003; Ng et al., 2009b). Individuals with lower CQ engage in stereotyping, conflicts, and consequently fail in culturally diverse contexts, while individuals with higher CQ demonstrate better international performance (Ang et al., 2007). In-depth interviews with 37 different global leaders from seven different countries highlighted the significance of CQ in global leadership effectiveness (Den & Gibson, 2009). The CQ of the global leader is directly linked to the team member's perception of their performance (Zander et al., 2012). The impact of CQ on leadership effectiveness is even stronger in more diverse teams (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011). Cultural intelligence is also a strong predictor of global leadership potential (Earley & Ang, 2003; Mukherjia et al., 2016). Higher CQ also enhances the positive impact international experience has on the development of global leadership potential (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Ng et al., 2009b)

The growing interest in the experiential approach to global leadership development is a result of the significant effect international experience has on global leadership (Ng et al., 2009b; Osland, 2008). 80% of leaders believed living or working aboard was a crucial experience in the development of their global leadership capabilities (Gregersen et al., 1998). Individuals who learn through international experiences are more likely to become effective global leaders (Ng et al., 2009b). Although international experience is one of the most effective tools in the development of global leadership potential, the impact of international experience on global leadership potential varies (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). Researchers and practitioners that individuals who get engaged in international experience are better equipped to deal with diversity and the uncertainty associated with global leadership positions (Pless & Stahl, 2011). Non-work-related international experience increases global leadership effectiveness (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2014) through increasing tolerance for ambiguity, cultural flexibility, and reducing ethnocentrism (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012).

The theoretical link between intercultural adjustment and global leadership effectiveness has been asserted (Caligiuri, 2000; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Selmer, 2002; Templer et al., 2006). Intercultural adjustment is seen as a make or break factor in an expatriate's performance in foreign cultural contexts. Expatriates' inability to adapt to a new culture or maladjustment is a major cause of expatriates' failures (Huff et al., 2014) better intercultural adjustment improves the quality of cross-cultural communications and decision making leading to higher leadership effectiveness (Wildman et al., 2016). However, the intercultural adjustment has been studied as an end on its own (Chao et al., 2017), and only a limited number of researchers looked into its consequences (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). The relationship between intercultural adjustment and global

leadership potential has not been empirically tested, and research does not provide an explanation for the overlap, nor does it present an understanding of the relationship between the two constructs (Mendenhall, 2001).

1.2.9. Cultural Intelligence Increases Global Leadership Potential

The contact theory arguments are also used to explain how international experience can promote global leadership qualities by allowing them to build stronger cross-cultural relationships and replicate behaviors considered appropriate in their right context which results in greater leadership capabilities (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; Leung et al., 2014; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). Further contact with host nationals increases cross-cultural empathy (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008) and facilitates the development of higher CQ (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). This entails that the individual will have awareness (metacognitive CQ), knowledge (cognitive CQ), motivation (motivational CQ), as well as the capacity to portray culturally appropriate behaviors (behavioral CQ) (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Bringing about a higher level of behavioral flexibility (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012) that allows the individual to balance the competing values of the home and host cultures and adopt different leadership styles to accommodate the expectations of the cultural context within which they operate (Mendenhall, 2001).

Culturally intelligent individuals have stronger potential as global leaders because; first, they understand how the assumption that stems from their cultural background may cause certain biases. Second, higher CQ mandates verifying these assumptions, they also use their cultural knowledge to adopt assumptions that are more compatible with the cultural context at hand, which allows them to develop accurate expectations for their behaviors and that of others, resulting in a better leader-follower relationship. Thirdly, culturally intelligent leaders combine their deep understanding of themselves and others with the motivation and behavioral flexibility to adjust their leadership style to fit the cultural context within which they operate (Avolio et al., 2009). Not only that, but they also possess the cognitive complexity that enables them to deal with multi-structured entities and adapt their mental models to the changing demands (Mendenhall et al., 2018). Moreover, the elevated levels of cultural awareness in culturally intelligent leaders allow them to develop heuristics for social interactions in diverse cultural settings, and the ability to adjust their mental models to their current cultural contexts (Triandis, 2006). Their deep cultural knowledge gives them the capacity to predict and understand different patterns of interaction (Rosenblatt et al., 2013). Furthermore, culturally intelligent leaders pay attention and dedicate energy to continue to evolve their cultural knowledge, they portray considerable flexibility in cross-cultural interactions, and they exhibit culturally appropriate verbal and non-verbal behaviors (Li et al., 2013).

1.2.10. Intercultural Adjustment Increases Global Leadership Potential

The social cognitive theory explains how a successful prior intercultural adaptation can promote global leadership potential. A successful experience is known to boost self-efficacy, however, easy and quickly attained success can be counterproductive because individuals end up expecting quick results with a limited amount of effort and are easily discouraged by failure (Bandura, 1995). Nevertheless, the ability to adapt to a foreign cultural context is fairly challenging and subject to a learning curve and therefore cannot be considered an easy success experience (Russell & Dickie, 2007). Such mastery experiences yield higher levels of self-efficacy which allows individuals to remain resilient in the face of adversity and quickly rebound from setbacks (Bandura, 1995), these qualities are essential in a global leader (O'Keefe, 2018; Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000).

Moreover, having high intercultural adjustment by definition entails the ability to achieve psychological comfort and reduce stress in the cross-cultural context (Wu & Ang, 2011). Achieving psychological comfort and reducing stress is critical for global leaders operating in cross-cultural contexts who more often than not have to deal with high levels of uncertainty, and the inability to deal with the resulting stress may lead to avoidance and dysfunctionality (Lewin & Sager, 2007). Along with elevating levels of self-efficacy and reducing stress, intercultural adjustment also increases behavioral flexibility (Black, 1990). Behavioral flexibility enables the individual to appropriate their behaviors to their current cultural context (Shaffer et al., 2006) which is essential for global leaders who often face the need to change the way they operate to accommodate their current cultural context (Mendenhall et al., 2018).

1.2.11. Cultural Intelligence as a Mediator of the Relationship between International Experience and Global Leadership Potential

International experience is crucial for the development of global leadership potential (Kim & Van Dyne 2012). It serves as a proxy to reduce anxiety associated with intercultural interactions, and a surrogate for the acceleration of cultural knowledge (Sambharya, 1996). International experience is said to provide the individual with a set of cross-cultural skills that are domestically unattainable (Black et al., 1999). However, not all those who get travel abroad will develop global leadership capabilities (VanderPal, 2014). The impact international experience has on global leadership capabilities neither imminent nor direct; not all individuals who get involved in international experience develop global leadership potential, and for them to be able to do so they must gain CQ (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Ng et al., 2009b). CQ facilitates transforming international experience into the global mindset needed to achieve effectiveness in cross-cultural contexts (Andresen & Bergdolt, 2017).

Through contacting host nationals during international experience individuals be able to overcome their prejudices and stereotypes and develop more favorable opinions regarding the host cultures and closer ties with its members (Allport, 1954). As a result, individuals become more aware of their own cultural assumptions (metacognitive CQ), gather more information regarding that cultural context (cognitive CQ) (Ang et al., 2006). They will also have more incentive to learn about the cross-cultural differences (motivational CQ) and behave in a manner that is considerate towards members of the host culture (behavioral CQ) (Ang et al., 2007). Consequently, these individuals end up with a sufficient level of cross-cultural knowledge and self-awareness that allows them to appropriate their behaviors with the cultural context and hand needed to maintain cross-cultural effectiveness (Triandis, 2006). They all also have developed the behavioral flexibility that allows them to adapt a leadership style compatible with their cultural contexts essential for global leaders (Ng et al., 2009). International experience enhances leaders' adaptation abilities through acknowledging the leaders about the most prominent aspects of the culture within which the leaders want to lead, thus, ushering to a positive influence on the leaders' global leadership potential.

1.2.12. Intercultural Adjustment as a Mediator of the Relationship between International Experience and Global Leadership Potential

International experience does not only influence global leadership capabilities through the development of CQ (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). International experience serves as a learning opportunity where the individual learns through observation to appropriate their behaviors to their cultural contexts (Wood & Peters, 2014). Moreover, a successful adjustment experience reduces the stress and uncertainty associated with working in cross-cultural contexts, which allows the individual to dedicate more time and energy to their work and consequently produce better results (Selmer, 1999). While maladjustment increases stress and has its toll on effectiveness (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). Self-efficacy is a malleable characteristic strengthened through positive experience (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, the social cognitive theory is considered integral to the understanding of global leadership in cross-cultural contexts (McCormick, 2001). According to the social cognitive theory the successful intercultural adaptation can cultivate task-specific self-efficacy, and make an individual believe in their capabilities in adapting to foreign contexts. The social cognitive theory explains role a leader's self-efficacy plays a central role as a cognitive variable for the functioning of leaders in dynamic environments (Bandura, 1986). Having previously adapted to a foreign cultural context during international experience elevates an individual's confidence level in their ability to portray culturally appropriate behavior, initiate social contact, and address difficulties that may arise in cross-cultural contexts (Bandura, 1977a; Gecas, 1989). Therefore, individuals with previous adjustment experiences are expected to make more effort, be more persistent in the face of challenges, and achieve better results (Bandura, 1977a).

1.3. Moderators of the Study

1.3.1. The Big Five Personality Traits

Personality traits are stable over time and not task-specific construct (trait-like constructs), while CQ is a malleable and open to development construct (state-like construct) (Ang et al., 2006). State-like constructs and trait-like constructs are not independent (Chen et al., 2000), and the relationship between them is an indirect one (Kanfer, 1990). Personality traits influence the way individuals perceive foreign cultural contexts and how they internalize the international experience. Prior research had studied the impact of personality traits in the global context (Ang et al., 2006; Caligiuri, 2000; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Shaffer et al., 2006; Şahin et al., 2014), and it was found that certain personality traits can accelerate the development of global leadership capabilities (Reiche et al., 2006), they also influence an individual's ability to adapt to different cultural contexts (Shaffer et al., 2006), and they were linked to an individual CQ (Ang et al., 2006). However, and despite being theoretically linked to global leadership potentials, the impact of personality traits has not been fully investigated (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012).

Personality traits are more related to global leadership success than domestic leadership capabilities (Mol et al., 2005) because they determine the cognitive complexity of the individuals (Caligiuri & Di Santo, 2001). This is essential for global leaders' ability to deal with ambiguities and balance the contradicting interpretations they face in foreign cultures (Schley, 2003). The personality of the individual determines their predisposition towards foreign environments, their willingness to engage with host nationals, and their ability to learn from them (Javidan & Walker, 2012). The aforementioned underexplored theoretical link between personality traits and global leadership capabilities is particularly interesting. Because even though the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed for global leadership are acquirable through international experience (Schley, 2003), personality traits that are considered essential for global leadership success remain unchanged through international experience due to their innate nature (Caligiuri & Di Santo, 2001). Therefore, identifying the set of personality traits needed for global leaders will allow the hiring and promotion of individuals who possess global leadership potential (Osland, 2008).

Openness to experience is defined as an individual's tendency to be open-minded, aware of, and able to accept different perspectives (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Individuals who are open to experience are enthusiastic, unconventional, imaginative, excitable, and have a wide range of interests (John & Srivastava, 1999). Individuals who are more open to experience will get more exposed to unfamiliar cultural contexts and engage in different activities and therefore gain more knowledge from their international experience compared to others. The higher willingness to learn allows individuals to acquire more information about the cultural context so they can adjust their behaviors to match these contexts. Research has concluded that openness to experience influences

CQ (Ang et al., 2006; Moody, 2007; Oolderset al., 2008; Şahin et al., 2014; Ward & Fischer, 2008). The impact openness to experience has on metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral CQ is said to be a direct one (Ang et al., 2006; Ward & Fischer, 2008). Openness to experience was found to have a direct positive effect on the aggregated CQ construct (Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Moody, 2007). There is evidence suggesting that openness to experience moderates the relationship between international experience and the aggregated CQ construct (Şahin et al., 2014).

Extraversion refers to the extent to which an individual is sociable, outgoing, assertive, and adventurous (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Extraverts are energetic, social, outgoing, assertive, adventurous, and enthusiastic (John & Srivastava, 1999). Extraversive and CQ are closely linked (Ang et al., 2006; Moody, 2007; Şahin et al., 2014). The sociable predisposition in extroverts makes them more likely to engage in interaction with the host-nationals and allows them to display more flexible behavior, which enhances an individual's ability to be effective in culturally diverse contexts (CQ). The impact extraversion has on motivational CQ is believed to be a direct one (Ang et al., 2006; Moody, 2007) and higher extraversion is associated with higher behavioral CQ (Ang et al., 2006). Extraversion was also found to be positively correlated with the aggregated CQ construct (Kour & Sharma, 2017; Shaffer et al., 2006). However, extraversion was also found to moderate the relationship between international experience and the aggregated CQ (Şahin et al., 2014).

Conscientiousness is defined as the predisposition to follow social norms, be planned, in control, and delay gratification (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Conscientious individuals are organized, competent, dutiful, thorough, self-disciplined, and deliberate (John & Srivastava, 1999). Conscientious individuals are well planned; therefore, they will seek information about unfamiliar situations to minimize uncertainty. They are strongly aware of the context within which they operate, and are inclined to behave in ways that maintain propriety, enhancing their ability to operate effectively in culturally diverse contexts (Ang et al., 2006; Dagher & Maamari, 2011; Moody, 2007; Shaffer et al., 2006). Conscientiousness is directly and positively correlated to the metacognitive CQ (Ang et al., 2006; Dagher & Maamari, 2011; Moody, 2007), the behavioral CQ (Dagher & Maamari, 2011; Moody, 2007), the cognitive and motivational CQ (Dagher & Maamari, 2011). Conscientiousness was also found to positively correlate with the aggregated CQ construct (Jyoti & Kour, 2017).

Agreeableness refers to the inclination to be sympathetic, cooperative, complacent, and adhering to group norms (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Agreeable individuals are trusting, altruistic, compliant, modest, tender-minded, and straightforward (John & Srivastava, 1999). People high on agreeableness tend to have a wider behavioral repertoire, which should serve them well when they encounter divergent cultural contexts that require different verbal and non-verbal behaviors (Ang et

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al., 2006). Therefore, these individuals are capable of developing better relationships with the host-nationals, and lower work and non-work related stress through their cooperative behavior, which is high, associated with higher CQ levels (Shaffer et al., 2006). Agreeableness is positively and directly correlated with behavioral CQ (Ang et al., 2006; Moody, 2007), cognitive CQ (Dagher & Maamari, 2011), and it was also found to be positively correlated with the aggregated CQ construct (Jyoti & Kour, 2017).

Emotional stability is defined as the predisposition towards a positive, steady, and balanced emotional experience (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Emotionally stable individuals enjoy greater self-confidence, lower anxiousness, hospitality, impulsiveness, and depression (John & Srivastava, 1999). The patience, even temper, and calmness of emotionally stable individuals allow them to deal with novel situations that they may face during interactions in a foreign cultural context (Ang et al., 2006). Individuals higher on emotional stability are more capable of dealing with stress, and more tolerant towards differences in their own and host cultures (Migliore, 2011), which enhances their ability to operate effectively in diverse cultural contexts (Ang et al., 2006). Emotional stability was found to positively correlate with motivational CQ (Moody, 2007), behavioral CQ (Ang et al., 2006; Dagher & Maamari, 2011), and it was also found to be positively correlated with the aggregated CQ construct (Jyoti & Kour, 2017).

1.3.1.1. Personality Traits as Boundary Setters

The personality trait theory proposed by Cattell (1943) states that individuals with certain personality traits have more flexibility and different thought structure, which provide grounds for explaining why international experience will have a stronger relationship with cultural intelligence for individuals with certain personality traits. This research will be incorporating the big-five personality trait model (Costa & McCrae, 1985) to help illustrate how different personality traits contribute to the development of CQ in individuals with international experience. The basic premise of the connection is that given certain personality traits (openness to experience and extraversion) some individuals are more inclined to engage in social interactions within the foreign culture, increasing their contact with host-nationals, which in turn enhances their CQ development compared to individuals' low on these particular traits as was found by Şahin et al. (2014). People high on agreeableness, on the other hand, are inclined to behave in confirmatory and cooperative ways, which will allow them to establish positive relations with host-nationals. This improved quality of interaction tends to improve the outcome of international experience in terms of the gained CQ. Finally, conscientiousness and emotional stability guarantee that the individual has the self-discipline, competence, a sense of security, and calmness to deal with the hardships and the anxieties common in unfamiliar contexts compared to those who are low on these traits. Allowing them to leverage their international experience to gain higher levels of CQ.

My contention that the boundary-setter role personality traits play in the relationship between international experience and CQ is also depicted in the research model. Accordingly, the individual's traits affect their cognitive processing of social and cultural cues in a foreign cultural environment, their level of engagement with host-nationals, and subsequently their CQ (Şahin et al., 2014). Personality traits are openness to experience, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and emotional stability (Costa & McCrea, 1985). Openness to experience is the trait most related to CQ development (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). Individuals high on openness to experience are more inclined to reexamine their cultural assumptions, analyze the cultural norms of others before and during cross-cultural contact, they are more likely to reassess their mental models in light of their cross-cultural interactions (Triandis, 2006). The broad-mindedness of individuals with high openness to experience mandates that they should be more interested to learn about the different aspects of different cultures gaining them more cultural knowledge compared to individuals who are not as open to experience as they are. Individuals open to experiencing new things are also known to act out on these experiences, they seek to learn new knowledge and they also seek to put that knowledge into practice (Ang et al., 2006). The curiosity of these individuals serves as a motive to learn more about different cultures; their adventurous nature reduces the stress associated with cross-cultural interaction since they do not view cross-cultural interactions as a threat (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2014). Therefore, they tend to be more willing to engage in cross-cultural interactions and immerse themselves in new cross-cultural contexts (McCrae & Costa, 1996). This translates to contact that is more frequent with host-nationals. The frequent contact with host-nationals further reduces the stress and uncertainty, causes the individual to reassess their in-group, out-group perceptions enabling self-extension, increases cultural sensitivity (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008), allows the individual to a deeper appreciation of cultural diversity, and promotes the endorsement of multiculturalism (Chen et al., 2016). Openness to experience facilitates developing greater cultural sensitivity, a strong appreciation of cultural diversity and multiculturalism, which are qualities associated with higher CQ (Bernardo & Presbitero, 2017; Caligiuri, 2006; Engle & Crowne, 2014; O 'Keefe, 2018; Rosenblatt et al., 2013). Therefore, the greater the openness to experience an individual is characterized with, the more value they can extract from their international experience in terms of higher CQ.

Extraversion is another personality trait that is believed to have an impact on the relationship between international experience and the development of CQ (Ang et al., 2006; Moody, 2007; Şahin et al., 2014). Extraverted individuals tend to initiate and engage in social interactions in cross-cultural settings (Hawes & Kealy, 1981; Searle & Ward, 1990; Van der Zee et al., 2004). They have stronger interpersonal skills and they can understand and accommodate the requirements of different environments (Corr & Matthews, 2009). Their capacity to accommodate different requirements stem from the fact that higher extraversion is associated with a higher need for affiliation (Depue & Morrone-Strupinsky, 2005). The stronger need for affiliation felt by extroverted individuals makes them more responsive to affiliative cues and motivates them to learn

and portray affiliative behaviors (Lavigne et al., 2011). This accommodative attitude is at the heart of CQ (Van Dyne et al., 2008). Moreover, extroverted individuals are more social; they tend to establish stronger and more relations than less extroverted individuals (Corr & Matthews, 2009). Extraversion is not only linked to higher contact frequency but it is also linked to a wider network (Russell et al., 1997). This will eventually lead to reducing prejudices, negative stereotypes, and facilitate self-extension (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). This will consequently lead to higher cultural sensitivity and a deeper appreciation for diversity, characteristics closely linked to higher CQ (Bernardo & Presbitero, 2017; Caligiuri, 2006; Engle & Crowne, 2014; O 'Keefe, 2018; Rosenblatt et al., 2013).

Conscientious individuals are more efficient, disciplined, and better planned than less conscientious individuals, the level of conscientiousness a person has is reflective of their self-control and allows them to maintain appropriate social behavior (Corr & Matthews, 2009). The individual's level of conscientiousness is linked to their ability to attain higher levels of CQ through their international experience because 1. The high levels of awareness during cross-cultural interaction allow conscientious individuals to assess their cultural assumptions and those of the host nationals (Brislin et al., 2006). 2. The desire to reduce uncertainty in conscientious individuals derives information seek (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), as a result, they tend to gain more knowledge about the cultural context within which they live, study, or work. 3. Due to their desire to maintain propriety, conscientious individuals are also known to seek feedback (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000); therefore, their behaviors become better adjusted to their cultural surroundings compared to less conscientious individuals. 4. The strong goal orientation in conscientious individuals signifies their ability to persist in the face of challenges and their ability to overcome setbacks common during cross-cultural interactions (Earley & Ang, 2003). 5. Finally, conscientious individuals can translate their experience into learning outcomes, thus they can translate the information they learned about that culture while interacting with host-nationals during the international experience, and the behaviors considered appropriate in that cultural context into cultural intelligence (Ng et al., 2009).

Agreeableness is linked to social competence since agreeable individuals are not only pro-social, cooperative, and empathetic, but they also have empathic accuracy (Corr & Matthews, 2009). Such qualities are considered instrumental in cross-cultural interactions (Ang et al., 2006). The pro-social and cooperative nature of agreeable individuals helps them overcome stresses related to cross-cultural interaction (Shaffer et al., 2006). Moreover, it allows them to make accurate assessments about the appropriateness of their behaviors, as well as the behaviors of others (Grant & Patil, 2012). The cultural empathy of agreeable individuals is fundamental to their ability to perceive the world from the perspective of others (Leone et al., 2005). Hence, empathetic individuals are the group least prone to cultural biases. Agreeable individuals also seek social acceptance by following rules imitating other behavior (Corr & Matthews, 2009). Therefore, when

they find themselves in unfamiliar cultural contexts, their empathy and their need for social acceptance provide them with the incentive to learn how to act in a considerate and non-offensive manner. Consequently, agreeable individuals have a stronger motive to learn about cultural differences (Li et al., 2013), and their empathic accuracy provides them with a tool to refine their learning through appropriate assessment. Owing to the fact that agreeable individuals have the motive and the capacity to learn about cultural differences through cross-cultural interactions, they are expected to develop higher CQ because of their international experience compared to their less agreeable counterparts.

Intercultural contexts are inherently stressful and filled with interpersonal conflicts, anxiety, and pressures to conform (Van Der Zee & Van Der Gang, 2007). Because emotionally stable individuals can remain calm under stress they can manage the confusion and frustration that results from the differences between their home and host cultures (Earley & Ang, 2003), and the ability to deal with the uncertainty associated with cross-cultural environments (Shaffer et al., 2006). Consequently, they can communicate effectively in cross-cultural interactions (Shaffer et al., 2006). While neurotic individuals are most likely to avoid cross-cultural interactions because they view them as threats that might cause stress and elevate the levels of uncertainty which they cannot handle (Earley & Ang, 2003). Therefore, emotionally stable individuals can socialize more with host-national, learn more about proper cultural behaviors, and thus develop higher cultural intelligence as a result of their international experience, as opposed to neurotic individuals who are more likely to refrain from social interactions, limiting their ability to contact host-national and learn through social interactions.

1.3.2. Language Proficiency

Language proficiency refers to the degree of skill with which an individual uses a particular language (Chomsky, 1988). Proficiency in the host-culture language is crucial for any international experience, lower language proficiency has been linked to frequent misunderstandings and more conflicts, higher language abilities, on the other hand, allow the individual to seamlessly engage in interactions (Jackson, 2012). It is common sense that language abilities determine the extent of information, and the level of understanding an individual can accumulate about the different aspects of the foreign culture (Chen et al., 2011). Since cultural intelligence is developed through experience, language abilities are also an important factor in the development of cultural intelligence (Shannon & Begley, 2008). Inevitably, the language abilities of an individual would greatly influence the quality of interactions in which they will engage, the kind of outcome these engagements will have, and how it is going to affect their cultural intelligence (Thomas et al., 2012). Therefore, the level of CQ attained through international experience depends on how exposed the individual is to the host language (Ott & Michailova, 2017). Language proficiency is a direct predictor of all CQ facets (Harrison, 2012), and the aggregated CQ construct (Ott &

Michailova, 2017). Along with that, language proficiency was studied as a moderator; moderating the relationship between CQ and intercultural adjustment (Jyoti & Kour, 2017), and the relationship between behavioral CQ and receptivity-based trust (Li et al., 2012).

Not only are language abilities a critical factor that influences an individual's CQ, but language proficiency is also linked to cross-cultural adaptability. Language ability has been linked to intercultural adjustment as higher language proficiency allows individuals to adapt to the foreign culture with greater ease (Jyoti & Kour, 2017). Language proficiency was found to be a direct predictor of both general and interactive intercultural adjustment (Bhaska-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Huff, 2013), language proficiency was also found to predict all facets of intercultural adjustment (Wu & Ang, 2011). It was also suggested that the relationship between language proficiency and intercultural adjustment is moderated by the effect of language difficulty (Selmer & Lauring, 2015).

1.3.2.1. Language Proficiency as a Boundary Setter

This research deploys the SCT logic to explain the influence language proficiency has on the relationship between international experience on one hand and CQ, and intercultural adjustment on the other. In any cross-cultural context, language can be used as grounds for categorization, where individuals who have low or no knowledge of the host language are viewed as out-group members (Giles & Byrnes, 1982; Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999). The out-group members' status doped on individuals with low host-language proficiency has its ramification on cross-cultural interactions (Lauring & Selmer, 2011). The outsider status fosters negative stereotypes (Al Ariss et al., 2012), hinders the ability to build positive cross-cultural relations, and acts as a barrier against establishing meaningful cross-cultural contact necessary for the development of higher CQ. Because individuals tend to surround themselves with similar people to maintain a positive self-image (Goldberg, 2003), along with the fact that lower language proficiency increases misunderstandings, and the possibility of misinterpretations (Jackson, 2012).

Due to their out-group status, individuals with low language proficiency are excluded from participating in social activities (Pichler et al., 2012). Not being a part of the social group, which disrupts the social learning process through which an individual can learn about the behaviors, considered proper in the host culture. Not being able to engage in the social learning process through socialization frustrates the cross-cultural adaptation process (Harrison et al., 1996; Nguyen et al., 2018), and limits the benefit of international experience.

The research model delineates the role language proficiency has on CQ development and intercultural adjustment. Because language can be used as grounds for social categorization, individuals who have low proficiency in the host language are perceived as outsiders (Giles &

Byrnes, 1982; Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999). Therefore, low host-language proficiency can be grounds for exclusion (Peltokorpi, 2010). This exclusion affects the quality and quantity of contact the individual is going to be engaging in during their international experience. Thus, it limits all the positive effects of cross-cultural contact (Masgoret & Ward, 2006). Because of their limited cross-cultural contact, individuals with low language proficiency do not gather the sufficient amount of information necessary to reduce uncertainty and stress associated with cross-cultural interaction (Kim & Slocum, 2008). They also fail to expand their sense of self to include members of the foreign culture (the out-group) which allows negative stereotypes and prejudices to persist (Phinney et al., 2001). Low language proficiency reinforces out-group biases (Tinsley, 2011), and fortifies the cognitive barriers that block the possibility of increasing social tolerance, cultural awareness (Pettigrew, 1998), and has its toll on cultural learning process (Masgoret & Ward, 2006). Therefore, higher language proficiency elevates the CQ gained through international experience while low language proficiency limits it.

Language proficiency complements effective intercultural interaction; knowing the language of the host country improves the communication process, allows the individual to understand verbal messages, and reduces the possibility of misunderstandings (Masgoret & Ward, 2006). However, low language proficiency obstructs communication, causes misunderstandings and misinterpretations (Jackson, 2012; Ozyilmaz & Taner, 2018), leading to a lower level of intercultural adjustment and cultural intelligence. Language is considered the primary tool through which cultural information is learned (Masgoret & Ward, 2006). The constructive communication theory asserts the existence of a situational meaning to communication that emerges from language itself (Delia, 1977). Hence, those who do not possess a sufficient level of language proficiency will fail at configuring the right meaning of a received message or generate a message that depicts what they wish to communicate (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009). Therefore, the cultural learning process for individuals who do not possess the necessary level of language proficiency falls short, and these individuals fail to learn the appropriate behavioral schemes in that particular cultural context (Spitzberg, 1988). Lower host-language proficiency hinders the cultural learning process, which is essential for cross-cultural adaptation (Masgoret & Ward, 2006). Thus, individuals with high language proficiency wind up learning more through their international experience, and better adjusted to their new cultural context as opposed to individuals who have language proficiency.

1.3.3. Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as the degree to which an individual believes that s/he can organize and execute a set of actions to achieve a certain objective, with task-specific self-efficacy and general self-efficacy as two separate sub-constructs (Bandura, 1977a). Even though self-efficacy is believed to be domain-specific given that the level of confidence an individual has in their abilities varies from one domain to another, there is a general sense of self-efficacy an individual has.

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General self-efficacy is the global confidence an individual has regarding their ability to accommodate a wide range of requirements in a novel situation (Schwarzer et al., 1997). Individuals who have more confidence tend to take more initiative. Therefore, they are more likely to seek active and meaningful engagements with host-nationals in an unfamiliar cultural context, where individuals with lower self-efficacy tend to be overwhelmed and stressed (Rehg et al., 2012). This active involvement allows the individual to gather more information about foreign culture, which would result in higher CQ (Earley & Ang, 2003).

General self-efficacy is at the heart of CQ because when an individual does not feel confident in their ability to handle novel situations they might encounter in an unfamiliar cultural context; they are most likely going to disengage. Doing so will erode the possibility to develop higher CQ presented by international exposure (Earley & Peterson, 2004). General self-efficacy has been theoretically linked to CQ development by some studies (Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Peterson, 2004), several studies proved the link empirically, where general self-efficacy was found to be a direct predictor of CQ (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; MacNab & Worthley, 2012; Nguyen et al., 2018; Rehg et al., 2012). General self-efficacy is also linked to international experience; individuals who seek active involvement in foreign cultures develop higher levels of self-efficacy (Ng et al., 2009b; Nguyen et al., 2018).

General self-efficacy is one of the competencies that lead to better intercultural adjustment (Fenner & Selmer, 2008; Harrison et al., 1996; Lee & Sukoco, 2010), individuals with higher self-efficacy are confident enough to repeat newly learned behaviors and receive feedback on these behaviors. Higher general self-efficacy ensures greater persistence and allows the individual to make more accurate predictions and perform culturally appropriate behaviors (Black et al., 1991). Individuals with high general self-efficacy have better work adjustment than those with lower general self-efficacy (Harrison et al., 1996). Higher General self-efficacy is believed to facilitate better cross-cultural adjustment (Harrison et al., 1996; Nguyen et al., 2018). General self-efficacy is also linked to international experience, but there is no clear understanding of the relationship between the three constructs yet (Takeuchi & Chen, 2013).

1.3.3.1. Self-Efficacy as a Boundary Setter

The impact international experience has on developing higher CQ, and facilitating intercultural adjustment depicted in the research model is not a simple relationship, given that the effect international experience has on the cross-cultural capabilities is subject to several aspects (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). Some of these aspects are related to the personal characteristics of the individual others are contextual parameters (Macnab & Worthley, 2012). The research model will depict the impact of self-efficacy as a personal parameter and language proficiency as a contextual parameter.

Self-efficacious individuals who believe that they can complete a given task initiate more effort, persist in these efforts, and produce better results than their less self-efficacious counterparts (Bandura, 1995). Given that contacting host-nationals during the international experience is a cumbersome task (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Shaffer et al., 2006), individuals with lower levels of self-efficacy will limit their participation in most activates due to perceived difficulty because, individuals tend to avoid engaging in tasks that might exceed their capabilities (Bandura, 1995). Therefore, individuals with low levels of self-efficacy are not going to be able to establish meaningful contact with host nationals, thus, their experience will not reduce prejudice and hostility, nor will it increase their behavioral repertoire (Rosenblatt et al., 2013). The lack of contact will also hinder information gathering and the acculturation process; lower self-efficacy will limit the impact international experience has on cultural intelligence. While individuals high on self-efficacy will actively seek to engage in meaningful cross-cultural contact (Ng et al., 2009). This will help them erode stereotypes, increase empathy, allow them to develop a deeper understanding of their own culture as well as that of the others (Pettigrew, 1998). Their acculturation process will foster cognitive complexity that allows them to maintain cross-cultural effectiveness (Wills & Barham, 1994). Higher self-efficacy facilitates frequent meaningful cross-cultural contact, and therefore, it increases the impact of international experience on cultural intelligence.

Self-efficacy has the same effect on the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment. Self-efficacy relevant to the study of the impact international experience has on intercultural adjustment because during the intercultural adjustment competence acquisition process an individual will face challenges and setbacks (Gong & Fan, 2006). However, the persistence of self-efficacious individuals ensures that they can overcome them (Bandura, 1986). Higher self-efficacy serves as a shield that protects against stress; self-efficacious individuals do not experience high levels of anxiety in stressful situations while less efficacious individuals feel threatened (Jerusalem & Mittag, 1995). Hence, higher self-efficacy prolongs engagement time, while lower self-efficacy can cause discontinuity (Bandura, 1995). Furthermore, self-efficacy influences the levels of motivation; individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy are more motivated compared to individuals with lower self-efficacy (Bandura, 1995). Moreover, self-efficacious individuals take on a proactive role when it comes to seeking information and feedback, which enhances their learning outcomes (Brown et al., 2001). Self-efficacy explains how people learn and how they utilize their learning; due to being less stressed, and more motivated, self-efficacious individuals are more likely to persist at modeling behaviors and imitating them (Bandura, 1977a).

Higher self-efficacy increases the positive outcomes of cross-cultural learning (Black & Mendenhal, 1990), which means that international experience will yield better intercultural adjustment for self-efficacious individuals. Moreover, an individual's level of self-efficacy

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determines largely their career path; their perceived level of efficacy influences the choices they make to develop certain competencies and skills, which are reflected in their occupational options (Bandura et al., 1988). As a result, these individuals with low self-efficacy tend to shy away from engaging in international experiences that enhance their cross-cultural capabilities unlike an individual with higher self-efficacy that is known for seeking international experience (Ng et al., 2009b). That effect is augmented by fact that less efficacious individuals tend to have a less positive attitude towards work and lower productivity in multicultural settings (Bandura, 2002), which makes for more limited outcomes of organizational international experience. Lower levels of self-efficacy will limit the motivation to engage in cross-cultural interaction (Bandura & Locke, 2003), and will hinder the social learning process. Therefore, the learning outcomes of international experience for individuals with lower levels of self-efficacy will be limited.

1.4. Hypothesis Development

International experience is one form of exposure to foreign cultures that facilitates contact with host-national (Crowne, 2013). In keeping with the contact theory (Allport, 1954), such exposure provides the opportunity to establish meaningful contact with host nations that will eliminate prejudice and promote tolerance through increasing intergroup empathy (Pettigrew, 1998). The repeated contact with members of the out-group reduces intergroup interaction stress and helps overcome perception biases (Allport, 1954). As a result, individuals who possess international experience can erode the cognitive barriers (cultural biases, stereotypes), and help individuals form more favorable opinions of host-nationals leading to self-expansion. The inclusion of host-nationals in the individual's sense of self fosters the development of deeper and more positive relations that primarily serves as a tool to reduce the uncertainty associated with interacting with members of a foreign culture and increase the accumulation of cultural knowledge (Kim & Slocum, 2008; Sambharya, 1996). The lower levels of uncertainty facilitated through cross-cultural interaction improve decision-making abilities in the intercultural context, while the accumulation of cultural knowledge gives the individual the ability to learn cultural norms and behave accordingly (Lin et al., 2012). This will allow the individual to maintain effectiveness in cross-cultural settings and elevate their CQ (Earley, 2002; Earley & Ang, 2003).

International experience enhances the aggregated CQ by improving its dimensions (Engle & Crowne, 2014). The cognitive CQ, which depicts the individual's knowledge of the foreign culture's values and norms (Ang et al., 2007) is enhanced by international travel (Engle & Crowne, 2014). As international experience allows the individual to establish contact with people from different cultural, backgrounds which allows them to form accurate expectations and interpretations of cross-cultural interactions through analyzing and contrasting different behavioral norms in different cultures (Triandis, 1994). Metacognitive CQ is related to the individuals' ability to comprehend their cultural knowledge. The metacognitive CQ encompasses the ability to assess and

revise mental models. International experience provides the individual with the opportunity to put their cultural assumptions to the test and adjust them accordingly (Nelson, 1996) allowing the individual to develop better fitted mental models (Ng et al., 2009b). Motivational CQ is the driving force behind the desire to adapt to unfamiliar cultural settings (Ang et al., 2007) that entails goal-oriented cross-cultural interaction (MacNab & Worthley, 2012). International experience initiates the desire to learn more about foreign cultures, bearing in mind that such a motive is not restricted to one particular culture but about different cultures (Engle & Crowne, 2014). Behavioral CQ is related to the action aspects of the construct (Earley et al., 2006; MacNab & Worthley, 2012). International experience provides the opportunity to observe, reflect on, and learn new behaviors that will expand the behavioral repertoire. Hence, unlike their less traveled counterparts, individuals who have more international experience are able to match their behaviors to their cultural setting given that they have a wider behavioral repertoire (Ng et al., 2009b).

Previous research has studied the relationship between international experience and CQ (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Chao et al., 2017; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Macnab & Worthley, 2012; Rosenblatt et al., 2013). However, the findings have not been conclusive (Ott & Michailova, 2018). Some studies have found that international experience was predictive of CQ (Chao et al., 2017; Crowne, 2013; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Li et al., 2013; Shannon and Begley, 2008; Şahin et al., 2014). Others have concluded that international experience was not predictive of the aggregated CQ (MacNab & Worthley, 2012), and others have found that its impact was negligible (Gupta et al., 2013). Based on this, we hypothesize that:

H₁: International experience is positively associated with cultural intelligence.

International experience is also associated with intercultural adjustment (Black et al., 1991). According to the social cognitive theory individuals can learn through modeling behaviors they observe in their environment (Bandura, 1986) individuals who get involved in international experience get the opportunity to observe and learn culturally appropriate behaviors from host-nationals hand (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011). As individuals start taking note of these behaviors, retain them, and reproduce them under similar circumstances. Not only that, but they also receive feedback on the propriety of their behaviors, which allows them to continue to adapt their behaviors to arrive at full intercultural adjustment (Bandura, 2008). International experience is an opportunity to learn about intercultural communication, relocation, and cognitive skills firsthand (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011). Therefore, having had the opportunity to socialize with host nationals, those who have spent time abroad during international travel end up learning more about foreign cultures (Takeuchi et al., 2005) and are equipped with the skills needed for intercultural adaptation (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011). Subsequently, they are more capable of intercultural adjustment (Takeuchi et al., 2005). Not only that but also, international experience reduces the uncertainty associated with interacting in a foreign cultural context and allows the individuals to conduct

anticipatory adjustments before the anticipated cross-cultural interaction utilizing knowledge gained through their international experience (Black & Gregersen, 1991). Moreover, stronger international experience is known to introduce the individual to a wide range of behavioral norms and customs, which allows them to develop comprehensive cognitive schemas that help them regulate their behaviors to better fit their surroundings (Fiske & Taylor, 1984). Such cognitive schemas will enhance their ability to adapt to novel cultural surroundings (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011).

Previous research has associated particular types of experience with certain dimensions of intercultural adjustment (Takeuchi et al., 2002). It was concluded that while intercultural work adjustment was enhanced by international work experience. Such experience had no impact on the other dimensions of intercultural adjustment, nor does the overall construct (intercultural adjustment) have a significant relationship with international work experience (Black, 1988). Furthermore, non-work international experience only influenced general cross-cultural adjustment (Parker & McEvoy, 1993). However, and due to the spillover effect, it was asserted that non-work-related international experience influences intercultural work adjustment (Takeuchi et al., 2002). A negative international non-work related experience shell affects the individual's ability to adjust to cross-cultural settings, whereas a positive international non-work related experience improves an individual's ability to adjust to cross-cultural settings (Selmer, 1999).

For the most part, previous studies looking into the antecedents of intercultural adjustment have controlled for the effect of international experience (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998). Other studies have found that it had no significant relationship with international experience (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Selmer, 2002). International experience was also studied as a moderator of intercultural adjustment (Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Takeuchi et al., 2005; Waxin & Panaccio, 2005). Despite the firm theoretical link between international experience and intercultural adjustment (Black et al., 1991), empirical research findings have been weak and inconsistent (Ng et al., 2009a), thus, we hypothesize that:

H₂: International experience is positively associated with intercultural adjustment.

CQ is the manifestation of cross-cultural adaptation, as CQ is the cross-cultural competence that facilitates cross-cultural adaptation (Ramalu et al., 2010). According to the social cognitive theory, individuals are motivated to maintain positive self-esteem and therefore are inclined to portray behaviors that produce positive self-reaction (Bandura, 1991). This entails behaving in a manner that is perceived as proper by the host culture in a cross-cultural context, this serves as an incentive that drives individuals to utilize their CQ to achieve adjustment within the host culture. For the individual to adapt successfully within a foreign cultural context, they need to be able to handle the stress arising from the cross-cultural interaction in an adequate manner (Early & Ang,

2003). This entails being aware of one's cultural assumptions facilitated by metacognitive CQ (Van Dyne et al., 2007). Individuals who possess higher levels of metacognitive CQ are better at assessing their assumptions and amending their cognitive maps accordingly (Ang et al., 2007). Elevated levels of cognitive CQ allow the individual to make accurate expectations and interpretations regarding cross-cultural interaction (Van Dyne et al., 2007); such capacity prompts psychological comfort, which is at the heart of successful cross-cultural adjustment (Wu & Ang, 2011). Motivational CQ is what creates interest in other cultures in the first place (Ramalu et al., 2010). Rendering individuals with higher motivational CQ with more knowledge about the foreign culture (Ang et al., 2007), and better equipped to adapt to it (Ramalu et al., 2010). Individuals characterized by high behavioral CQ tend to portray higher behavioral flexibility (Van Dyne et al., 2007). This in turn can allow them to tweak their behaviors in response to environmental signs, which makes for a better intercultural adjustment (Lee & Sukoco, 2007).

Previous studies looked into the direct relationship between CQ and intercultural adjustment (Ang et al., 2007; Lee & Sukoco, 2007; Ng & Earley, 2006; Ramalu et al., 2010; Shu et al., 2016). However, most studies have shown that only some of the CQ facets contribute to intercultural adjustment; for example, it was found that only motivational CQ was predictive of intercultural adjustment (Templer et al., 2006). In other instances, it was concluded that motivational and behavioral CQ are predictive of intercultural adjustment (Ang et al., 2007). Others have found that cognitive, motivational, and behavioral CQ was predictive of intercultural adjustment (Lee & Sukoco, 2007). On the other hand, other studies found that the aggregated CQ was predictive of general and interactive intercultural adjustment, but not intercultural work adjustment (Chen et al., 2014). Nevertheless, based on the argument established in the previous paragraph, it is logical to infer a link between the aggregated CQ and the aggregated intercultural adjustment. Based on this we hypothesize that:

H₃: Cultural intelligence is positively associated with intercultural adjustment.

Intercultural adjustment is one of the behavioral indicators of global leadership potential (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2014). Based on the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), having successful experience in adapting to different cross-cultural settings can serve as a positive former experience that will boost the individual's task-specific self-efficacy. Successful past cross-cultural adjustment experience serves as a mastery experience. It is considered to be the most effective self-efficacy development tool that ensures task accomplishment (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is considered crucial for global leaders (Ng et al., 2009), who more often than not find themselves forced to operate under a great deal of uncertainty and loads of stress (O'Keefe, 2018; Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Without the capacity to adapt to a foreign cultural context, a leader will fail at developing trusting relationships with employees, customers, and stakeholders that will limit their ability to achieve their goals (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Individuals who have been

better adjusted to their surroundings during international experience have a greater opportunity to develop global leadership potential than their less adjusted counterparts do (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2014(. Because intercultural adjustment allows them to attain the level of cultural proficiency needed to become global leaders (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012).

Moreover, intercultural adjustment implies a significant level of social flexibility in an individual (An & Chiang, 2015). Such flexibility allows the individual to portray favorable impressions and facilitates productive interactions essential for handling volatile and changeable social situations namely global leadership (Miska et al., 2013). In an acknowledgment of the overlap between the competencies needed for intercultural adjustment and global leadership development (Mendenhall, 2001) a theoretical link between intercultural adjustment and global leadership potential has been established in the literature (Caligiuri, 2000; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2014; Selmer, 2002; Templer et al., 2006; Wildman et al., 2016). However, for the most part, the intercultural adjustment has been studied as an end on its own rather than looking at it as an antecedent (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005).

Empirical research thus far has failed to explain the relationship between intercultural adjustment and global leadership (Mendenhall, 2001), as the only reported attempt partially supported a relationship between the two constructs. An intercultural adjustment was found to influence an individual's ability to transfer their global leadership capabilities from one cultural context to another, while it had no significant impact on an individual's ability to learn global leadership competencies in the first place (Furuya et al., 2009). In an effort to arrive at a better understanding of the relationship between intercultural adjustment and global leadership potential, the current study follows a more rigorous conceptualization of the construct that encompasses both the ability to learn and the ability to transfer global leadership capabilities (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). Instead of looking at global leadership potential as an aggregation of two constructs, therefore, we hypothesize that:

H$_4$: Intercultural adjustment is positively associated with global leadership potential.

Culturally intelligent individuals are better global leaders (Earley & Ang, 2003; Mukherjia et al., 2016; Ng et al., 2009b; Rockstuhl et al., 2011) because their explorative attitude towards different cultures allows them to accumulate knowledge about the values, behavioral norms, and the customs of these cultures (Van Dyne et al., 2007). It also enhances their ability to understand and predict patterns of cross-cultural interaction (Rosenblatt et al., 2013). As a result, culturally intelligent individuals have lowered the uncertainty and anxiety related to operating in a cross-cultural context (Caligiuri, 2006; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). They also develop a positive attitude towards cultural diversity and different cultural contexts (Flaherty, 2008). According to the social learning theory, lower levels of anxiety and positive attitudes help individuals overcome the

emotional arousal that may reduce perceived self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982). A positive attitude towards the host-cultural context leads to an elevated level of self-efficacy, higher self-efficacy ensures that individuals remaining task-oriented in the face of difficulties (Bandura, 1986), improve their overall task performance (Locke et al.,1984), and aid in building a positive relationship with host-nationals (Bandura, 1997).

Not only that but also CQ acts as a cognitive lens through which receiving information is a process based on its cultural context, and because culturally intelligent individuals possess the capacity to understand the information within its right context they are better equipped to make decisions in cross-cultural contexts (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). Combined with their possession of both cognitive and behavioral flexibility, their extensive cultural knowledge allows them to accommodate shifting cultural expectations in different settings (Klafehn et al., 2008). Global leadership necessitates that the individual possesses higher levels of CQ (Earley & Ang, 2003; Ng et al., 2009b), that would facilitate understanding the behavioral norms of foreign as well as the flexibility needed to alter their behavioral and communication mode to accommodate the intercultural context at hand (Van Dyne et al., 2007). This results in a better leader-follower relationship as culturally intelligent leaders can fit their leadership style with the cross-cultural context within which they operate (Avolio et al., 2009).

The cultural awareness of culturally intelligent individuals prompts the acknowledgment of the underlying assumptions behind their behaviors and those of others, and the biases that these assumptions might cause (Wang et al., 2003). This translates to cultural empathy that helps the individual develop a certain level of understanding and acceptance towards people from different cultural backgrounds believed to be an essential competence in a global leader (Mendenhall et al., 2012; Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Moreover, higher levels of cultural knowledge and greater communicational effectiveness make culturally intelligent individuals better equipped to deal with uncertainty (Buckley, 2014). This is an essential quality in leaders operating in the global context (Mendenhall et al., 2012; O 'Keefe, 2018).

A considerable number of empirical studies have looked into the role of CQ in global leadership (Alon & Higgins, 2005; Ng et al., 2009b; Mukherjia et al., 2016; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). CQ has been found to strengthen the role of leadership behavior on global leadership success (Alon & Higgins, 2005). It was also found to increase the likelihood that individuals who possess international experience will develop global leadership capabilities (Ng et al., 2009b). CQ was also studied as a direct predictor of global leadership effectiveness (Mukherjia et al., 2016; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). Despite the considerable number of studies in this area, further investigation is warranted due to the lack of consistency across previous studies (Barakat et al., 2015) in defining the role of CQ in global leadership potential. Hence, we hypothesize that:

H₅: Cultural intelligence is positively associated with global leadership potential

1.4.1. The Hypotheses Related to Mediating Mechanisms

1.4.1.1. The Mediating Role of CQ

Based on contact theory (Allport, 1954), I contend that international experience will enhance cultural intelligence to have an effect on intercultural adjustment. International experience is fundamental to the development of CQ (Chao et al., 2017; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012) because living, studying (Bano & Nadeem, 2017; Bell & Harrison, 1996; Macnab & Worthley, 2012), or even working (Li et al., 2013) within different culture provides the chance for meaningful contact with host-nationals. Accordingly, this contact erodes negative cross-cultural stereotypes, increases cultural empathy and sensitivity, contact changes the perception of host-national and enables self-extension (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). This elevates acceptance for cultural diversity and promotes multiculturalism (Chen et al., 2016). Moreover, establishing meaningful contact with host-nationals facilitates learning by providing individuals with the opportunity to get feedback regarding their behaviors (Rosenblatt et al., 2013). The elevated cultural empathy and sensitivity provide an incentive for an individual to be more aware of cultural differences during intercultural interactions, and a reason to strive to behave in a culturally appropriate manner. The information gathered during the acculturation process and feedback received from the host-national serve as a road map to adapting one's behavior to accommodate the norms of the host culture.

International experience facilitates the kind of cross-cultural exposure needed to establish meaningful contact through which individuals can reduce prejudice, expand self-concept to include host-nationals, and develop cultural empathy (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008) and therefore aids the development of all facets of CQ (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Chao et al., 2017; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Macnab & Worthley, 2012; Rosenblatt et al., 2013). Cross-cultural contact facilitated by international experience erodes stereotypes and causes individuals to question their own cultural assumptions. As a result, individuals develop higher levels of cultural awareness about one's own culture and that of others (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008), which facilitates the development of metacognitive CQ (Ang et al., 2006). International experience also allows the individual to gather more information about the host culture (Caligiuri, 2006; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012) which results in a higher cognitive CQ. Cultural knowledge and understanding gained through international experience are believed to initiate interest in general cultural learning which is the foundation of motivational CQ (Engle & Crowne, 2014). Finally, international experience serves as a first-hand learning opportunity where individuals can learn how to behave in a culturally appropriate manner which boosts their behavioral CQ (Ng et al., 2009a)

Culturally intelligent individuals can adjust to different cross-cultural settings due to their deeper appreciation for cross-cultural differences (Ang et al., 2007), and because they have the cognitive complexity (Wills & Barham, 1994) and a vast behavioral repertoire (Endicott et al., 2003) that allows them to accommodate the norms of the cultural context within which they operate. CQ captures an individual's ability to receive, interpret, and respond to radically different cues appropriately and effectively given the cultural context (Earley & Ang, 2003). Therefore, culturally intelligent individuals can identify culturally specific behaviors and adjust their behaviors accordingly (Brislin et al., 2006). Metacognitive CQ gives the individual a deeper understanding of the cultural learning process (Ang et al., 2007), which allows them to master the process and strategize during cross-cultural interactions which facilitate adaptation to cross-cultural contexts (Ramalu et al., 2010). Higher cognitive CQ indicates a deeper and more extensive actual cultural knowledge about different cultures (Ang et al., 2007). Therefore, it is critical to the ability to minimize misunderstandings (Wiseman et al., 1989), and particularly relevant in intercultural adjustment, since adapting to a new cultural setting requires extensive knowledge in the specification of that particular cultural context (Ramalu et al., 2010). Stronger motivational CQ implies greater willingness to persist in difficult cross-cultural situations, and proactively seek different approaches to achieving the objective in cross-cultural interactions (Earley & Ang, 2003), which translates to better adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Harrison et al., 1996; Palthe, 2004). Behavioral CQ depicts the behavioral flexibility that allows the individual to respond to cues in various ways benefiting from their vast behavioral repertoire, which makes an individual less likely to offend others and more likely to fit and adapt with their surrounding (Black, 1990).

Given the sheer amount of research supporting that international experience predicted CQ (Chao et al., 2017; Crowne, 2013; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Li et al., 2013; Shannon and Begley, 2008; Şahin et al., 2014). Along with research asserting that CQ predicts intercultural adjustment (Templer et al., 2006; Ward & Kennedy, 1996), this research contends that CQ mediates the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment. Based on this, we hypothesize that:

H₆: Cultural intelligence mediates the effect of international experience will have on intercultural adjustment.

The international experience itself does not create a global leader; CQ is needed to transform the challenges encountered during international experience into a global leadership capability (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). CQ is the learning capability that helps translate the international experience into global leadership potential as a learning outcome (Ng et al., 2009b). Based on the contact theory (Allport, 1954), during the international experience and through contact of host-national, individuals can overcome cultural biases and attain a level of cross-cultural empathy that would facilitate cross-cultural interaction (Rosenblatt et al., 2013). This will lead to an increased level of

cross-cultural effectiveness and higher CQ (Engle & Crowne, 2014; Macnab & Worthley, 2012). CQ improves individuals' awareness of their cultural assumptions, and enables them to question these assumptions (metacognitive CQ); as a result, they become able to adapt their mental models to fit their cultural context (Triandis, 2006). It allows the individual to understand and predict patterns of cross-cultural interactions (Rockstuhl et al., 2011); it also provides them with the intrinsic interest in foreign cultures (motivational CQ) and confidence in their cross-cultural effectiveness (Groves et al., 2015).

Along with that, their vast cultural knowledge (cognitive CQ) provides them with a wide behavioral repertoire and the cognitive complexity that allows them to behave in a context-appropriate manner (behavioral CQ) (Endicott et al., 2003; Wills & Barham, 1994). The individual with high CQ possess the capacity to deal with diversity (Murtha et al., 1998), uncertainty (Buckley, 2014), and their cultural knowledge is not strict to one particular culture, because they have the curiosity to learn more about different cultures (Van Dyne et al., 2007), which eventually wins them global leadership potential (Osland, 2008; Solomon & Steyn, 2017).

CQ has been linked with both international experience (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Chao et al., 2017; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Macnab & Worthley, 2012; Rosenblatt et al., 2013), and global leadership effectiveness (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; Chin & Gaynier, 2006; Deng & Gibson, 2009; Lisak & Erez, 2015; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). However, the number of studies linking CQ to both international experiences has been limited; CQ was found to increase the likelihood that international experience will yield global leadership effectiveness (Ng et al., 2009b). Current international postings were found to elevate CQ and lead to higher global leadership potential (Mukherjia et al., 2016). Others have suggested that engaging in international experience elevates the individual's level of CQ that in turn leads to higher global leadership potential (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). About its relationship with both international experience and global leadership potential, CQ has been studied as a moderator (Ng et al., 2009b) and a mediator (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Mukherjia et al., 2016). Due to the lack of consensus regarding the role CQ has in the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential, further investigation of the complex role of CQ is warranted (Ott & Michailova, 2018). Based on this, we hypothesize that:

H₇: Cultural intelligence mediates the effect of international experience will have on global leadership potential.

1.4.1.2. The Mediating Role of Intercultural Adjustment

Intercultural adjustment refers to the degree to which an individual feels adapted to the requirements of host-cultures, including adjustment to the general conditions like living cost, food,

and shopping (general adjustment), adjustment to the cultural norms and behavioral expectations (interactive adjustment), an adjustment to the performance standards, job responsibilities and regulatory responsibilities (work adjustment) (Black, 1988). The cross-cultural interaction that takes place during an international experience can be viewed as a social learning experience (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). That according to the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001) will allow an individual to learn new behavioral schemes, reproduce, and refine these behaviors based on the feedback received from their environment (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Exposure to different cultures during the international experience can enhance an individual's ability to achieve intercultural adjustment (Caligiuri, 2000; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Selmer, 2002) because as the individuals go through the socialization process within different cultures they reach the adjustment phase (Black & Mendenhall, 1991) where they begin the social learning process (Bandura, 2001). During which they observe the behaviors of host-nationals, model these behaviors, enact them, and assess the appropriateness of their behaviors through reinforcement they receive from host-nationals. Until they eventually achieve mastery of the host culture (Black & Mendenhall, 1991).

Successful intercultural adjustment during international experience serves as a positive experience that increases the task-specific self-efficacy of the individual (Selmer, 1999). Based on the social cognitive theory, individuals with higher self-efficacy are more likely to persist and therefore expected to achieve better results (Bandura, 1986), individuals who have had successful adjustment experience are expected to be better performers whereas maladjustment will have its toll on the effectiveness of individuals who fail to adjust (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). Intercultural adjustment is related to the reduction of ethnocentrism that in turn will increase collaboration and coordination capabilities essential for a global leader (Shaffer et al., 2006). As those who have had a successful intercultural adjustment experience are better affirmed and carry them with greater psychological comfort. Therefore, they also can provide helpful information to other employees working within international teams about the culture, norms of the host country that can speed up their adjustment process (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002). It is also associated with cultural flexibility known to increase better global leadership effectiveness (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012).

A significant number of studies supported the positive impact international experience has on intercultural adjustment (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Takeuchi et al., 2002). Even though there is no empirical evidence supporting the relationship between intercultural adjustment and global leadership, successfully achieving intercultural adjustment boosts the individual's self-efficacy, which in turn makes an individual more persistent in the face of challenges, less likely to quit. They also propelled them to achieve better results (Bandura, 1995); therefore, it is an essential trait in global leaders (Ng et al., 2009; O'Keefe, 2018; Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Moreover, successful adjustment improves effectiveness, facilitates better decision-making, and other competencies closely linked to global leadership potential (Wildman et

al., 2016). To explain the relationship between intercultural adjustment and global leadership potential that have been lacking thus far (Mendenhall, 2001), thus we hypothesize that:

H₈: Intercultural adjustment mediates the effect of international experience will have on global leadership potential.

Leadership in the global context places greater emphasis on cultural dimensions (Yukl, 2006). However, the mere understanding of cultural differences is one aspect of the equation (Tuleja, 2014) but hardly enough to achieve cross-cultural effectiveness as a leader (Deng & Gibson, 2009). A global leader needs to have the capacity to adjust to different cultural settings (Ramsey et al., 2017), which entails a set of complex competencies enhanced by CQ (Livermore, 2011). International experience serves as a chance for cross-cultural exposure that allows the individuals to contact host-nationals that will boost their CQ (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). CQ in its turn serves as a learning tool that enables intercultural adjustment (Lee & Sukoco, 2007). Successful intercultural adjustment serves as a positive experience that provides a sufficient level of self-efficacy needed for a global leadership position (Bandura, 1986).

The impact intercultural adjustment has on global leadership potential depicted in Hypothesis 8 is only partially due to international experience (Lin et al., 2012). CQ is believed to improve an individual's likelihood of adapting to a cross-cultural context with greater success (Chen et al., 2012; Templer et al., 2006). Because culturally intelligent people can understand different cultural preferences (Kim et al., 2006), they have reflective as well as structural knowledge about different cultures (Ang et al., 2007), they also have the motivation to adapt to the different cultural environment, and on the behavioral level, they can portray the appropriate verbal and non-verbal behaviors in diverse cultural settings (Kim et al., 2006).

International experience is one of CQ's most permanent antecedents, and intercultural adjustment is one of its psychological outcomes (Ng et al., 2009a). In a general sense, the intercultural adjustment has been shown to mediate the relationship between CQ and different aspects of cross-cultural effectiveness (Kraimer et al., 2001; Ramalu et al., 2012; Ng et al., 2019). The current study contends that the same relationship pattern can be extended to include global leadership potential as well; in that, part of the effect CQ has on global leadership potential is direct and part of it is mediated by intercultural adjustment. Bearing in mind the role international experience has on the development of CQ in the first place (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Chao et al., 2017; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Macnab & Worthley, 2012; Rosenblatt et al., 2013), we developed the following sequential mediation hypothesis:

H₉: CQ and intercultural adjustment sequentially mediate the effect of international experience will have on global leadership potential.

1.4.2. Introducing Moderators to the Relationship between International Experience and CQ

Prior studies considered international experience as a predictor of CQ (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Chao et al., 2017; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Macnab & Worthley, 2012; Rosenblatt et al., 2013). Accordingly, the relationship is based on the premise that international experience presents the opportunity for more frequent and meaningful contact with host nationals (Rosenblatt et al., 2013). Drawing from the contact theory, such contact lowers intergroup biases and fosters cultural empathy (Allport, 1954), enabling individuals to establish deeper and more meaningful cross-cultural relations (Leung et al., 2014; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). These relationships allow the individual to acquire more information about the host culture (Kim & Slocum, 2008) and increases their cultural awareness and empathy (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). The newly attained cultural knowledge serves as a foundation for the acculturation process (Ward, 2004), as a motivation to learn more about different cultures (Vora et al., 2019). This helps the individual in question to expand their behavioral repertoire (Rosenblatt et al., 2013). Leaving the individual with the knowledge, meta-knowledge, incentive, and the capacity to behave in a culturally appropriate manner and allowing them to maintain cross-cultural effectiveness (Engle & Crowne, 2014). All of which leads to the development of higher CQ (Caligiuri, 2006; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Rosenblatt et al., 2013).

Despite the prima facie validity of the relationship between international experience and CQ has, it has received little support (Fang et al., 2018). Several studies have found that the impact international experience has on CQ is significant (Caligiuri, 2006; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Rosenblatt et al., 2013) other studies have shown that it was not significant (Eisenberg et al., 2013; Macnab & Worthley, 2012; Wood & St. Peter, 2014). The inconsistent findings are due to the inaccurate depiction of the type of the relationship between the two constructs, and it was suggested that presenting moderators to the relationship might help explain the conditions under which such a relationship holds. Presenting moderators to the relationship between international experience and CQ provides a better understanding of the contingencies that govern the relationship between the two constructs (Ott & Michailova, 2018). Spending time abroad through international travel does not guarantee the attainment of CQ as the outcome of international experience in terms of the development of CQ can vary significantly across individuals (Kumar et al., 2008). Hence, the strength of the relationship is conditioned, in that certain factors may strengthen the causal relationship between international experience and CQ (Ott & Michailova, 2018). Sections 4.3.1 through 4.3.3 present the factors that are believed to strengthen the relationship between international experience and CQ.

1.4.2.1. The Moderating Role of Language Proficiency

The SCT has it that higher language proficiency minimizes the chance of being viewed as an outsider (Giles & Byrnes, 1982; Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999). According to the SCT Language, proficiency influences an individual ability to view them and be viewed as in-group members (Turner, 1987). Hence, they develop the ability to establish meaningful contact with host-nationals, the capacity to erode stereotypes, and the ability to overcome prejudices (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). The possession of higher language proficiency facilitates better cross-cultural contact for individuals with higher language proficiency, whereas lacking proficiency in the host language can sometimes lead to exclusion, meaning that the individual who is not able to speak the language proficiently winds up interacting less with the local people (Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999). Having higher language proficiency improves communicational effectiveness (Vaara et al., 2005). The superior communication skill facilitated by higher language proficiency allows the individuals to accurately generate and interpreted messages (Ozyilmaz & Taner, 2018). Therefore, individuals who have higher language proficiency are expected to lavage their language abilities in building positive cross-cultural relations through effective communication, as well as the development of a deeper understanding of the host culture (Kim & Slocum, 2008; Sambharya, 1996). Individuals who enjoy more contact with host-nationals gather more information about the norms and values of host-culture, which facilitates the development of CQ. However, lower language proficiency acts as a communication (Vaara et al., 2005). This demolishes the individuals' ability to generate understandable messages or accurately interpreted received ones (Ozyilmaz & Taner, 2018). That would hinder the acculturation process (Kim & Slocum, 2008; Sambharya, 1996). Therefore, individuals who possess higher language proficiency are expected to leverage it in the development of CQ through international experience. While individuals with lower language proficiency who are excluded and do not engage in meaningful cross-cultural contact, are not able to gather as much information about the host culture, and operate with higher levels of uncertainty (Leung et al., 2014), hindering the development of CQ. Thus, we hypothesize that:

H_{10}: International experience and language proficiency will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high language proficiency, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of language proficiency.

Assuming that language proficiency moderates the relationship between international experience and CQ. It is also likely that language proficiency will conditionally influence the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential in a moderated mediation relationship as depicted in Figure 1. Hence, we expect the following:

H₁₁: Language proficiency will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when language proficiency is low, and stronger when language proficiency is high.

1.4.2.2. The Moderating Role of General Self-Efficacy

General self-efficacy is the belief in one's competence being self-efficacious allows the individual to perform better under challenging conditions (Bandura, 1977a) while individuals with less self-efficacy tend to be overwhelmed (Rehg et al., 2012). In keeping with the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), and given the challenging nature of cross-cultural interactions (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Shaffer et al., 2006), individuals with low general self-efficacy tend to disengage and quit (ALMazrouei & Zacca, 2020), eroding the possible impact of cross-cultural contact facilitated by international experience. However, those who enjoy a greater sense of general self-efficacy will persevere, persist, and produce better results (Bandura, 1986). Moreover, general self-efficacy has been linked to better knowledge acquisition (Day et al., 2004; Ford et al., 1998), meaning that self-efficacious individuals will acquire more knowledge interacting with host-national compared to their less efficacious counterparts. General self-efficacy triggers the incentive and the effort necessary to gain cultural knowledge and navigate the novel cultural experience (Templer et al., 2006). General self-efficacy facilitates knowledge acquisition and enhances both the quality and the quantity of contact with host-national, allowing individuals with higher general self-efficacy to gain higher CQ through their international experience. While individuals with low general self-efficacy will either quit or limit cross-cultural interaction (ALMazrouei & Zacca, 2020), they will acquire less information (Day et al., 2004; Ford et al., 1998), and they will have less incentive to gain knowledge about the foreign culture (Templer et al., 2006). Hence, they will have less interaction with host-national, lower acculturation, and end up developing less CQ than individuals with higher self-efficacy. Thus, we hypothesize that:

H₁₂: International experience and general self-efficacy will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high self-efficacy, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of self-efficacy.

Assuming that general self-efficacy moderates the relationship between international experience and CQ. It is also likely that general self-efficacy will conditionally influence the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential in a moderated mediation relationship as depicted in Figure 1. Hence, we expect the following:

H₁₃: General self-efficacy will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when general self-efficacy is low, and stronger when general self-efficacy is high.

1.4.2.3. The Moderating Role of Personality Traits

Personality traits are universal, relatively stable trait-like constructs. The variations of these traits across individuals dictate certain cognitive and behavioral biases (McCrae & Costa, 1987). The direct impact of personality traits on CQ has been studied (Ang et al., 2007; Moody, 2007; Jyoti & Kour, 2017), however, the interest in the role of personality traits should shift from the direct, deterministic impact they have on the behavior of individuals to the interactive effect they have on situational and state-like traits to bring about behaviors (Hagger, 2009). Introducing personality traits as a moderator helps explain how and when CQ is most influenced by international experience (Namazi & Namazi, 2016). There is precedence to studying the impact of moderating variables on cultural intelligence. The moderated role of both openness to experience and extraversion in the relationship between international experience and CQ has been studied (Şahin et al., 2014), however, none of the reviewed studies have looked into the moderating role of all the big five traits others have. Therefore, previous studies have stressed the need to investigate the moderating effect of personality traits on CQ (Li et al., 2016). Therefore, this study will investigate the moderating effect of personality traits, on the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence.

1.4.2.3.1. The Moderating Role of Openness to Experience

Openness to experience is the personality trait that describes individuals with high levels of intellectual curiosity and therefore tends to engage in novel experiences (Verghese & D"Netto, 2011). Openness to experience is crucial to the development of cultural intelligence (Ang et al., 2006). According to the personality trait theory individuals who possess higher openness to experience are more capable of managing the novel situations they will find themselves in during intercultural interactions (McCrae & Costa, 1997), whereas individuals with lower openness to experience are most likely going to feel threatened by it (Chao et al., 2007). Therefore, individuals with higher openness to experience are more likely to engage in different types of experiences while staying in a foreign country (McCrae & Costa, 1997) allowing them to accumulate more knowledge about foreign culture. Due to their ability to handle cross-cultural interactions (Ang et al., 2006) and their ability to attain more knowledge about the cross-cultural context, individuals with higher openness to experience develop higher levels of CQ (Şahin et al., 2014). However, the lack of curiosity and willingness to engage in novel situations among individuals with lower

openness to experience (McCrae & Costa, 1997) will limit the amount of contact they establish with host-nationals and their ability to develop CQ thereafter (Şahin et al., 2014).

Previous studies have found that openness to experience was a direct predictor of CQ (Ang et al., 2006; Harrison, 2012; Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Li et al., 2016; Presbitero 2016). However, openness to experience influences an individual's ability to internalize their international experience, as well as their ability to leverage the time spent in a foreign culture as a learning experience that facilitates the development of CQ. Hence, higher openness to experience maximizes the individual's ability to develop CQ through international experience while lower openness to experience minimizes the individual's ability to translate their international experience into cultural intelligence. Because individuals who possess higher openness to experience have a tendency to engage in intellectual activities and have a higher capacity of acquiring knowledge, openness to experience was found to moderate the relationship between international experience and CQ in Bosnia and Herzegovina, in that the relationship between international experience and CQ was stronger for individuals with higher openness to experience and lower for individuals who have lower openness to experience (Şahin et al., 2014). However, the current study aims at testing the hypothesis within the Australian context. Hence, we hypothesize that:

H₁₄: International experience and openness to experience will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high openness to experience, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of openness to experience.

Assuming that openness to experience the relationship between international experience and CQ. It is also likely that openness to experience will conditionally influence the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential in a moderated mediation relationship as depicted in Figure 1. Hence, we expect the following:

H₁₅: Openness to experience will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when openness to experience is low, and stronger when openness to experience is high.

1.4.2.3.2. The Moderating Role of Extraversion

According to the personality trait theory, extroverts engage in social interactions more than less extroverted individuals due to their energetic and outgoing nature (Costa & McCrea, 1985). Therefore, they acquire more knowledge about host-culture norms, values, and beliefs (Ang et al., 2007; Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2004). Extraversion is usually accompanied by other

qualities like ambition and adventurousness, such qualities help expand the horizons of individuals who find themselves in unfamiliar situations (Ang et al., 2006). Extraverted individuals are expected to engage in more contact with host-nationals due to their outgoing nature (Costa & McCrea, 1985). Therefore, they are expected to develop higher CQ through international experience, whereas individuals with lower extraversion are expected to limit their cross-cultural contact due to their preserved nature that would eventually limit their ability to develop CQ (Şahin et al., 2014).

Extraversion has been studied as a direct predictor of CQ, based on the premise that extraverted individuals have a social nature and therefore communicate with host-national with greater ease (Ang et al., 2006; Kour & Sharma, 2017; Shaffer et al., 2006; Shu et al., 2017). However, the possibility of engaging in cross-cultural social interactions is subject to living within a foreign culture referred to as an international experience. Extraversion augments the value of international experience as extroverted individuals engage in more frequent and higher-quality contact with host-nationals (Russell et al., 1997), allowing them to develop greater knowledge of the host culture compared to their introverted counterparts. As a result, they develop higher CQ (Şahin et al., 2014). Whereas individuals with low extroverted personalities are less engaged in interaction with host-nationals (Şahin et al., 2014), restricting them from gaining adequate knowledge about the host culture, leading to less CQ.

Moreover, extroverted individuals are more capable of dealing with uncertainty (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). This grants them an advantage in cross-cultural contexts (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992) by allowing them to make more realistic risk assessments (Prado, 2006), they also enjoy higher behavioral flexibility (Morossanova, 2013), which allows them to expand their behavioral repertoire, and consequently develop higher CQ (Van Dyne et al., 2007). As opposed to the uncertainty avoiding behavior portrayed by introverted individuals (Morossanova, 2013; Prado, 2006), which limits their willingness to engage in novel activities during the international experience and restricting their willingness and ability to learn new behaviors and expand their behavioral repertoire, and the ability to develop higher CQ thereafter (Van Dyne et al., 2007). Extraversion is seen as the most important personality trait that influences the relationship between international experience and CQ (Ang et al., 2006; Caligiuri, 2000). A study in Bosnia and Herzegovina has found that extraversion moderated the relationship between international experience and CQ (Şahin et al., 2014). However, the current study will test the hypothesis in the Australian context. Hence, we hypothesize that:

H$_{16}$: International experience and extraversion will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high levels of extraversion, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have a low level of extraversion.

Assuming that extraversion moderates the relationship between international experience and CQ. It is also likely that extraversion will conditionally influence the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential in a moderated mediation relationship as depicted in Figure 1. Hence, we expect the following:

H₁₇: Extraversion will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when extraversion is low, and stronger when extraversion is high.

1.4.2.3.3. The Moderating Role of Agreeableness

The personality trait theory asserts that agreeable individuals need social approval (Corr & Matthews, 2009). Such need gives them an incentive to learn about the norms and the values of host-culture, as well as a strong motive to learn about cultural differences (Li et al., 2013). The behavioral flexibility of agreeable individuals allows them to change their behavioral patterns to be more compatible with their environment (Ang et al., 2006); also, their empathic accuracy (Corr & Matthews, 2009) helps them refine these behaviors to achieve superior compatibility. Agreeableness has been linked to higher CQ (Ang et al., 2006; Dagher & Maamari, 2011; Harrison, 2012; Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Moody, 2007). Even though prior studies have found that agreeableness does not affect the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence (Şahin et al., 2014), agreeable individuals have the motive, behavioral flexibility, empathic accuracy, and interpersonal competence (Witt et al., 2002), that allows them to learn more about cultural differences and behave in a culturally appropriate manner. During the international experience, agreeable individuals will deploy their interpersonal competence to learn about the foreign cultural context. Their empathic accuracy gives them the ability to assess the feelings of others accurately and combined with their desire to conform to social norms (Corr & Matthews, 2009) reinforces their desire to portray socially appropriate behaviors in a foreign cultural context (Ang et al., 2006). Their behavioral flexibility ensures that they do so (Li et al., 2013). Therefore, agreeable individuals who engage in international experience are expected to develop higher CQ.

However, individuals with lower agreeableness have lower interpersonal skills, and therefore are less capable of establishing cross-cultural relations through which they can learn about the foreign culture (Witt et al., 2002). They are not as keen on social approval and have no intrinsic motivation to learn and portray context-appropriate behaviors (Li et al., 2013). Furthermore, due to their lack of behavioral flexibility, they have limited capacity to portray socially acceptable behavior even if an extrinsic motive should present itself (Corr & Matthews, 2009). Therefore, they are less likely to utilize international experience to develop CQ. Hence, higher agreeableness is expected to increase an individual's ability to develop CQ through international experience, while

lower agreeableness is expected to limit an individual's ability to develop CQ through engaging in international experience. Based on this, we hypothesize that:

H₁₈: International experience and agreeableness will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively correlated to CQ for employees who have high levels of agreeableness, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of agreeableness.

Assuming that agreeableness moderates the relationship between international experience and CQ. It is also likely that agreeableness will conditionally influence the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential in a moderated mediation relationship as depicted in Figure 1. Hence, we expect the following:

H₁₉: Agreeableness will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when agreeableness is low, and stronger when agreeableness is high.

1.4.2.3.4. The Moderating Role of Conscientiousness

Having cultural intelligence entails the ability to observe and make mental judgments about the foreign culture, as well as the ability to question the inherent assumption of their mother culture and adjust their mental models accordingly (Brislin et al., 2006). Culturally intelligent individuals also possess deep cultural knowledge (Endicott et al., 2003; Wills & Barham, 1994). According to the personality trait theory, individuals who have high conscientiousness possess higher self-awareness, a knack for planning and organization due to their desire to reduce uncertainty, and a need to assimilate the norms of their environment (Corr & Matthews, 2009). Having higher levels of conscientiousness facilitates the development of such capabilities, given that the awareness of conscientious individuals during cross-cultural interactions allows them to assess their cultural assumptions and those of the host-nationals, as a result, they become aware of their differences between their home and host cultures (Brislin et al., 2006). Due to their desire to reduce uncertainty and plan, ahead conscientious individuals seek to learn information about the culture. Their quest to maintain propriety (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), along with their desire to assimilate the norms and values of the culture of their environment (John & Srivastava, 1999) they portray learned behaviors and seek feedback to continue to adjust them until cultural propriety is achieved. Therefore, individuals who possess higher conscientiousness are more capable of utilizing their international experience in the development of CQ. However, individuals with lower conscientiousness have limited awareness during intercultural interactions (Brislin et al., 2006) and therefore, less capable of depicting cross-cultural differences. They are not as well planned as their conscientious counterparts, therefore operate under higher levels of uncertainty that elevate their

stress levels (John & Srivastava, 1999) and hinders cross-cultural interactions. They have a lower incentive to portray culturally appropriate behaviors (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). As a result, have a limited capacity to utilize their international experience in the development of CQ.

Previous studies have found that conscientiousness was a direct predictor of CQ (Ang et al., 2007; Dagher & Maamari, 2011; Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Moody, 2007). However, Conscientiousness signifies a cognitive and behavioral bias that increases awareness, the desire to reduce uncertainty, and the need to assimilate the norms of their cultural environment (McCrae & Costa, 1987). This will allow individuals who possess higher levels of conscientiousness to develop higher CQ through harnessing their international experience, while individuals who possess lower levels of conscientiousness will develop lower CQ through international experience. Hence, conscientiousness is expected to moderate the impact international experience has on CQ. Based on this, we hypothesize that:

H_{20}: International experience and conscientiousness will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high levels of conscientiousness, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of conscientiousness.

Assuming that conscientiousness moderates the relationship between international experience and CQ. It is also likely that conscientiousness will conditionally influence the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential in a moderated mediation relationship as depicted in Figure 1. Hence, we expect the following:

H_{21}: Conscientiousness will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when conscientiousness is low, and stronger when conscientiousness is high.

1.4.2.3.5. The Moderating Role of Emotional Stability

According to the personality trait theory, people with high levels of emotional stability are less likely to fall under depression or portray signs of anxiety (McCrae & Costa, 1987). Emotionally stable individuals can deal with frustration (Earley & Ang, 2003) and uncertainties associated with cross-cultural interactions and therefore communicate more effectively with host-nationals (Shaffer et al., 2006). Emotional stability entails superior interpersonal skills that are the reason an emotionally stable individual can handle unfamiliar situations and the difficulties arising from cultural incongruence in a superior manner (Gudykunst & Kim, 2003; Hall & Mirvis, 1995). Because higher emotional stability facilitates the regulation of the stress and anxiety feel that may

arise from international experience (Deller, 1997). Along with that their ability to restrain negative emotions, allows emotionally stable individuals to deal effectively with the host culture through their portrayal of positive personal and professional behavior (Caligiuri, 2000). This allows them to develop higher levels of CQ (Ang et al., 2006) through international experience. While an individual with lower levels of emotional stability have difficulties regulating their emotional responses (Deller, 1997), and due to excessive stress (John & Srivastava, 1999) they are more likely to portray negative professional and personal withdrawal behaviors, which will limit their cross-cultural effectiveness (Caligiuri, 2000). Therefore, an individual who possesses lower levels of emotional stability is less able to deal with novel cross-cultural situations and experience difficulties operating within a cross-cultural context (Gudykunst & Kim 2003). That limits their capacity to attain CQ through international experience.

A direct predictive relationship between emotional stability and CQ has been established in the literature (Ang et al., 2006; Dagher & Maamari, 2011; Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Moody, 2007). However, emotional stability facilitates cross-cultural contact. Better cross-cultural contact enhances an individual's ability to develop higher CQ through their international experience (Caligiuri, 2006; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). Even though it has not been supported in previous studies (Şahin et al., 2014), the authors contend that emotional stability moderates the relationship between international experience and CQ. Based on this, we hypothesize that:

H$_{22}$: International experience and emotional stability will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high levels of emotional stability, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of emotional stability.

Assuming that emotional stability moderates the relationship between international experience and CQ. It is also likely that emotional stability will conditionally influence the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential in a moderated mediation relationship as depicted in Figure 1. Hence, we expect the following:

H$_{23}$: Emotional stability will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when emotional stability is low, and stronger when emotional stability is high.

1.4.3. Introducing Moderators to the Relationship between International Experience and Intercultural Adjustment

International experience is a direct learning opportunity that improves cognitive, cross-cultural interaction, and relocation skills that are considered critical in an individual's ability to adjust to cross-cultural contexts (Black et al., 1991; Selmer, 2002; Shaffer et al., 2006). Based on the social cognitive theory international experience is an opportunity to learn firsthand about the different cultural values, norms, and customs through observation (Bandura, 1986). Individuals who immerse themselves in international experience are able to develop comprehensive cognitive schemas that help them understand the rules that govern social behaviors within foreign cultures and aid their cross-cultural adjustment efforts (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011). Having international experience allows individuals to go through the adaptation process faster, or even bypass some adjustment phases due to their familiarity with the cultural context, leading to an easier adjustment process than their less experienced counterparts (Hottola, 2004). International experience is seen as pre-departure exposure that will shorten the honeymoon and cultural shock phases of the intercultural adjustment process (Black & Mendenhall, 1990).

However, previous studies looking into the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment have been inconclusive (Ng et al., 2009a); some studies have shown that the impact international experience has on intercultural adjustment is nonsignificant (Black, 1988; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Kim & Slocum, 2008; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Selmer, 2002; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998). It was also found that there is a significant relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011). Other studies have found partial support for the relationship (Jenkins & Mockaitis, 2010). Such discrepancies can be the result of a failure to consider the role of moderators in the relationship (Lee & Xia, 2006). Moreover, a study reviewing the findings of 43 different studies looking into the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment concluded that assuming linearity of the relationship is an oversimplified understanding. Furthermore, a more accurate understanding of the role of international experience in intercultural adjustment can benefit from the introduction of moderating variables (Takeuchi & Chen, 2013). In an effort to overcome the inconsistencies of previous research, the current research presents two moderators to the relationship (sections 4.4.1 and 4.4.2) that will help develop an understanding of the relationship by identifying the factors that may strengthen the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment.

1.4.3.1. The Moderating Role of Language Proficiency

It is only logical to assume that the role of international experience in informing an individual about the foreign culture they need to adjust to might be seriously hindered if their ability to speak the foreign language is not sufficient (Selmer, 2006; Zhang & Peltokorpi, 2016).

Individuals learn how to adapt to different cultural contexts through socialization (Harrison et al., 1996; Nguyen et al., 2018), and low language proficiency hinders the socialization process (Al Ariss et al., 2012). According to the SCT, language can be used as a foundation for social categorization; individuals who can speak the host language proficiently are seen as in-group members, while those who have lower language proficiency are seen as out-group members (Turner, 1987). Therefore, individuals with low language proficiency will not be able to build positive cross-cultural relations through which they can learn how to adapt to the host culture. Whereas an individual who can speak the host language proficiency can establish cross-cultural relations, through which they can learn to appropriate their behaviors to the host culture (Lauring & Selmer, 2011). Moreover, the feedback an individual will receive from the host-nationals is a critical part of their social learning process (Bandura, 1977b) having lower language proficiency limits the individual's ability to understand the feedback received from the environment and therefore, restricts their ability to adjust behaviors accordingly (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Louis, 1980). This renders individuals with low language proficiency less capable of intercultural adjustment. However, individuals who enjoy stronger language abilities will interact seamlessly with host-nationals, allowing them to engage in the social learning process (Bandura, 1977b), they are also capable of understanding feedback they receive from the environment and adjust their behaviors accordingly (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Louis, 1980). This improves their inter-cultural adjustment capabilities.

Language proficiency was found to predict all aspects of intercultural adjustment (Froese et al., 2012; Paulus & Muehlfeld, 2017; Selmer & Lauring, 2015; Yang et al., 2006; Zhang & Peltokorpi, 2016). However, given the facilitating role language proficiency plays in the social learning process, it is expected that the learning outcome of international experience in terms of CQ will be significantly higher for individuals who possess higher language proficiency. While individuals who possess limited language proficiency will not be able to utilize international experience as a learning opportunity and end up developing, lower CQ than their language proficient counterparts. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H_{24}: International experience and language proficiency will interact to predict intercultural adjustment such that international experience will be more positively related to intercultural adjustment for employees who have high language proficiency, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of language proficiency.

Assuming that language proficiency moderates the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment. It is also likely that language proficiency will conditionally influence the indirect relationship between international experience and global

leadership potential in a moderated mediation relationship as depicted in Figure 1. Hence, we expect the following:

H$_{25}$: Language proficiency will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via intercultural adjustment, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when language proficiency is low, and stronger when language proficiency is high.

1.4.3.2. The Moderating Role of General Self-Efficacy

General self-efficacy refers to an individual's perception of their ability to perform a variety of achievements in different situations (Judge et al., 1998). According to the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), having higher general self-efficacy is linked to the ability to perform newly learned behaviors in a foreign culture. This would result in improving the individual's ability to behave in a more culturally sensitive manner (Black et al. 1991; Wu & Ang, 2011). Individuals with high general self-efficacy actively seek feedback that improves their ability to learn the behavioral norms and expectations of the host culture (Wu & Ang, 2011). Without the willingness to engage in ambiguous and novel situations facilitated by general self-efficacy, an individual will limit their ability to learn through social interactions, which would limit the value of the international experience for individuals with low general self-efficacy (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Lovvorn & Chen, 2011). Whereas an individual who possesses higher levels of general self-efficacy will utilize their international experience through engaging in more frequent cross-cultural interactions (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004) and as a result learn more about behavioral norms and expectations within the host culture (Wu & Ang, 2011). Not only that but individuals who possess higher levels of general self-efficacy are more likely to be proactive in seeking information and feedback (Brown et al., 2001) that would reinforce their learning outcomes. Due to the impact of general self-efficacy on intercultural adjustment as a learning outcome, the international experience of self-efficacious individuals will yield higher intercultural adjustment, where the international experience of less efficacious individuals will yield limited intercultural adjustment.

Previous studies have linked self-efficacy to intercultural adjustment (Harrison et al., 1996; Osman-Gani & Rockstuhl, 2009; Palthe, 2004). Rather than looking into the direct role of self-efficacy, the current study will investigate the moderating role; self-efficacy has on the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment because self-efficacy facilitates the social learning process (Yoon & Kayes, 2016(. Thus, we hypothesize that:

H₂₆: International experience and general self-efficacy will interact to predict intercultural adjustment such that international experience will be more positively related to intercultural adjustment for employees who have high self-efficacy, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of self-efficacy.

Assuming that general self-efficacy moderates the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment. It is also likely that general self-efficacy will conditionally influence the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential in a moderated mediation relationship as depicted in Figure 1. Hence, we expect the following:

H₂₇: General self-efficacy will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via intercultural adjustment, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when general self-efficacy is low, and stronger when general self-efficacy is high.

Table 2: A Summary of Hypotheses in the Current Study

Number	Expected Relationship	Hypothesis
H1	Linear	International experience is positively associated with cultural intelligence.
H2	Linear	International experience is positively associated with intercultural adjustment.
H3	Linear	Cultural intelligence is positively associated with intercultural adjustment.
H4	Linear	Intercultural adjustment is positively associated with global leadership potential.
H5	Linear	Cultural intelligence is positively associated with global leadership potential.
H6	Simple mediation	Cultural intelligence mediates the effect of international experience will have on intercultural adjustment.
H7	Simple mediation	Cultural intelligence mediates the effect of international experience will have on global leadership potential.
H8	Simple mediation	Intercultural adjustment mediates the effect of international experience will have on global leadership potential.
H9	Sequential mediation	CQ and intercultural adjustment sequentially mediate the effect of international experience will have on global leadership potential.
H10	Moderation	International experience and language proficiency will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high language proficiency, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of language proficiency.
H11	Moderated Mediation	Language proficiency will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when language proficiency is low, and stronger when language proficiency is high.
H12	Moderation	International experience and general self-efficacy will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high self-efficacy, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of self-efficacy.
H13	Moderated Mediation	General self-efficacy will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when general self-efficacy is low, and stronger when general self-efficacy is high.
H14	Moderation	International experience and openness to experience will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high openness to experience, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of openness to experience.

Table 2 (continued)

Number	Expected Relationship	Hypothesis
H15	Moderated Mediation	Openness to experience will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when openness to experience is low, and stronger when openness to experience is high.
H16	Moderation	International experience and extraversion will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high levels of extraversion, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have a low level of extraversion.
H17	Moderated Mediation	Extraversion will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when extraversion is low, and stronger when extraversion is high.
H18	Moderation	International experience and agreeableness will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively correlated to CQ for employees who have high levels of agreeableness, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of agreeableness.
H19	Moderated Mediation	Agreeableness will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when agreeableness is low, and stronger when agreeableness is high.
H20	Moderation	International experience and conscientiousness will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high levels of conscientiousness, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of conscientiousness.
H21	Moderated Mediation	Conscientiousness will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when conscientiousness is low, and stronger when conscientiousness is high.
H22	Moderation	International experience and emotional stability will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high levels of emotional stability, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of emotional stability.
H23	Moderated Mediation	Emotional stability will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when emotional stability is low, and stronger when emotional stability is high.
H24	Moderation	International experience and language proficiency will interact to predict intercultural adjustment such that international experience will be more positively related to intercultural adjustment for employees who have high language proficiency, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of language proficiency.
H25	Moderated Mediation	Language proficiency will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via intercultural adjustment, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when language proficiency is low, and stronger when language proficiency is high.
H26	Moderation	International experience and general self-efficacy will interact to predict intercultural adjustment such that international experience will be more positively related to intercultural adjustment for employees who have high self-efficacy, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of self-efficacy.
H27	Moderated Mediation	General self-efficacy will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via intercultural adjustment, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when general self-efficacy is low, and stronger when general self-efficacy is high

CHAPTER TWO

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Sample and Procedures

The targeted population was employees working in international organizations within the Australian context. For that purpose, the questionnaire was administered in a multi-franchise organization operating in South Australia. The organization owns multiple dealerships spanned over South Australia selling both new and used cars as well as providing after-sale services for BMW, HONDA, and NISSAN cars. The organization employs around 600 employees. The questionnaire was administered with help from the Groups Human Resources Manager. Participation was voluntary and unpaid. The supervisors were selected using purposive sampling. The respondents were from different divisions across the organization (sales, service, finance and insurance, inventory, customer service, and the HR divisions). The organization follows an inclusive recruitment policy and has a highly diversified workforce, which highlights the importance of the employees' ability to navigate through a multicultural work environment. The awareness of both the value of cultural diversity as well as the challenges it may bring to the workplace in the organization, made the organization suitable for the implementation of the questionnaire.

The study sample comprises of individuals who have an average of between 1-3 years of international experience, and have traveled to 2 or 3 countries. 35.9% of the participants had 3 or more than 3 years of international experience, and 32.7% travelled to 4 different countries or more. Making sure that the sample has a significant level of international experience in terms of breadth (number of years abroad) and width (number of different countries visited) is very important with considerable devastation among the participants is important to test the research model and establish the role of international experience in the development of CQ, intercultural adjustment, and global leadership potential thereafter.

2.2. Questionnaire Administration

Along with collecting data from different sources (employees, supervisors) the current study also introduced time lag (temporal separation) in the measurement of focal variables as part of the ex-ante remedies for the CMV issue (Podsakoff et al. 2003). Therefore, the questionnaire was

administered in two phases: 1. the first phase: time 1 (T1) which includes a questionnaire directed towards the employees themselves measuring the exogenous variable (international experience), as well as the moderating variables (language proficiency, self-efficacy, and the big five personality traits). The questionnaire also included the demographic variables controlled for in the study (age, gender, and educational level) 2. The second phase: time 2 (T2) was implemented after a one-month time lag included two questionnaires; one dedicated to measuring the mediating variables of the study (cultural intelligence and intercultural adjustment), which was directed towards the employees themselves (T2 from employees). The second questionnaire was dedicated to measuring global leadership potential in employees and directed towards their supervisors (T2 from participants' supervisors). The questionnaires were filled in a pin and paper format. Given that the organization where the questionnaire was implemented shift plan were only 50% of the employees are working from office as part of the organizations COVID-19 containment measures. The questionnaire was administered in both shifts in each of the phases.

The ex-ante CMV remedies implemented in this study made the questionnaire administration process rather critical. On one hand, the data collected at different times and from different sources needed to be consolidated to a single record per participant, on the other hand, the anonymity of the employee needs to be maintained. Therefore, the following measures were taken: with the assistance of the HR unite; each of the participating employees was assigned an identification code number which they were asked to include in both surveys, and based on which their surveys from T1 and T2 were matched and compiled into a single record. A list of employees' names and their corresponding identification code numbers was provided to the supervisors, who were asked to include only the identification code number on the survey. The questionnaires were filled in a pencil paper format. They were placed in sealed envelopes upon completion and then handed out to a designated contact person (one in each location).

In the first distribution phase (T1), out of 350 questionnaires sent out, we retrieved 338 (T1 response rate was 96.5%). In the second distribution phase (T2 from employees) out of the 338 questionnaires sent out 319 were retrieved (T2 from employees' response rate was 94.3%). Within the second phase, (T2 from participants' supervisors) were the supervisors evaluated the global leadership potential of employees under their direct supervision, 69 out of the 72 supervisors' responses were retrieved (T2 from participants' supervisors' response rate was 95.8%). The records of employees whose supervisors' responses were irretrievable got discarded, and out of 350 employees contacted 312 responses were usable. Most respondents were males (55.1%), 73.1% of the respondents had a bachelor's degree, in terms of age 40.5% were between 35-50 years old. Table 3 below detail the demographics of the participants segregated in terms of gender, educational level, and age.

Table 3: Participants Demographic

	Gender		Education			Age				
	Male	**Female**	**High School**	**Bachelor**	**Higher**	**Less Than 25**	**25-35**	**35-50**	**Over 50**	**Missing**
Frequency	174	142	34	231	51	56	81	128	47	4
Percentage	55.1%	44.9%	10.8%	73.1%	16.1%	17.7%	25.6%	40.5%	14.9%	1.3%

2.3. Measurement Tools

To test the validity of the research model (Figure 1) and its corresponding hypothesis (Table 1) the constructs of the model were operationalized through latent variables that are measured using a three-wave data collection procedure and three comprehensive questionnaires applied. Some aspects of the questionnaire are directed towards the employees themselves (self-reported), and others are directed towards the direct supervisors of the participating employees as explained in section 3.4. The items measuring each of the latent variables were developed based on existing literature. Given that the questionnaire was administered in Australia, it was administered in English and the items adopted from literature and developed by the author were used as-is.

2.3.1. International Experience

For the current study, international experience is all time spent abroad regardless of the type of travel (working or nonworking related travels) given that both types of international experience have been shown to elevate cultural intelligence (CQ) (Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Takeuchi et al., 2005). Instead of relying on the binary measurement of international experience, the current study opted for a comprehensive assessment of the experience brought on by Crowne (2013) that takes into account: 1. The length of the international experience, which refers to the time spent abroad measured in years. 2. The breadth of the experience, which signifies whether the time spent abroad, was spent in one country or several countries. Establishing the distinction regarding the breadth of the experience is important because having international experience in different countries allows the individual to compare and contrast different cultures and enriches their cultural knowledge (Crowne, 2013; Tarique & Takeuchi, 2008). 3. The depth of the international experience; the depth of international experience refers to how exposed to the host-culture/s, the frequency, and depth of their contact with host-nationals were during their travel (Crowne, 2013). The three sub-dimensions of the international experience measure were assessed using items 1 through 4. A sample of the scale includes "During my time aboard, I had constant contact with the locals." ($\alpha = .74$)

2.3.2. Cultural Intelligence (CQ)

To assess the CQ of the participating employees they were asked to respond to the 20 items of Ang's (2004) scale that measures the aggregated CQ through measuring its sub-dimensions (metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral CQ). The instrument has been validated (Ang et al., 2006). The scale has high internal consistency within each of the sub-dimensions (metacognitive CQ (α = .76), cognitive CQ (α = .84), motivational CQ (α = .76), behavioral CQ (α = .83)). A well-established discriminant validity between the sub-dimensions (Ang et al., 2007; Şahin et al., 2014), with the CFA demonstrated through goodness of fit for the four sub-dimensions to the data: χ^2 (164df) = 822.26, NNFI = 0.91, CFI = 0.92, SRMR = 0.06, and RMSEA = 0.08 (p < 0.05) (Ang et al., 2007). It is widely used in measuring CQ (Chen et al., 2012; Elenkov & Manev, 2009; Lorenz et al., 2017). To improve on the existing scale, the author added 5 new items. The answers were provided on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). A sample for the three sub-dimensions of the scale includes "I know the marriage systems of other cultures,'' "I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me," and "I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it." (α = .89)

2.3.3. Intercultural Adjustment

To assess the intercultural adjustment of the participating employees, Black & Stephen's (1989) measurement scale was adopted. The scale measures intercultural adjustment as an aggregated construct with three-sub dimensions (general, work, and interactive adjustment). All facets of scale enjoy high level of internal consistency (interactive adjustment (α = .89), general adjustment (α = .82), work adjustment (α = .91)) (Black & Stephen, 1989). The three-dimensionality of the construct is supported by the CFA as illustrated by goodness of fit (χ^2 = 459.71, df = 264, GFI = .84, IFI = .91, CFI =. 91, TLI = .91, and RMSEA = .06) (Oyedele & Konanahalli, 2016). It is also one of the most used scales in measuring intercultural adjustment (e.g., Caligiuri, 2000; Kim & Slocum, 2009; Okpara & Kabongo, 2011; Takeuchi et al., 2002). Six items were added to the scale by the author of the current study. Responses were provided on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree), with items 103, 108, 115, and 116 reversely coded. A sample of the scale includes "I am not bothered by the cost of living," "I enjoy interacting with host nationals outside of work," and "I adhere to the safety and health standards of the host country." (α = .87)

2.3.4. The Big Five Personality Traits

Each of the big five personality traits (extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and emotional stability) is measured through several facets (John & Srivastava, 1999). The 44-item measurement tool used in this study is referred to as the big five

inventory (BTI) (John & Srivastava, 1999). The BTI has been used in different languages and across different cultures and maintains impressive replicability (Caprara & Cervone, 2000; Larsen & Buss, 2005). With an internal consistency ranging from .90 to .94 and a high discriminant validity reported by the original study with an average validity coefficient of .92, the 44-item/five-factor BTI model has been proven to be both reliable and valid scale (John & Srivastava, 1999). The scale has been used in international human resources research (Joseph et al., 2014; Ramalu et al., 2010; Şahin et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2010). Given the high cross-cultural/lingual replicability of the BTI, it was adopted as is. Respondents were asked to answer questions 31-74 on a five-point Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Items 32, 35, 37, 39, 41, 43, 46, 49, 51, 52, 56, 62, 67, 70, and 74 are reversely coded items. A sample of the extraversion sub-dimension scale includes "I have an assertive personality" and "I am outgoing, sociable". The agreeableness sub-dimension includes items like "I have a forgiving nature" and "I am considerate and kind to everyone". Items like "I do things efficiently" and "I make a plan and follow through with it" were used to measure conscientiousness. "I have an active imagination" and "I am inventive" are examples of the openness to experience sub-dimension. Finally, a sample of the emotional stability sub-dimension includes items like "I am relaxed and I can handle stress very well" and "I can be tensed". The overall reliability for the five personality traits was .84. More specifically, the reliability for each personality trait is .61 for extroversion, .78 openness to experience, .65 for agreeableness, .78 for conscientiousness, and .84 for emotional stability.

2.3.5. General Self-Efficacy

To measure general self-efficacy this study has adopted the Schwarzer & Jerusalem's (1979) scale that was translated into English later (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). The 10-item measurement tool referred to as the general self-efficacy scale (GSES) is a single-dimensional tool designed to assess the general sense of perceived self-efficacy of the individuals coping abilities to the demands of novel situations. The GSES measures the stable sense of an individual's capacity to deal with a variety of stressful and novel situations in a self-reported manner (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). The scale has an internal consistency as high as (α = .90) (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). The GSES is a one-dimensionality of the construct (Scholz et al., 2002), the uni-dimensionality of it is supported by the CFA as illustrated by goodness of fit (χ^2 = 56,057, df = 45, GFI = .98, AGFI = .97, NFI = .97, RMR = .03, and RMSEA = .05) (Scholz et al., 2002). The parsimonious and reliable scale has proven high internal validity when used in different cultures and it was able to withstand different languages; for the German sample the CFA model fit was (χ^2 = 31.56 (df = 35, p = .64). χ^2 /df = .90, RMR = .037, GFI= .99, and AGFI = .99). In Spain the CFA model fit was (χ^2 = 59.53 (df = 35, p = .006), χ^2 /df = 1.70, RMR = .033, GFI = .99, and AGFI = .99). For the Chinese sample the fit was (χ^2 = 27.09 (df = 35, p = .83), χ^2 /df= .77, RMR = .041, GFI = .99, and AGFI = .99) (Schwarzer et al., 1997). The scale is widely used in international human resources and leadership research (Luthans et al., 2013; Prochazka et al., 2017).

Respondents were asked to rate the degree to which each item in the GSES accurately describes them on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1 = Not true at all) and (5 = Exactly true). All 10-items of the scale are positively worded items. A sample of the scale includes "I can solve most problems if I invest in the necessary effort," "It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals," and "When I am in trouble I can find a way out or a solution." (α = .79)

2.3.6. Language Proficiency

The language proficiency assessment scale was originally presented in Selmer's (2006) study. The original scale does not differentiate between comprehension and speaking abilities. Hence, the scale was adapted (Zhang, 2013) to include 1. Reading abilities. 2. Writing abilities. 3. Listening. 4. Speaking, and 5. Comprehensive abilities, which are believed to be crucial for second language learning. Selmer's (2006) language proficiency scale had a high internal consistency (α = .92) reported in the original study with all the items loading into the same factor (one-dimensional construct). The scale has been used to assess the language proficiency of expatriates in international human resources research (Froese et al., 2012; Selmer & Lauring, 2015). However, there are no reported CFA or internal consistency numbers concerning Zhang's (2013) amendments to the scale. Therefore, and for the sake of ensuring the reliability of the self-reporting instrument items 94 and 95 were added to the 8-item scale, the added items replicate items 85 and 89, respectively. Respondents were asked to respond to each item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "5 = strongly agree" to "1 = strongly disagree". Items 85, 87, 88, 89, 91, and 94 are reversely coded items, while the rest of the scale is regular (positively worded). A sample of the scale includes "I understand very little of the local language", "I speak very little of the local dialect where I live in the host location", and "I can read the local language." (α = .80).

2.3.7. Global Leadership Potential

The multicultural personality questionnaire (MPQ) developed by Van Der Zee & Van Oudenhoven (2000) and has been reported to have high reliability and validity in measuring global leadership (Mendenhall et al., 2012) along with considerable predictive abilities (Mendenhall et al., 2012; Van Oudenhoven et al., 2003). Moreover, it has emerged as an instrument with the highest validity among ten other measurement tools (Matsumoto & Hwang, 2013). MPQ measures five sub-dimensions that can predict an individual's cross-cultural leadership capabilities including 1. Social initiative (proactive attitude towards cross-cultural relations). 2. Cultural empathy (an accurate sense of the feelings and experiences of others). 3. Flexibility (the ability to adapt behavior whenever needed). 4. Open-mindedness (unprejudiced attitude towards out-group members). 5. Emotional stability (the ability to weather difficult situations) (Van Der Zee& Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Given that operating in cross-cultural settings often requires operating with insufficient information, tolerating ambiguity and the ability to cope with uncertainty is a crucial

aspect of global leadership capabilities. It has been added to the MPQ to create a more comprehensive measure of global leadership capabilities (O'keefe, 2018). However, the instrument was redirected towards the direct supervisors of the participants rather than the participants themselves due to the following reasons:

1. The questionnaire length: longer questionnaires are known to cause lower responses (Bean & Roszkowski, 1995; Roszkowski & Bean, 1990). Directing the global leadership potential assessment tool towards the supervisors of the employees instead of the employees themselves will shorten the number of questions the respondent has to answer per session. Therefore, it will reduce the impact the length of the questionnaire has on the response rate.

2. Common method variance: collecting the data used to measure the exogenous variable and the endogenous variables from different sources is one of the recommended methods to reduce the possibility of a common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakof et al., 2012). Redirecting the items of global leadership potential measurement tools towards the supervisors, while directing the rest of the questionnaire to the employees themselves diversifies the sources of data and reduces the possibility of CMV. Other aspects of the CMV will be addressed through the administration of the questionnaire as explained in section 4.

The original Van Der Zee & Van Oudenhoven's (2000) MPQ has high internal consistency ranging from (α = .80) to (α = .91). The validity of the scale was proven through confirmatory factor analysis (χ^2 = 160, NIT = 421; NNFI = .93; CFI = .91; RMSEA = .074) (Leone et al., 2005) with the NNFI and CFI above .90, and RMSEA below .08 (Bentler, 1990). However, due to the relative newness of the global leadership potential measurement tool and lack of internal consistency and validity proof thus far, 15 items were added to the original 50 items to boost the internal consistency and the validity of the scale. Respondents were asked to respond to each item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "5 = strongly agree" to "1 = strongly disagree". Items 128, 136, 138, 140, 150, 156, and 165 are reverse-coded items, while the rest of the scale is regular (positively worded). A sample of the scale includes "He/She can build productive relationships", "He/She considers the habits of colleagues", "He/She prefers to work within a strict scheme," and "He/She remains acceptant of new information in uncertain situations." (α = .93).

2.4. Control Variables

To eliminate the confounding effect of the demographic variables that have been shown to influence the dynamics of cross-cultural competencies, and to develop a deeper understanding causal relationship between the endogenous and the exogenous variables the following control variables were introduced:

1. Age: controlling for age is common practice in CQ research (Ang et al., 2007; Eisenberg et al., 2013), and a similar trend has been detected in global leadership research (Lisak & Erez, 2014) because different age groups tend to portray different levels of interaction with host-national as well as reporting different levels of emotional stability (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012). Controlling for age was found to strengthen the relationship between CQ and leadership in cross-cultural contexts (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011). It is also controlled while studying the antecedents of CQ (Ang et al., 2007; Eisenberg et al., 2013; Tarique & Takeuchi, 2008). Age is also controlled for studying intercultural adjustment because younger individuals are believed to be more adaptive to cross-cultural contexts (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012; Van der Zee & Brinkman, 2004). Age is linked to lower tolerance towards ambiguity and stress, which would give younger employees an edge over older employees in cross-cultural contexts prone to being ambiguous and stressed (Bücker et al., 2014). Because according to the continuity theory (Atchley, 1999) individuals' willingness to change their routine or social habits drop significantly with age, which would make them unwilling and incapable of adapting to new cultural context or deal with the stress that accompanies cross-cultural interactions. To eliminate the possible confounding effect of age, it is introduced as a control variable in the current study, and respondents were asked to report their age by choosing from four predefined age groups (less than 25, 25-35, 35-50, over 50).

2. Gender: women are believed to have higher cultural empathy (a sub-dimension of global leadership potential) than men (Van der Zee et al., 2003) because women tend to be more influenced by others' feelings and they tend to show more mimicry (Cundiff & Komarraju, 2008). They are also higher on emotional stability (Van Der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Women tend to be less willing to relocate (work in a foreign culture) compared to their male counterparts, due to their minority status in unfamiliar cultural contexts (Black et al., 1992) they tend to develop higher interpersonal skills, and more social relations than men do. This in turn can influence their CQ and intercultural adjustment (Black et al., 1992; Parker & McEvoy, 1993), and global leadership potential (Lisak & Erez, 2014). To guard against the distraction of the gender of the respondent may cause, and following previous on a trend set by previous studies (Ang et al., 2007; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003), gender was added as a dummy control variable in the current study (1= female and 0 = male)

3. Educational level: Even though some studies found that the educational level of the individual did not influence any aspect of CQ (Bücker et al., 2014). Higher education can lead to increasing open-mindedness and elevate an individual interest in different cultures. Higher education broadens an individual's conceptual horizon and thus enables them to interact with people from different cultural backgrounds (Hare, 1979). There is long-standing evidence that associates higher educational level with higher intellectual abilities (Anastasi, 1988), which makes it relevant in the study of CQ (Eisenberg et al.,

2013), and global leadership potential (Ramsey et al., 2017) and warrants being controlled for (Chen et al., 2010; Tay et al., 2008).

2.5. Internal reliability

To test the internal reliability of all the scales used in the questionnaire, the Cronbach alpha test was used. The international experience measurement scale had an acceptable level of internal validity at 0.74. The internal validity of the motivational CQ scale, when tested for all five items (including the item added by the authors), was .54, which is below the threshold of .60 (Robinson et al.,1991). However, removing the item added by the author as illustrated in Appendix A elevates the Cronbach's alpha value to .74. Therefore, item 9 was removed from further analysis. The cognitive cultural intelligence measurement scale had high internal reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .83. The motivational CQ measurement scale had Cronbach's alpha value of .80. The Cronbach's alpha value for the behavioral CQ was .68. The general adjustment scale had the Cronbach alpha of .76. the interactive adjustment had the Cronbach alpha value of .80. Work adjustment reliability was .62. The internal reliability within the global leadership potential measurement scale was as follows: the social initiative scale had a reliability of .66. The cultural empathy measurement scale was below the .6 threshold. However, removing item number 134 (added by the author) elevates the Cronbach alpha value to .62 as illustrated in Appendix A. The flexibility scale had a reliability of .71. The open-mindedness scale had a Cronbach alpha of .81. Emotional stability had a Cronbach alpha of .78. Tolerance of ambiguity had the Cronbach alpha of .61. the internal validity of personality traits was as follows: extroversion had the Cronbach alpha of .61, openness to experience had the Cronbach alpha of .78, agreeableness had the Cronbach alpha of .65, conscientiousness had the Cronbach alpha of .78, openness to experience had the Cronbach alpha of .78, emotional stability had the Cronbach alpha of .84. general self-efficacy had the Cronbach alpha of .69. Finally, the language proficiency measurement scale had a Cronbach alpha of .80. Table 4 summarizes the results of the internal validity of all the measurement scales as well as the composite scale for each variable.

Table 4: Internal Validity

Variable Type	Variable Name	Sub-Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Score
Dependent Variable	International Experience		.74	
Mediator	Cultural Adjustment			.89
Mediator	Intercultural Adjustment			.87
Dependent Variable	Global Leadership Potential			.93
Moderator	Personality Traits	Extroversion	.61	.84
		Openness To Experience	.78	
		Agreeableness	.65	
		Conscientiousness	.78	
		Emotional Stability	.84	
Moderator	General Self-Efficacy	.69	Moderator	
Moderator	Language Proficiency	.80	Moderator	

2.6. The Intraclass Correlation Coefficient

Since the collected data is nested; respondents were clustered into 69 groups each of which represents the immediate supervisor of the cluster, the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) needed to be calculated for each one of the variables within the study. The test aims at investigating whether or not there is a significant variance between the clusters that warrants the use of multilevel modeling techniques. To conduct the test, the ICC values of the between-group mean square (MSB) and the within-group mean square (MSW) were calculated using SPSS 22 one-way ANOVA test, and the average group size (K) was identified, the ICC values were computed using the ICC formula below (Bartko, 1976).

$$ICC = \frac{MSB - MSW}{MSB + (K - 1) * MSW}$$

The ICC values are .04 for international experience, .02 for CQ, .02 for intercultural adjustment, .00 for global leadership potential, .01 for extraversion, .01 for openness to experience, .04 for agreeableness, .07 for conscientiousness, .00 emotional stability, .01 for general self-efficacy, and .00 for language proficiency, indicating that the research variables do not vary significantly across supervisors and that disregarding the supervisors' identity and proceeding with single level modeling is appropriate (Snijders & Bosker, 2012).

2.7. Descriptive Analysis

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated using SPSS 22 to measure the strength of the linear association between the variables of the study. As indicated in Table 5; correlations between conscientiousness and CQ, conscientiousness and emotional stability, emotional stability and CQ, as well as the correlation between global leadership potential and intercultural adjustment, are considered strong (higher than .49). The correlations between global leadership potential on one hand and international experience, CQ, and conscientiousness on the other, as well as the correlations between general self-efficacy on one hand and CQ, consciousness, and emotional stability on the other, are considered of moderate strength (between .3-.49). Other correlations are considered either weak or nonsignificant (Rumsey, 2010).

Table 5 also indicates the means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis of the variables. The variable with the lowest means in extroversion at 2.66, the highest mean is for openness to experience at 3.85. The highest standard deviation is for international experience at .73 and the lowest is for global leadership potential at .43. The skewness values of all research variables are within the (-1,1) acceptable range (Hair et al., 2007) indicating good symmetry. The kurtosis values for all research variables are within the (-2-2) acceptable range (George & Mallery, 2010). The skewness and the kurtosis values indicate that the data is normally distributed.

Table 5: Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis Values, and the Intercorrelations among Variables of the Study

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1.Gender														
2.Age	-.08													
3.Education	-.08	.05												
4.International Experience	.00	.03	.13*								.			
5.CQ	-.12*	.13*	.18**	.29**										
6.Intercultural Adjustment	-.15	.09	.07	.16**	.32**									
7.Extraversion	-.16**	.11*	.07	.27**	.40**	17**								
8.Openness To Experience	-.06	.04	.04	.21**	.14*	.00	.09							
9.Agreeableness	-.05	.02	-.03	.02	.02	-.04	.34**	.42**						
10.Conscientiousness	-.09	.09	.16**	.25**	.90**	.27**	.40**	.02	.03					
11.Emotional Stability	-.05	.06	.20**	15**	.66**	.31**	.26**	.00	-.04	.68**				
12.GSE	-.22**	-.05	.15**	.15**	.37**	.20**	.16**	.03	-.03	.36**	.39**			
13.Language Proficiency	-.04	-.02	-.03	.13*	.13*	.21**	.11*	.13*	.03	.11	.10	.07		
14.Global Leadership Potential	-.03	.02	.10	.38**	.36**	.49**	.17**	.10	.00	.32**	.26**	.29**	.23**	
Mean	-	-	-	3.06	3.72	3.15	2.66	3.85	3.56	3.52	3.45	3.61	3.35	3.57
Standard Deviation	-	-	-	0.73	.44	.50	.50	.52	.49	.56	.68	.43	.56	.43
Skewness	-.20	-.15	.07	-.08	-.54	-.18	-.22	-.31	-.40	-.23	-.57	.21	-.03	-.64
Kurtosis	-1.80	-1.30	.64	-.38	.77	-.87	-.65	-.46	-.25	-.40	-.24	.42	-.24	.33
n = 312. * p < 0.05 (2-Tailed). **p < 0.01 Level (2-Tailed). CQ = Cultural intelligence														

2.8. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Given a large number of items per construct, we resorting to parceling all variables except international experience because it had only 4 items. Parceling multidimensional variables (CQ, intercultural adjustment, and global leadership potential) was done using the internal consistency approach, where the sub-dimensions within each variable were used as the grouping criteria to create parcels (Kishton & Widaman, 1994). This technique was chosen to preserve the integrity of the facets within the multidimensional variables (Little et al., 2002). For the unidimensional variables (extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, general self-efficacy, and language proficiency) random method where all items have the same chance of being assigned to a parcel was used (Little et al., 2002). Roughly equal-sized parcels were created.

To examine the convergent validity of the research constructs. We investigated model 1 (Appendix B) through χ^2, the comparative fit index (CFI), the incremental fit index (IFI), the

Tucker–Lewis index (TLI), the standardized root mean square residual index (SRMR), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). The CFA was conducted using lavaan package (0.6-8) (Rosseel, 2012) in R 4.0.4 with robust maximum likelihood as the estimation method. The results indicated a good model fit (χ^2 = 574.931, df = 332, χ^2/df = 1.73, p = 00, CFI = .94, TLI = .93, SRMR = .045, and RMSEA = .048 with 90% confidence interval (CI)). All factor loadings were higher than the 0.5 thresholds (Hair et al., 2010) as indicated in Table 6. Note that conscientiousness was removed from the CFA analysis due to the multicollinearity issue (tested in chapter 3 section 1). To test the discriminant validity of the hypothesized CFA model, we compared the 13-factor model in Appendix B with alternative models in Table 7. The results show that our original 13 model (model 1) is better fitted to the constructs in our study, indicating the discriminant validity of our CFA model (Bagozzi & Phillips, 1991).

Table 6: Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Comparing the Hypothesized 13-Factor Model to Alternative Models

Model	χ^2	df	p	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA	90% CI RMSEA	$\Delta \chi^2$	Δ df	p
1.13-Factor Model	574.93	332	.00	1.73	.94	.93	.04	.04	.040-.053	-------	-------	-------
2.12-Factor Model [a]	1093.97	401	.00	2.72	.83	.80	.08	.07	.069-.080	519.04	69	.0000
3.12-Factor Model [b]	843.59	401	.00	2.10	.89	.87	.05	.05	.054-.065	268.66	69	.0000
4.12-Factor Model [c]	886.30	401	.00	2.21	.88	.86	.06	.06	.057-.068	311.37	69	.0000
5.9-Factor Model [d]	1422.86	431	.00	3.30	.78	.74	.08	.08	.081-.091	847.93	99	.0000
6.1-Factor Model [e]	2766.57	464	.00	5.96	.47	.43	.12	.12	.122-.131	2191.64	132	.0000

CFI=Comparative Fit Index; TLI= Tucker-Lewis index; SRMR= Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; RMSEA=Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CI=Confidence Interval.

n = 312. All alternative models were compared to the 13-factor model which consists of Factor 1:IE; Factor 2: CQ; Factor 3: ICA; Factor 4: Extroversion; Factor 5=OtE; Factor 6: Agreeableness Factor 7: ES Factor 8: GSE; Factor 9= LP; Factor 10= GLP; Factor 11= Age, Factor 12: Gender; Factor 13: EL.

The 12-factor model [a] combines GLP and CQ (1:IE; Factor 2: CQ and GLP; Factor 3: ICA; Factor 4: Extroversion; Factor 5=OtE; Factor 6: Agreeableness Factor 7: ES Factor 8: GSE; Factor 9= LP; Factor 10= Age, Factor 11: Gender; Factor 12: EL). 12-factor model [b] combines ICA and GLP (Factor 1:IE; Factor 2: CQ; Factor 3: ICA and GLP; Factor 4: Extroversion; Factor 5=OtE; Factor 6: Agreeableness Factor 7: ES Factor 8: GSE; Factor 9= LP; Factor 10= Age, Factor 11: Gender; Factor 12: EL). The 12-factor model [c] combines IE and (Factor 1:IE and GLP; Factor 2: CQ; Factor 3: ICA; Factor 4: Extroversion; Factor 5=OtE; Factor 6: Agreeableness Factor 7: ES Factor 8: GSE; Factor 9= LP; Factor 10= Age, Factor 11: Gender; Factor 12: EL). The 10-factor model [d] combines GLP and IE and aggregates the five personality traits into one factor (Factor 1:IE and GLP; Factor 2: CQ; Factor 3: ICA; Factor 4: Extroversion, OtE, Agreeableness, and ES Factor 5: GSE; Factor 6= LP; Factor 7= Age, Factor 8: Gender; Factor 9: EL). The 1-factor model [e] combines all variables in one factor (Factor 1= IE, GLP, CQ, ICA, Extroversion, OtE, Agreeableness, ES, GSE, LP, Age, and EL). Where IE= International Experience, CQ= Cultural Intelligence, ICA= Intercultural Adjustment, OtE= Openness to Experience, ES= Emotional Stability, GSE= General Self-Efficacy, EL= Language Proficiency, GLP= Global Leadership Potential.

Table 7: Standardized Factor Loadings

Path	Factor loading	Path	Factor loading	Path	Factor loading
Q1<--- International Experience	.576	CE <---Global Leadership	.870	AGP2<---Agreeableness	.671
Q2<--- International Experience	.542	SI <---Global Leadership	.954	ESP1<---Emotional Stability	.834
Q3<--- International Experience	.693	F<---Global Leadership	.889	ESP2<---Emotional Stability	.844
Q4<--- International Experience	.759	OM <---Global Leadership	.795	GSEP1<---General Self-Efficacy	.673
BCQ<---Cultural Intelligence	.696	EM <---Global Leadership	.635	GSEP2<---General Self-Efficacy	.625
MCQ<---Cultural Intelligence	.647	ToA<---Global leadership potential	.854	LPP1<---Language Proficiency	.955
CCQ<---Cultural Intelligence	.747	EXTRP1<---Extraversion	.850	LPP2<---Language Proficiency	.924
MOTCQ<---Cultural Intelligence	.633	EXTRP2<---Extraversion	.800	Age<--age	1
ICAP1<---Intercultural Adjustment	.711	OPEP1<--Openness to Experience	.740	Gender <--gender	1
ICAP2<---Intercultural Adjustment	.865	OPEP2<--Openness to Experience	.782	Education<--education	1
ICAP3<---Intercultural Adjustment	.647	AGP1<---Agreeableness	.724		

Where Q1, Q2, Q3, and Q4 represent questions 1,2,3, and 4 used to measure international experience (The international experience was not parceled). BCQ=Behavioral CQ, CCQ=Cognitive CQ, MCQ= Metacognitive CQ, MOT CQ= Motivational CQ, ICAP1= General Intercultural Adjustment, ICAP2=Interactive Intercultural Adjustment, ICAP3=Work Intercultural Adjustment, SI= Social Initiative, CE= Cultural Empathy, F=Flexibility, OM= Open-mindedness, EM= Emotional Stability, ToA= Tolerance of Ambiguity, EXTRP1= Extroversion parcel one, EXTRP2= Extroversion parcel two, OPENP1= Openness to experience parcel one, OPENP2= Openness to experience parcel two, AGP1= Agreeableness parcel one, AGP2= Agreeableness parcel two, ESP1= Emotional stability parcel one, ESP2= Emotional stability parcel two, GSEP1= General self-efficacy parcel one, GSEP2= General self-efficacy parcel two, LPP1= Language proficiency parcel one, LPP2= Language proficiency parcel two.

CHAPTER THREE

3. RESULTS

3.1. Multicollinearity

To ensure that the variance explained by each one of the dependent variables in the study is unique to that variable, a multicollinearity test has been conducted. As illustrated in Table 8, all variance inflation factor values, as well as the tolerance values, are below the acceptable threshold of 5 except conscientiousness (Hair et al., 1995). Hence conscientiousness will be excluded from further analysis.

Table 8: Multicollinearity Test

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
International Experience	.827	1.210
CQ	.453	2.208
Intercultural Adjustment	.826	1.210
Extraversion	.670	1.492
Openness To Experience	.675	1.482
Agreeableness	.663	1.508
Conscientiousness	.152	6.583
Emotional Stability	.485	2.061
General Self-Efficacy	.813	1.230
Language Proficiency	.925	1.081
n= 312, VIF= Variance Inflation Factor, CQ = Cultural Intelligence		

3.2. Linearity

Given that mediation is a form of regression, the assumption of linearity needs to be met. To test whether the relationship between the dependant variable (global leadership potential) and the predictive variables of the study we used the scatter plots of the relationship between the aforementioned variables (Hair et al., 2010) as illustrated in Figure 2
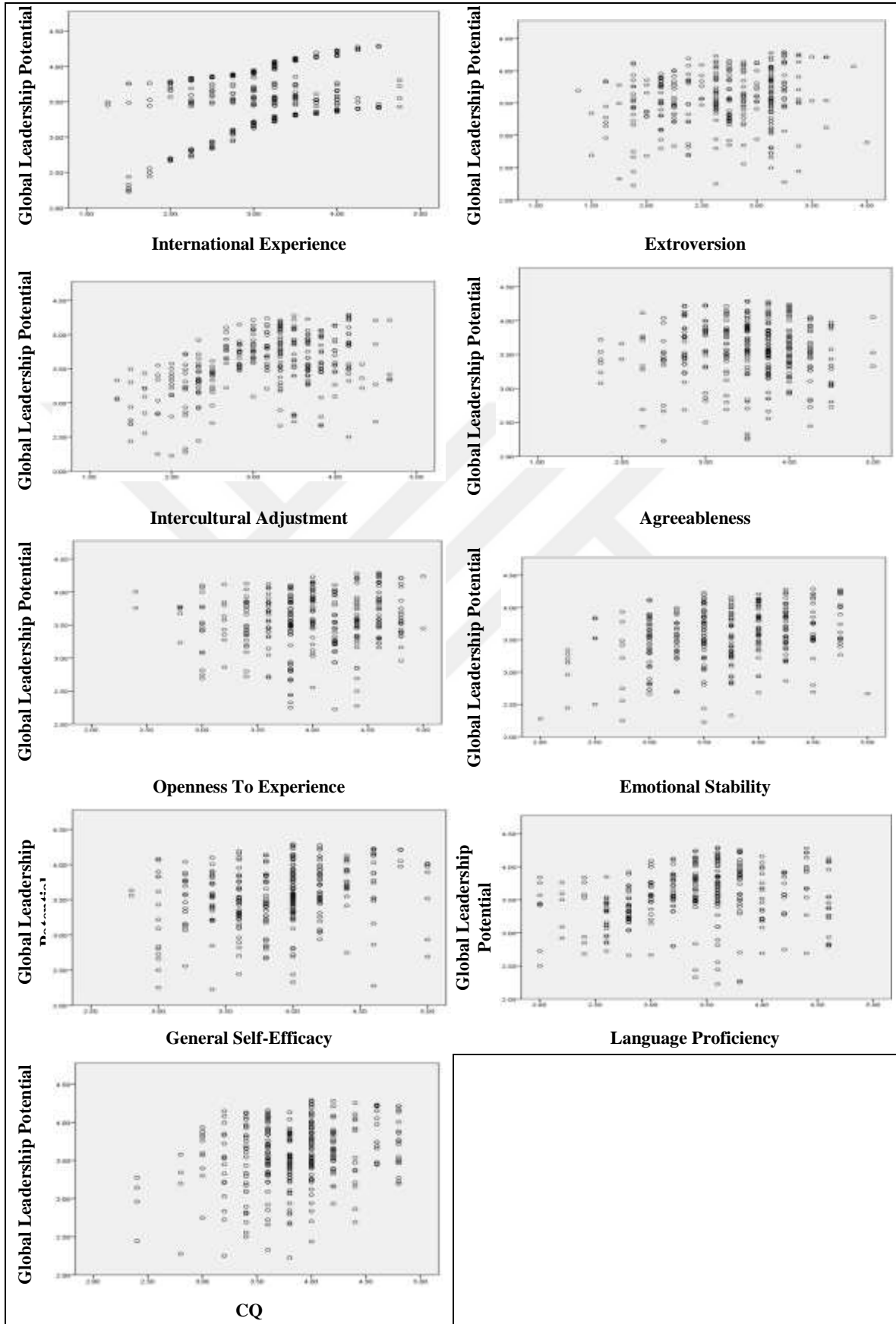
Figure 2: Linearity Scatter Plot

International Experience

Extroversion

Intercultural Adjustment

Agreeableness

Openness To Experience

Emotional Stability

General Self-Efficacy

Language Proficiency

CQ

Figure 3: Q-Q Plot

International Experience

Extroversion

Intercultural Adjustment

Agreeableness

Openness To Experience

Emotional Stability

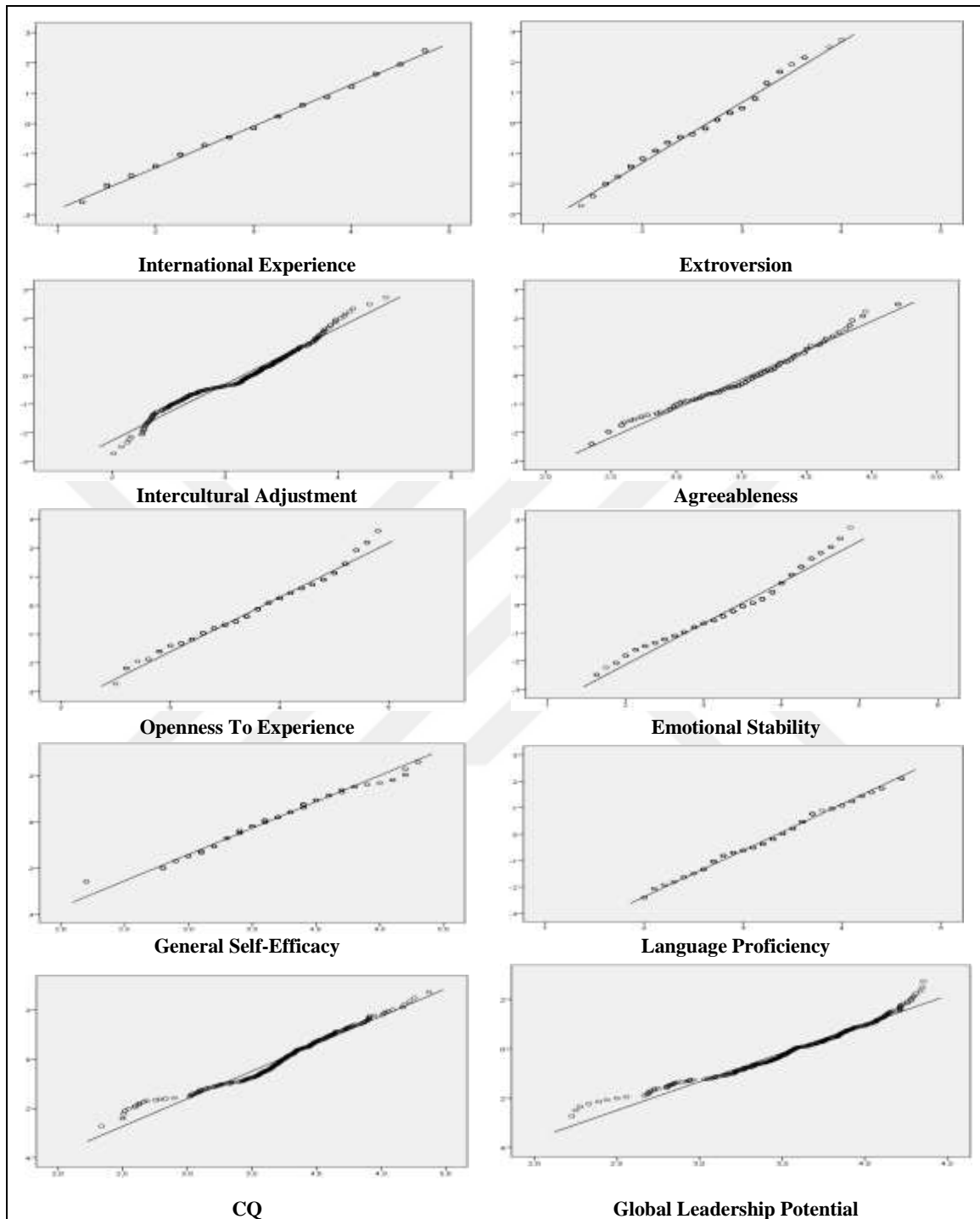General Self-Efficacy

Language Proficiency

CQ

Global Leadership Potential

3.3. Normality

To test the normality of each of the study constructs we have used the Q-Q plot from SPSS 22. The normality of the variables was assessed through visualization of the scatterplot. Figure 3 illustrates the normality of the variables of the study.
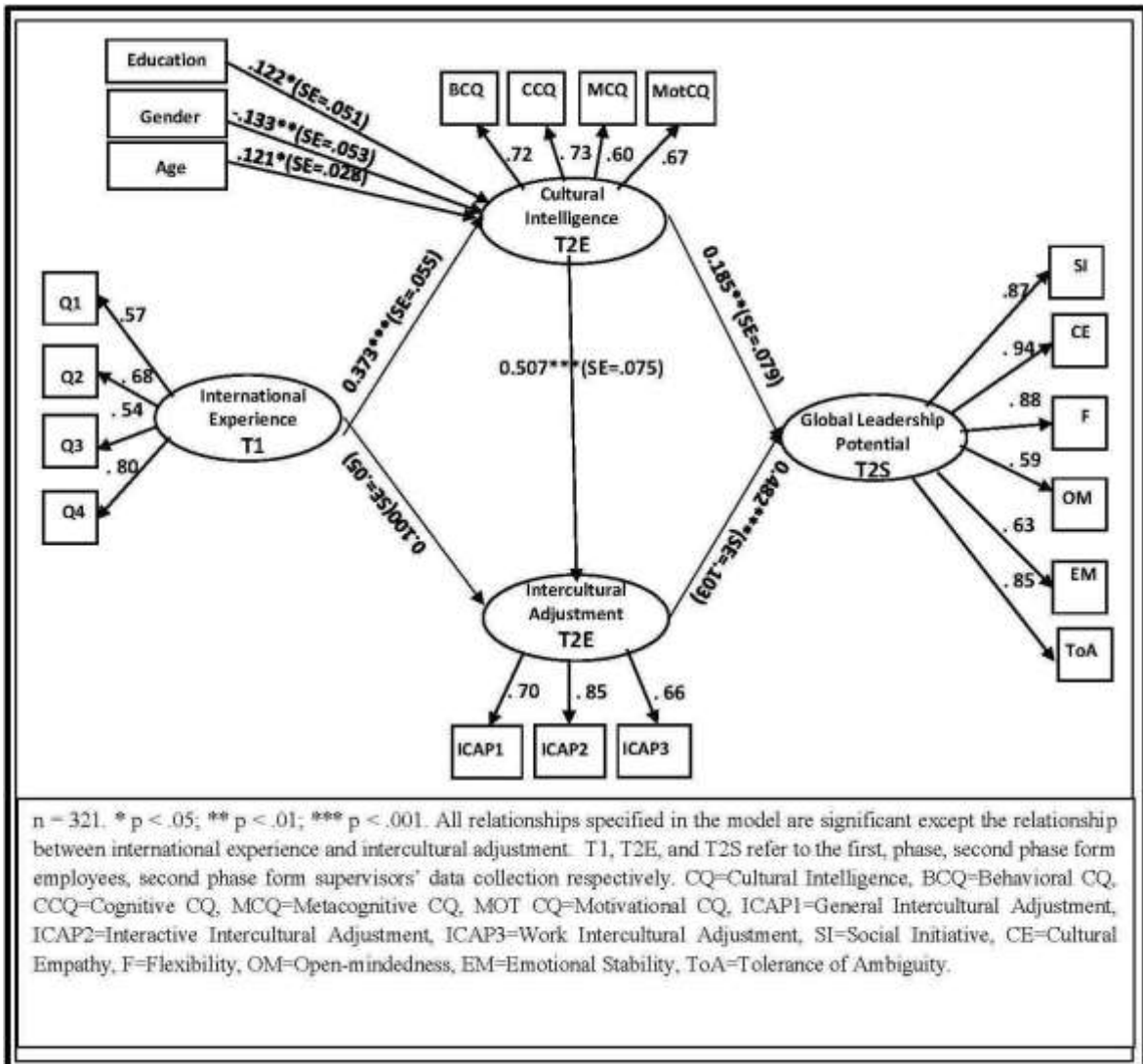
85

3.4. Homogeneity

The homogeneity test was conducted to ensure that the variance of the predicted variable has equal levels over the range of predicting variables. The Breusch-Pagan homogeneity (Hair, 1998) test will be implemented using the bptest function in the lmtest library (R 4.04). The results indicated that the BP = 42.12, df = 10, p-value = 7.139e-06. Given that the P-value is .01, we can reject the null hypothesis and conclude homogeneity.

3.5. Structural Equation Modelling Test

To test the model fit of model 2 in Figure 5 IBM AMOS V26 with maximum likelihood estimation was used. The basic research model produced a good fit to the collected data. $\chi^2 = 250.177$, df = 152, p = .00, χ^2 / df = 1.64, CFI = .96, IFI = .96, TLI = .95, GFI = .92, RMR = .02, RMSEA = .04. When cultural intelligence (CQ) and intercultural adjustment competed for variance within the same statistical model, only the relationship between international experience and CQ was significant. However, when the linear relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment was tested it was found significant.

Figure 4 Model 2

n = 321. * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001. All relationships specified in the model are significant except the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment. T1, T2E, and T2S refer to the first, phase, second phase form employees, second phase form supervisors' data collection respectively. CQ=Cultural Intelligence, BCQ=Behavioral CQ, CCQ=Cognitive CQ, MCQ=Metacognitive CQ, MOT CQ=Motivational CQ, ICAP1=General Intercultural Adjustment, ICAP2=Interactive Intercultural Adjustment, ICAP3=Work Intercultural Adjustment, SI=Social Initiative, CE=Cultural Empathy, F=Flexibility, OM=Open-mindedness, EM=Emotional Stability, ToA=Tolerance of Ambiguity.

3.6. Testing Direct Effect Hypothesis:

The first direct effect hypothesis states that there is a positive relationship between international experience and CQ. Results in Figure 5 indicate that the hypothesis was supported (γ = .37, SE = .05, p < .01). The second hypothesis stated that there is a positive relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment. The hypothesis was not supported (γ = .10, SE = .05, p > .05). Hypothesis 3 stated that there is a positive relationship between CQ and intercultural adjustment. The results of our analysis (Figure 5) indicated supporting the relationship (γ =.50, SE = .07, p < .01). Hypothesis 4 and 5 stated that CQ and intercultural adjustment respectively have a positive relation with global leadership potential. As illustrated in Figure 4, analysis supported both hypothesis (H4: γ = .18, SE = .07, p < .01, H5: γ = .48, SE = .10, p < .01).

3.7. Testing Mediation Hypothesis

To test the simple mediation hypothesis H6, H7, H8, and H9, we used the RMediation package in R V4.0.4 using the PRODCLIN command in medci program. This package was selected because it allows us to assess the confidence limits based on the distribution of the production method, which is the most accurate way and has more power in assessing the indirect effect (MacKinnon et al., 2012; Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011). The indirect effect is said to be significant if the distribution of the product of the coefficients method produced 95% CIs that did not include zero. The mediating effect of CQ in the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment was supported (H6) with an estimate = .06 (SE = .01, p < .01) [95% CI = .036 to .089]. The results revealed that the indirect effect international experience has on global leadership potential via CQ was with an estimate of .04 (SE = .012, p < .01) [95% CI = .248 to .643]. The statistical findings supported that while controlling for age, gender, and educational level, CQ mediated the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential (H7). In terms of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via intercultural adjustment, was not tested because the direct relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment was found nonsignificant (H2). The indirect effect of the sequential mediation of CQ and intercultural adjustment in the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential was found significant (H9), with a .42 estimate (SE = .21, p < .01) [95% CI = .100 to .917].

3.8. Testing Moderation and Moderated Mediation Hypothesis

To test the moderation hypothesis, we used the Hayes PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.2. The interaction effects in hypothesis are studied while controlling for the effect of the demographic variables (age, gender, and educational level). For testing the moderated mediation hypothesis, the current study adopted the Preacher's (2007) approach to establish the moderated mediation effect the following conditions must be met: a. a significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables b. a significant interaction between the independent variable and the moderator c. a significant effect of the mediator on the dependent variable d. and finally, a different conditional indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable via the mediator which is the essence of the moderated mediation relationship.

We hypothesized that international experience and language proficiency will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high language proficiency, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of language proficiency. The interactive effect of language proficiency on the relationship between international experience was found significant (Estimate = .22, SE = .05, t = 3.11, p < .01), supporting the interactive effect in the hypothesis. The interaction

effect accounted for 4% of the variation in (ΔR² =.04, p < .01). As it can be inferred from Figure 6 the positive relationship between international experience and CQ is significant when language proficiency is high (Estimate = .42, SE = .04, t = 6.03, p < .01). However, the relationship is not significant when language proficiency is low (Estimate = -.02, SE = .04, t = -.37, p > .05). Therefore, H10 is fully supported.

Figure 5: Simple Slope Analysis (Language Proficiency Interacting with International Experience to Affect CQ)
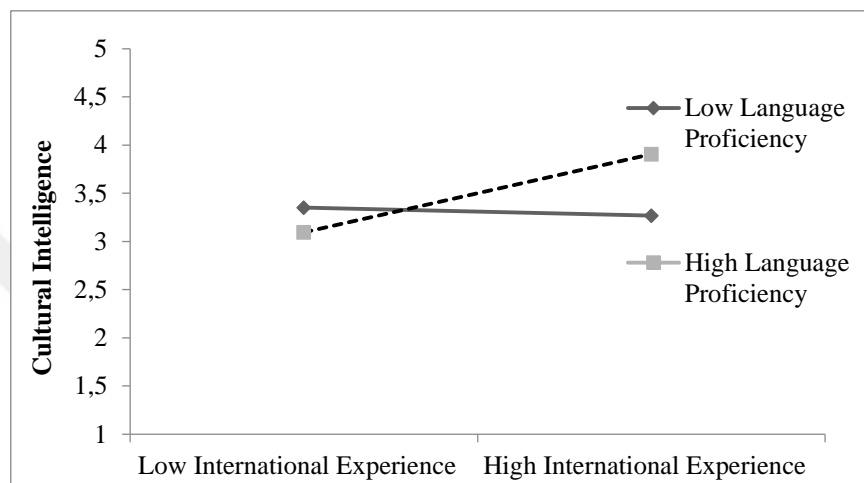
To test whether or not language proficiency will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when language proficiency is low, and stronger when language proficiency is high as stated in H11. The conditions of moderated mediation states in the beginning of the section need to be validated. Condition a (significant direct effect of international experience on global leadership potential) is validated (see table 5). For condition b (significant interaction between international experience and language proficiency), and c (significant direct relationship between CQ and global leadership potential) have been supported through the support for hypothesis H10 and H4 respectively. In order to test the hypothesis, condition d (different conditional indirect effect of the international experience on the global leadership potential via the CQ which is the essence of the moderated mediation relationship) needs to be established.

To test the essence of the moderated mediation hypothesis the current study used the Hayes PROCESS Procedure (Model 7) for SPSS Version 3.5.2. the results indicated that indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential was not conditioned upon language proficiency with an index = .00 (SE = .03, p >.05) [95% CI = -.042 to .082]. Hence, hypothesis H11 was not supported.

We also hypothesized that international experience and general self-efficacy will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high self-efficacy, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of self-efficacy. However, the moderating effect of general self-efficacy on the relationship between international experience and CQ (H12) was found nonsignificant (Estimate = .11, t = 1.7, p > .05) and, as a result, H12 was not supported.

Since H12 was not supported, hypothesis H13 stating that general self-efficacy will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when general self-efficacy is low, and stronger when general self-efficacy will not bet tested because the nonsignificant support for the interaction between international experience and general self-efficacy violates condition.

It was hypothesized that international experience and openness to experience will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high openness to experience, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of openness to experience. The moderating effect openness to experience has on the relationship between international experience and CQ was found significant (Estimate = .16, t = 2.89, p < .05). The interactive effect accounted for 2% of the variance in CQ (ΔR^2 = .02, p < .05). The simple slope analysis seen in Figure 7 shows that the positive relationship between international experience and CQ is stronger when openness to experience is high (Estimate = .33, SE = .04, t = 4.7, p < .01), while the relationship is not significant when openness to experience is low (Estimate = .00, SE = .04, t = .10, p > .05). Hence, H14 is fully supported.

Figure 6: Simple Slope Analysis (Openness to Experience Interacting with International Experience to Affect CQ)
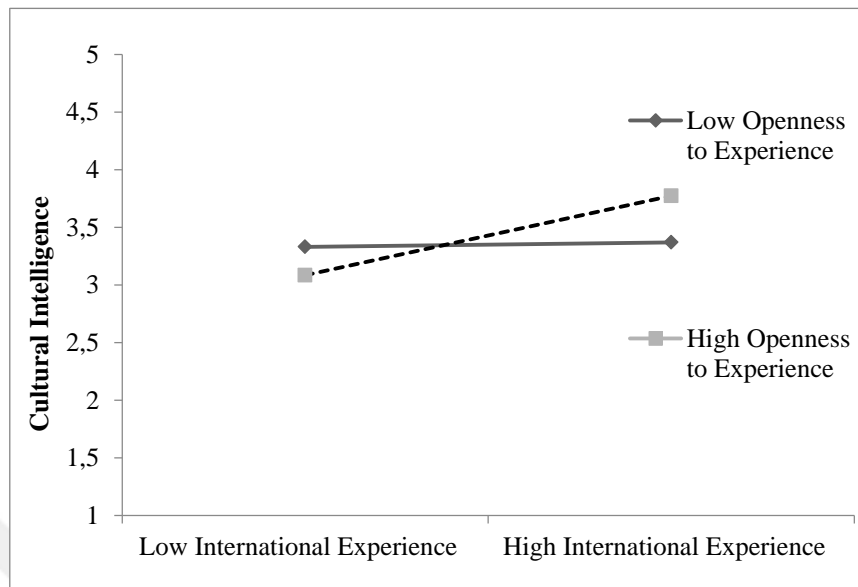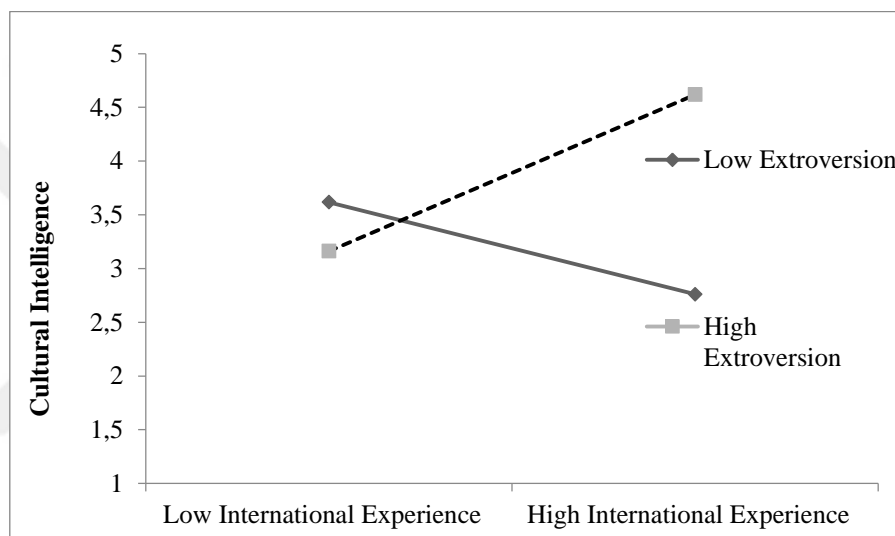

To test whether or not openness to experience will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when openness to experience is low, and stronger when openness to experience is high as stated in H15. The conditions of moderated mediation states in the beginning of the section need to be validated. Condition a (significant direct effect of international experience on global leadership potential) is validated (see table 5). Conditions b (significant interaction between international experience and openness to experience), and c (significant direct relationship between CQ and global leadership potential) have been supported through the support for hypothesis H14 and H4 respectively. In order to test the hypothesis, condition d (different conditional indirect effect of the international experience on the global leadership potential via the CQ which is the essence of the moderated mediation relationship) needs to be established.

To test the essence of the moderated mediation hypothesis the current study used the Hayes PROCESS Procedure (Model 7) for SPSS Version 3.5.2. the results indicated that indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential was not condition upon openness to experience (nonsignificant) with an index = .01 (SE = .03, p >.05) [95% CI = -.054 to .095]. Hence, hypothesis H15 was not supported.

According to Hypothesis 16 international experience and extraversion will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high levels of extraversion, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have a low level of extraversion. In terms of the interactive effect of extroversion, the

interaction was found significant (Estimate = .57, t = 12.1, p < .01), and the interaction term accounts for 25% of the explaining the variance in CQ (ΔR^2 = .25, p < .01), which supports the interaction effect in H16. As illustrated in Figure 8, when extroversion is low the negative relationship between international experience and CQ is significant (Estimate = **-**.42, SE = .03, t = -8.4, p < .01). However, when extroversion is high, the positive relationship between international experience and CQ is significant (Estimate = .72, SE = .03, t = 12.4, p < .01). Since the relationship between international experience and CQ is negative when extroversion is low, unlike it was hypothesized, H16 is partially supported.

Figure 7: Simple Slope Analysis (Extroversion Interacting with International Experience to Affect CQ)

To test whether or not extroversion will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when extroversion is low, and stronger when extroversion is high as stated in H17. The conditions of moderated mediation states in the beginning of the section need to be validated. Condition a (significant direct effect of international experience on global leadership potential) is validated (see table 5). Conditions b (significant interaction between international experience and extroversion), and c (significant direct relationship between CQ and global leadership potential) have been supported through the support for hypothesis H16 and H4 respectively. In order to test the hypothesis, condition d (different conditional indirect effect of the international experience on the global leadership potential via the CQ which is the essence of the moderated mediation relationship) needs to be established.

To test the essence of the moderated mediation hypothesis the current study used the Hayes PROCESS Procedure (Model 7) for SPSS Version 3.5.2. The results indicated that indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential was significantly

condition upon extroversion with an index = .15 (SE = .03, p < .01) [95% CI = .085 to .230]. As indicated in Table 9 that presents the estimates, standard errors, and confidence intervals of the conditional indirect effects for extroversion, the hypothesis is partially supported because the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential is negative when extroversion is low (unlike hypothesized), positive when extroversion is high.

Table 9: Moderated Mediation Results (The Conditional Indirect Effect of Extroversion)

Extroversion level	Conditional indirect effect	SE	Confidence Interval
Low (1SD below the mean)	-.05	-.03	[-.064 - -.017]
High (1SD above the mean)	.11	.28	[.064 - .175]

International experience and agreeableness will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively correlated to CQ for employees who have high levels of agreeableness, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of agreeableness. The moderating effect agreeableness has on the relationship between international experience and CQ was found significant (Estimate = .36, t = 5.76, p < .01). The interactive effect in H18 was supporting the hypothesis. The interactive effect was responsible for explaining 8% of the variation in CQ (ΔR^2 = .08, p < .01). The simple slop analysis illustrated in Figure 9 indicates that the positive relationship between international experience and CQ is significant when agreeableness is high (Estimate = .59, SE = .05, t = 8.4, p < .01) and the negative relationship is significant when agreeableness is low (Estimate = -.13, SE = .03, t = -3.13, p < .01). Therefore, H14 was partially supported.

Figure 8: Simple Slope Analysis (Agreeableness Interacting with International Experience to Affect CQ)
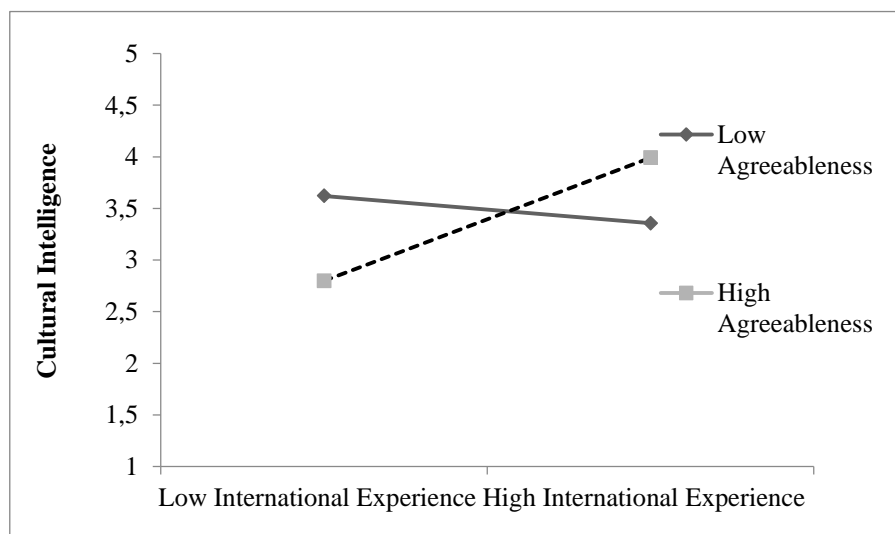
To test whether or not agreeableness will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when agreeableness is low, and stronger when agreeableness is high as stated in H19. The conditions of moderated mediation states in the beginning of the section need to be validated. Condition a (significant direct effect of international experience on global leadership potential) is validated (see table 5). Condition b (significant interaction between international experience and agreeableness), and c (significant direct relationship between CQ and global leadership potential) have been supported through the support for hypothesis H18 and H4 respectively. In order to test the hypothesis, condition d (different conditional indirect effect of the international experience on the global leadership potential via the CQ which is the essence of the moderated mediation relationship) needs to be established.

To test the essence of the moderated mediation hypothesis the current study used the Hayes PROCESS Procedure (Model 7) for SPSS Version 3.5.2. the results indicated that the indirect relationship between international experienced and global leadership potential was found significantly conditioned upon agreeableness with an index = .19 (SE = .02, p < .01) [95% CI = .048 to .151]. As indicated in Table 10 that presents the estimates, standard errors, and confidence intervals of the conditional indirect effects for agreeableness, the indirect conditional effect of international experience on global leadership potential is nonsignificant when agreeableness is low, and stronger when agreeableness is high. Therefore, H19 is fully supported.

Table 10: Moderated Mediation Results (The Conditional Indirect Effect of Agreeableness)

Extroversion level	Conditional indirect effect	SE	Confidence Interval
Low (1SD below the mean)	.01	.01	[-.005 - .013]
High (1SD above the mean)	.10	.02	[.059 - .161]

The researcher also contended that international experience and conscientiousness will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high levels of conscientiousness, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of conscientiousness. The results of testing the moderating effect of conscientiousness (H20) did not support the hypothesis and indicated that there is no significant interaction between international experience and conscientiousness (Estimate = -.02, t = -.84, p > .05).

To test whether or not conscientiousness will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when conscientiousness is low, and stronger when conscientiousness is high as stated in H21. The conditions of moderated mediation states in the beginning of the section

need to be validated. Condition a (significant direct effect of international experience on global leadership potential) is validated (see table 5). However, conditions b (significant interaction between international experience and conscientiousness) in hypothesis H20 was not supported. Since the conditions of the moderated mediation hypothesis have been violated, H21 was not tested.

In terms of the moderating effect of emotional stability, we hypothesized that International experience and emotional stability will interact to predict CQ such that international experience will be more positively related to CQ for employees who have high levels of emotional stability, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of emotional stability. The results also indicated that there is no significant interaction between international experience and emotional stability (H22) (Estimate = -.03, t = -.85, p > .05).

To test whether or not emotional stability will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when emotional stability is low, and stronger when emotional stability is high as stated in H23. The conditions of moderated mediation states 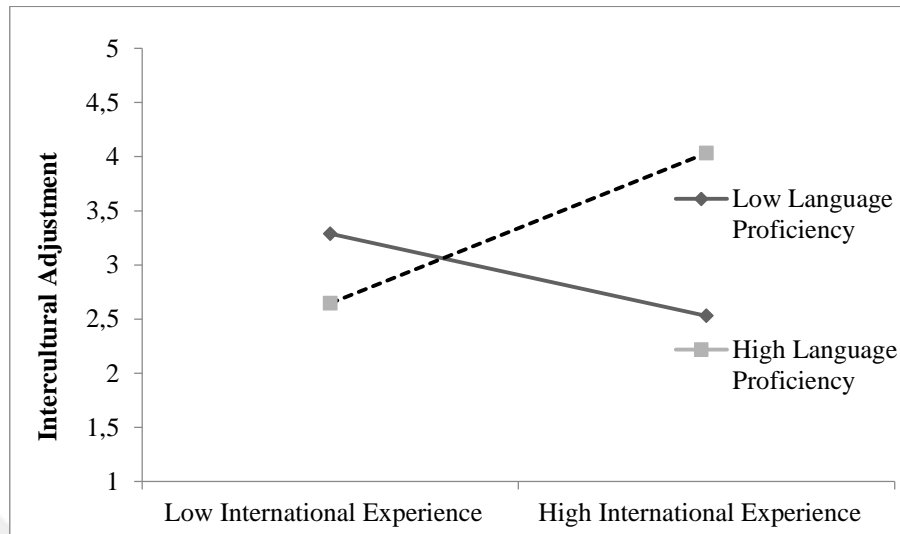in the beginning of the section need to be validated. Condition a (significant direct effect of international experience on global leadership potential) is validated (see table 5). However, Conditions b (significant interaction between international experience and emotional stability) in hypothesis H22 was not supported. Since the conditions of the moderated mediation hypothesis have been violated, H23 was not tested.

We also hypothesized that international experience and language proficiency will interact to predict intercultural adjustment such that international experience will be more positively related to intercultural adjustment for employees who have high language proficiency, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of language proficiency. The moderating effect language proficiency has on the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment is supported (H24) (Estimate = .53, t = 9.2, p < .01). The interaction effect is responsible for explaining 20% of the variance in intercultural adjustment (ΔR^2 = .20, p < .01). The simple slop analysis in Figure 10 indicated that there is a negative relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment when language proficiency is low (Estimate = -.37, SE = .04, t = -6.15, p < .01). However, the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment becomes positive when language proficiency is high (Estimate = .69, SE = .05, t = 9.4, p < .01). Therefore, the hypothesis was partially supported.

Figure 9: Simple Slope Analysis (Language Proficiency Interacting with International Experience to Affect Intercultural Adjustment)

To test whether or not language proficiency will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via intercultural adjustment, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when language proficiency is low, and stronger when language proficiency is high as stated in H25. The conditions of moderated mediation states in the beginning of the section need to be validated. Condition a (significant direct effect of international experience on global leadership potential) is validated (see table 5). Conditions b (significant interaction between international experience and language proficiency), have been supported through the support for hypothesis H24. However, condition c was violated through the rejection of H2 due to the insignificant relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment therefore the H25 was not tested.

In terms of the moderating effect of general self-efficacy, we hypothesized that international experience and general self-efficacy will interact to predict intercultural adjustment such that international experience will be more positively related to intercultural adjustment for employees who have high self-efficacy, whereas the positive relationship will be weaker for employees who have low levels of self-efficacy. The moderating effect of general self-efficacy on the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment was found significant (Estimate = .21, t = 3.4, p < .01). The interactive effect was responsible for explaining 2.3% of the variation in intercultural adjustment. The simple slop analysis illustrated in Figure 11 indicates that low general self-efficacy does not have a significant impact on the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment (Estimate = -.16, SE = .05, t = -1.6, p > .05). However, when general self-efficacy is high the positive relationship between international and intercultural adjustment is significant (Estimate = .32, SE = .05, t = 3.5, p < .01). Hence, the H26 was fully supported.

Figure 10: Simple Slope Analysis (General Self-Efficacy Interacting with International Experience to Affect Intercultural Adjustment)
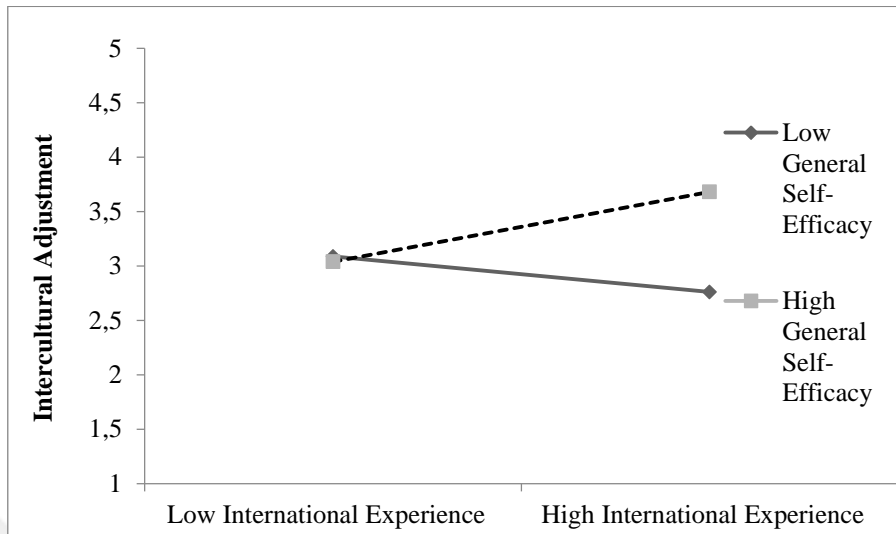
To test whether or not general self-efficacy will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via intercultural adjustment, such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when general self-efficacy is low, and stronger when general self-efficacy is high as stated in H27. The conditions of moderated mediation states in the beginning of the section need to be validated. Condition a (significant direct effect of international experience on global leadership potential) is validated (see table 5). Conditions b (significant interaction between international experience and general self-efficacy), have been supported through the support for hypothesis H26. However, condition c was violated through the rejection of H2 due to the insignificant relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment therefore the H27 was not tested.

Table 11 summarizes the findings of our analysis in terms of support or lack thereby of the research hypothesis.

Table 11: Results Summary

Number	Hypothesis	Result
H_1	International experience anticipates cultural intelligence.	Fully Supported
H_2	International experience anticipates intercultural adjustment.	Hypothesis was not tested (conditions not met)
H_3	Cultural intelligence anticipates intercultural adjustment.	Fully Supported
H_4	Intercultural adjustment anticipates global leadership potential.	Fully Supported
H_5	Cultural intelligence anticipates global leadership potential.	Fully Supported
H_6	Cultural intelligence mediates the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment.	Fully Supported
H_7	Cultural intelligence mediates the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential.	Fully Supported
H_8	Intercultural adjustment mediates the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential.	Not Supported
H_9	CQ and intercultural adjustment sequentially mediate the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential.	Fully Supported
H_{10}	Language proficiency moderates the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence.	Fully Supported
H_{11}	Language proficiency will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ.	Not Supported
H_{12}	General self-efficacy moderates the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence.	Not Supported
H_{13}	General self-efficacy will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ.	Hypothesis was not tested (conditions not met)
H_{14}	Openness to experience moderates the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence.	Fully Supported
H_{15}	Openness to experience will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ.	Not Supported
H_{16}	Extraversion moderates the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence.	Partially Supported
H_{17}	Extraversion will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ	Partially Supported
H_{18}	Agreeableness moderates the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence.	Partially Supported
H_{19}	Agreeableness will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ.	Fully Supported
H_{20}	Conscientiousness moderates the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence.	Not Supported
H_{21}	Conscientiousness will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ.	Hypothesis was not tested (conditions not met)
H_{22}	Emotional stability moderates the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence.	Not Supported
H_{23}	Emotional stability will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ.	Hypothesis was not tested (conditions not met)
H_{24}	Language proficiency moderates the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment.	Partially Supported
H_{25}	Language proficiency will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via intercultural adjustment.	Hypothesis was not tested (conditions not met)
H_{26}	General self-efficacy moderates the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment.	Fully Supported
H_{27}	General self-efficacy will moderate the strength of the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via intercultural adjustment.	Hypothesis was not tested (conditions not met)

CHAPTER FOUR

4. FINDINGS

4.1. Discussion

Consistent with our expectations and the findings of previous research (Chao et al., 2017; Crowne, 2013; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Li et al., 2013; Shannon & Begley, 2008; Şahin et al., 2014), the results of our study confirmed that international experience anticipates cultural intelligence (CQ) (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Chao et al., 2017; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Macnab & Worthley, 2012; Rosenblatt et al., 2013). As individuals engage in cross-cultural interaction in a foreign context during an international experience they can accumulate knowledge about foreign cultures (Ward, 2004). They are also able to establish meaningful contact with host nationals (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). This translates into a positive contact experience that allows the individual to overcome cognitive biases, promotes cultural empathy and understandings (Pettigrew, 1998), and enhances the individual's ability to remain effective in cross-cultural contexts (Chao et al., 2017; Crowne, 2013) that eventually increase their CQ (Macnab & Worthley, 2012; Rosenblatt et al., 2013).

The results also indicated that CQ anticipated global leadership potential. The role higher CQ has in improving global leadership potential is threefold: 1. individuals with higher levels of CQ are less likely to experience stress and anxiety in cross-cultural contexts (Caligiuri, 2006; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). In addition, they can maintain a positive attitude which (according to the social cognitive theory) would elevate their self-efficacy allowing them to be task-oriented (Bandura, 1986), improve their performance, and help them build stronger intercultural relations (Bandura, 1997). 2. Culturally intelligent individuals possess higher levels of behavioral flexibility which allows them to accommodate the expectations of host-nationals and adopt leadership styles that are more compatible with the context within which they operate (Avolio et al., 2009). 3. The extensive cross-cultural knowledge culturally intelligent individuals have allowed them to deal with host-nationals with a higher degree of cultural empathy because they understand the basic assumptions behind their values and behavioral norms (Wang et al., 2003) which helps them build stronger leader-follower relationships within intercultural contexts. In light of the inconsistency of previous research (Barakat et al., 2015), these findings support the link between CQ and global leadership potential (Mukherjia et al., 2016; Rockstuhl et al., 2011).

In line with the research hypothesis, the results indicated that agreeableness moderated the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ. In that, individuals who engage in international experience are able to develop greater global leadership potential given that they possess the behavioural flexibility (John & Srivastava, 1999) that allows them to accommodate the cultural context within which they operate (Avolio et al., 2009). Therefore, they are able to develop a deep understanding of the host culture and how to accommodate it (Ang et al., 2007). Hence individuals who possess higher agreeableness are able to develop higher global leadership potential through engaging in international experience. However, individuals who have lower levels of agreeableness have significantly lower interpersonal skills and limited behavioural flexibility (John & Srivastava, 1999) hinders the individual's ability to accommodate the leadership style expectations of their cultural context.

Contrary to previous studies that defined the role of CQ as a moderator in the relationship between international experience and global leadership (Ng et al., 2009b), this present study found that CQ mediated the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential. International exposure through international experience is one of the most effective tools to develop higher CQ in the first place. As individuals go through the international experience they can develop greater cultural knowledge, and cultural empathy needed to operate effectively in intercultural contexts (CQ). The resulting CQ improves the global leadership potential.

In line with the findings of previous research, we found that CQ anticipates intercultural adjustment (Ang et al., 2007; Lee & Sukoco, 2007; Ng & Earley, 2006; Ramalu et al., 2010; Shu et al., 2016). Due to their desire to maintain positive self-esteem (social cognitive theory: Bandura, 1991), individuals try to ensure cultural propriety through behaving in a culturally appropriate manner while conducting themselves in a cross-cultural context. Higher CQ indicates greater interest in other cultures (Ramalu et al., 2010), the ability to assess and adjust mental maps (Ang et al., 2007), the ability to make accurate prediction throughout intercultural interactions, not only that but the behavioral flexibility that allows an individual to portray culturally appropriate behaviors (Van Dyne et al., 2007). Such capacity allows an individual to adapt to foreign cultural contexts with greater psychological comfort achieving intercultural adjustment.

Even in the absence of a direct relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment (discussed later in this section), there is an indirect relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment mediated by CQ. Through international experience, individuals build meaningful relations with host-national (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008), through which they can learn about the foreign culture and maintain effectiveness in the intercultural context through the development of CQ (Chao et al., 2017; Crowne, 2013; Engle & Crowne,). Furthermore, the manifestation of the behaviors culturally intelligent individuals learn allows them to adapt easily to the intercultural context achieving intercultural adjustment (Ramalu et al., 2010).

The findings of the present research have also indicated that there is a positive association between intercultural adjustment and global leadership potential. According to the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), a successful experience can increase task-specific self-efficacy. In that, individuals who have had successful previous intercultural adjustment wind up with higher levels of task-specific self-efficacy. This allows them to deal with the uncertainty, and stress associated with intercultural interaction, as well as increasing their ability to be effective global leaders (O'keefe, 2018; Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Meaning that individuals who to possess the ability to adapt to different intercultural contexts effectively were believed to possess higher levels of global leadership potential (Mendenhall, 2001; Wildman et al., 2016). As better intercultural adjustment facilitates transferring global leadership competencies from one culture to another (Furuya et al., 2009).

We have also found that part of the impact CQ has on global leadership potential is through intercultural adjustment. The international exposure an individual gain through engaging in international experience allows them to develop higher CQ (Li et al., 2013; Shannon and Begley, 2008; Şahin et al., 2014). Part of that impact then translates into global leadership potential as the higher levels of CQ allow the individual to operate effectively in different cultural contexts, as they learn to deal with diversity (Murtha et al., 1998), and cope with uncertainty (Buckley, 2014) qualities that are considered crucial for a global leader. The other part of the impact CQ has on global leadership potential takes place through the development of intercultural adjustment capabilities. A successful intercultural adjustment experience promotes task-specific self-efficacy (Selmer, 1999), allowing the individual to achieve better results. Moreover, higher intercultural adjustment reduces ethnocentrism and facilities cooperation with members from the host culture essential for global leaders (Shaffer et al., 2006).

However, the strength of the relationship between international experience and CQ depends on language proficiency, extroversion, openness to experience, and agreeableness. The positive impact international experience has on CQ is conditional on the level of language proficiency, such that the positive relationship between international experience and CQ is stronger when language proficiency is high, and the positive relationship is weaker when language proficiency is low. Language can be used as biases for social categorization (Giles & Byrnes, 1982), individuals who speak the language proficiently can be seen as in-group members who facilities building cross-cultural relations with host-nationals (Phinney et al., 2001). Individuals with a higher level of language proficiency can communicate more effectively and are less likely to misinterpret the messages they receive or fail to articulate their messages (Jackson, 2012; Ozyilmaz & Taner, 2018). Language is the primary culture learning tool (Masgoret & Ward, 2006). Therefore, individuals with higher levels of language proficiency can capitalize on their international experience by developing higher levels of CQ. However, individuals who have low language proficiency struggle with intercultural interactions due to misunderstandings and communication

difficulties (Ozyilmaz & Taner, 2018) that hinders their cultural learning process (Masgoret & Ward, 2006), and limits their ability to develop CQ through international experience.

Furthermore, the strength of the relationship between international experience and CQ also depended on openness to experience, such that the relationship between international experience and CQ is more positive when openness to experience is high, and the positive relationship is weaker when opens to experience is low (Şahin et al., 2014). The curiosity of people who have high openness to experience and their willingness to engage in novel experiences (McCrae & Costa, 1997) ensures that they can better utilize their exposure to foreign cultures through international experience. Their active engagements with members of the host culture will allow them to learn about the norms and values of that culture, and accumulate more knowledge about it (Ang et al., 2006). That would facilitate the development of higher CQ. However, individuals who have low openness to experience are not experimental and are likely to feel threatened by novel situations encountered (McCrae & Costa, 1997) during an international experience. That will limit their exposure to foreign cultures and inhibit the development of CQ.

The mediated role of language proficiency as a moderator in the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential via CQ was not supported, even though language proficiency was found to moderate the relationship between international experience and CQ. Individuals who possess higher language proficiency can overcome the communication barriers, and therefore simplifies the social learning process through facilitating the seamless interaction with people from the host culture and therefore avoiding being perceived as an out-group member (Giles & Byrnes, 1982; Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999). That enables them to develop higher CQ through engaging in international experience compared to individuals with low language proficiency. However, for the in-group membership status to influence leadership abilities it is not enough that the individual has to be able to attain distinctive status within the group to take the role of a leader (Hogg, 2001), and that cannot be guaranteed through language proficiency.

Even though openness to experience moderated the relationship between international experience and CQ, the results indicated that openness to experience does not moderate the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential. Openness to experience facilitates knowledge about foreign cultures and therefore helps an individual to develop deeper understanding of different cultural contexts by developing higher CQ through international experience. However, individual who have higher openness to experience are less likely to portray confirmatory behaviours (DeYoung et al., 2002). Even as individuals who possess higher levels of open-mindedness can develop greater CQ through engaging in international experience, their inability to confirm with the norms of the host culture and meet the leadership style expectations. Hence. The level of openness to experience does not have an impact on the level

of greater global leadership potential an individual can develop through engaging in international experience.

The strength of the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment depends on the individuals' level of general self-efficacy and their language proficiency. When highly efficacious individuals engage in international experience they can capitalize on the opportunity to adapt to their intercultural context. Because higher self-efficacy determines the extent to which an individual will put what they have learned into practice (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, by portraying behaviors they learned through international experience individuals with higher self-efficacy can adapt to a foreign cultural context and achieve higher intercultural adjustment, however, individuals with lower self-efficacy will neither be willing to practice what they have learned nor will they be willing to put in as much effort (Black et al., 1991). This limits their ability to build on their international experience by developing higher intercultural adjustment.

Consistent with expectations, the present research and the findings of previous research (Şahin et al., 2014) revealed that the positive relationship between international experience and extroversion is stronger when extroversion is high. As individuals who have higher extroversion have greater behavioral flexibility and a wider behavioral repertoire (Van Dyne et al., 2007). They are also more capable of dealing with the stress and the uncertainty associated with cross-cultural interaction (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012), leading to a positive contact experience (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). As a result, individuals with high levels of extroversion tend to engage in more social interaction with host-nationals, which allows them to maximize the impact international experience has on CQ through being able to accumulate more knowledge about the host culture and minimizing the stress and anxiety associated with intercultural interaction (Ang et al., 2006).

However, contrary to the expectation, lower extroversion does not weaken the positive relationship between international experience and CQ but changes its direction. The relationship becomes negative when extroversion is low because introverted individuals have lower levels of assertiveness (Geist & Gilbert, 1996). The lack of assertiveness among introverted individuals makes them subject to higher levels of stress and leaves them more prone to the use of ineffective interpersonal behavior. Such behavior augments the sense of alienation and loneliness experienced in intercultural contexts (Elliott & Gramling, 1990). These negative contact outcomes turn the intergroup contact into a negative inter-group contact experience that affirms stereotypes and prejudices (Aberson, 2015) instead of helping the individual overcome them. As a result, when individuals with low extroversion engage in international experience their CQ levels decrease instead of increasing.

The results also indicated that extroversion moderated the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential through CQ. Individuals who possess higher levels of extroversion are able to develop higher global leadership potential through engaging in international experience via CQ, because they are more capable of utilizing international experience as a developmental tool to attain global leadership potential (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). contrary to the research hypothesis, the findings indicated that lower extroversion turns the association between international experience and global leadership potential into a negative one; individuals who possess lower levels of extroversion are more likely to have negative contact experience that would increase their prejudices (Aberson, 2015), which lowers their cultural empathy and magnifies their ethnocentrism, leading to less effective cross-cultural communication and cooperation (Fennes & Hapgood, 1997), and therefore lower global leadership potential.

Similarly, agreeableness interacts with international experience, such that the positive relationship between international experience is stronger when agreeableness is high. In keeping with the personality trait theory, individuals with higher levels of agreeableness have more need for social approval (Corr & Matthews, 2009). As a result, they tend to have a higher incentive to learn the values and norms of the foreign culture. They also possess the behavioral flexibility and the social skills needed to behave accordingly. When individuals who have high levels of agreeableness get involved in international experience, they try to learn more information about the foreign culture to conform with the social norms of that culture (Corr & Matthews, 2009). Due to their high agreeableness, these individuals develop higher CQ as a by-product of their social approval needs. Therefore, higher levels of agreeableness increase the positive impact international experience has on CQ. Although previous research did not find that agreeableness moderated the relationship between international experience and CQ (Şahin et al., 2014), the findings of the present research are supported by previous research that links higher agreeableness to the positive quality of the contact experience (Turner et al., 2020). Therefore, it is inevitable that agreeableness will have an impact on the learning outcomes of the contact experience namely the ability to develop CQ.

However, the relationship becomes negative when agreeableness is low because individuals with lower agreeableness do not need social approval (Corr & Matthews, 2009). They are known to experience greater social difficulties within intercultural contexts (Ward et al., 2004) because they are not as keen to show context-appropriate behavior (Li et al., 2013). Moreover, individuals with lower agreeableness tend to feel more threatened by and hold more prejudice towards outgroup members (Hodson et al., 2015). Therefore, individuals with higher levels of agreeableness are expected to have positive intergroup contact experience, and individuals with lower agreeableness are expected to have negative intergroup contact experience. The negative intergroup contact experience individuals with low levels of agreeableness go through within intercultural context

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inhibit building meaningful relations with host-national and foster greater prejudice towards them (Aberson, 2015). As a result of the heightened levels of prejudice, increased international exposure during international experience lowers CQ for individuals with low agreeableness.

In keeping with the expectations of the present research and contrary to previous research indicating that language proficiency is a direct predictor of intercultural adjustment, language proficiency was found to interact with international experience, such that the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment is stronger when language proficiency is high. Individuals who speak the language proficiently can interact seamlessly with host-national, which facilitates the social learning process as they can easily assess the appropriateness of their behavior through the feedback they receive (Bandura, 1977b), and make the necessary adjustments to achieve a better fit to the cross-cultural context (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Louis, 1980).

However, contrary to our expectations lower language proficiency does not weaken the positive relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment but changes its direction. The negative relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment can be due to the having low language proficiency levels hinders the individual's ability to satisfy their daily needs causing a certain level of psychological discomfort that hinders the achievement of general adjustment (Kim, 1988; Noels et al., 1996). Due to the spill-over effect (Takeuchi et al., 2002), the impact of lack of general intercultural adjustment is likely to extend to other facets of intercultural adjustment. The inadequacy felt by an individual who has low language prolificacy on a day-to-day basis during the international experience will turn the impact of international experience on intercultural adjustment into a negative one.

Contrary to our prediction, our findings indicated that general self-efficacy had no impact on the relationship between international experience and CQ. Even though the results indicated that higher general self-efficacy does not strengthen the relationship between international experience and CQ, we cannot rule out any effect general self-efficacy has on CQ. The correlation matrix suggests the existence of a significant direct effect between the two variables. Therefore, while higher self-efficacy may not strengthen the positive relationship between international experience and CQ, but it can be seen as a direct predictor of CQ, where individuals who possess higher levels of self-efficacy are expected to develop higher levels of CQ. Such impact might be because knowledge acquisition capabilities people with higher levels of self-efficacy enjoy can be extended to intercultural contexts (Day et al., 2004; Ford et al., 1998).

Contrary to our expectations, we have also found that neither conscientiousness nor emotional stability had an impact on the relationship between international experience and CQ. In terms of conscientiousness, there is a significant overlap between conscientiousness and metacognitive CQ which can be seen as the level of consciousness an individual has regarding their

cultural knowledge (Ramsey & Lorenz, 2016). The overlap is also manifested in the measurement tools used for the two constructs (Ang et al., 2007; Goldberg, 1993). And in that sense, it would have been more appropriate to assume a predictive role rather than a moderating one. In terms of emotional stability, the lack of support to the moderating role does not rule out a relationship that can be due to an error in defining the relationship. Due to its association with effectiveness (DeNisi & Gonzalez, 2000), emotional stability can have a direct effect on CQ because CQ is a special case of effectiveness (effectiveness in a foreign cultural context) (Ang et al., 2007), and therefore it is influenced by the overall effectiveness of an individual predicted by their emotional intelligence (DeNisi & Gonzalez, 2000).

International experience was said to present individuals with the opportunity to learn culturally appropriate behaviors through behavioral modeling (social cognitive theory: Bandura, 1986). The basic premise was that learning a wide range of behavioral norms helps the individual develop comprehensive cognitive schemes that allow them to tailor their behaviors to fit their cultural context (Fiske & Taylor, 1984), which allows them to adjust to different intercultural contexts (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998). However, contrary to our expectations the results indicated that international experience does not elevate intercultural adjustment. The lack of support for the direct impact international experience has on intercultural adjustment does not rule out that the two constructs are closely linked, it merely suggests that the link between international experience and intercultural adjustment might be more complex than hypothesized (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). As individuals engage in any type of international experience they get to form meaningful contact with host-nationals which elevates multiculturalism and diversity acceptance (Chen et al., 2016). As a result, their interest in foreign culture peaks (Engle & Crowne, 2014), and they can accumulate crosscultural knowledge (Caligiuri, 2006; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). As well as developing a significant level of cultural awareness (Ang et al., 2006). Being submerged in the foreign cultural context fosters the development of higher levels of CQ (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Chao et al., 2017; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Macnab & Worthley, 2012; Rosenblatt et al., 2013). The extensive cross-cultural knowledge culturally intelligent individuals enjoy allows them to understand host-nationals conduct and minimizes the possibility of misunderstandings (Wiseman et al., 1989). Their cultural empathy serves as an incentive to behave in a culturally appropriate manner (Earley & Ang, 2003), and their vast behavioral repertoire and cognitive complexity make adapting their behaviors to accommodate the intercultural context possible (Black, 1990). Therefore, individuals who engage in international experiences through which they can develop higher levels of CQ are more capable of intercultural adjustment.

4.2. Theoretical Contributions

One of the most important theoretical contributions of the current study is advancing the knowledge about global leadership potential, CQ, and intercultural adjustment by drawing on the social cognitive theory as an overarching theory to explain how the effect of international experience on global leadership potential is sequentially mediated by CQ and intercultural adjustment. We expanded the SCT theory as a sequential enhancer to explain the role of building strong ties (meaningful relations) with members from the host culture to help provide the support and the feedback (Bandura, 1982) needed to develop CQ and intercultural adjustment to increase global leadership potential of employees. The current study has expanded the understanding of the role the social cognitive theory plays in cultural learning process, which is not mere mimicry of observed behaviours, but it also entails a certain level of psychological comfort portraying that behaviour (intercultural adjustment) that needs to be preceded by a profound understanding of the values behind it (cultural intelligence). By considering language proficiency and personality traits as boundary setter that calibre the impact of international experience on CQ and intercultural adjustment, the current study has extended the understanding of the role of personality strictly confined to the effect of self-efficacy within the social cognitive theory to include the big five personality traits along with language proficiency.

The social cognitive theory was also deployed to explain the need for social categorization (Turner, 1987), which stems from the desire to maintain a favourable self-opinion. That can be achieved through social comparison which results in a positive distinctiveness about out-group members (Turner, 1985). Language proficiency can be used as the basis for social distinctiveness, between in-group and out-group members. Moreover, personality traits were viewed as self-regulatory behavioural mechanisms that influence the learning outcomes of the social learning experience (Bandura, 1986), to explain the role personality traits play as moderators of the relationship between international experience and CQ. Building on our extended understanding of the social cognitive theory we have indicated that an individual has to attain a certain level of cultural intelligence to be able to behave in a culturally appropriate manner with a certain level of psychological comfort (intercultural adjustment) in order to be able to accumulate the competencies needed to perform a leadership role in a multicultural context. Furthermore, the ability to do so is contingent on their position of certain personality traits and a considerable level of general self-efficacy.

The second theoretical contribution of the present study is that it has developed a better theoretical understanding of global leadership by combining the learning and the personality trait lenses of global leadership research otherwise seen as separate schools of thinking (Vijayakumar et al., 2018). By integrating personality traits along with language proficiency as moderates in the research model, the present study was able to combine the two lenses by building a comprehensive

model that takes into account the role of both learning and personality in the development of global leadership potential. This helped us identify not only the antecedents to global leadership potential but also the conditions under which the impact of the incidents is most effective in terms of global leadership development. Doing so, we managed to illustrate that while global leadership development can take place as a learning experience where knowledge accumulation can translate into skills and behaviors (Ng et al., 2009b; Osland, 2008; Triandis, 1972), the innate characteristics of the individual influences the outcomes of the learning experience.

The third contribution of the current study is presenting the moderated impact of extroversion and agreeableness on the indirect relationship between international experience and global leadership potential through CQ based on the social cognitive theory. Thereby extending the role of extroversion and agreeableness as self-regulatory behavioural mechanisms that influence the learning outcomes of the social learning experience (Bandura, 1986) directly influencing the strength of the relationship between international experience and CQ, to indirectly influencing the impact international experience has on global leadership potential as innate characteristics that determine the extent to which an individual can develop the competencies needed to develop global leadership capabilities.

The fourth contribution of the present research is to global leadership theory in the way the associated literature understands and measures both global leadership potential and international experience. This current research presented and validated a deeper understanding of international experience as a construct that is not measured through the time spent abroad (Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Li et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2009b; Shannon & Begley, 2008). But also through the breadth of experience (Engle & Crowne, 2014), given that the level of cultural exposure gained through spending a certain amount of time in a single country will always be less than the cultural exposure gained through spending the same amount of time in more than one country. The current study also advanced the understanding of the set of competencies required in global leaders by validated the O'keefe (2018) global leadership potential measurement tool. Thus, it has indicated that tolerance of ambiguity is indeed one of the global leadership capabilities that need to be assessed when measuring global leadership potential. Because being a global leader often entails operating in volatile situations and under a great deal with uncertainty (Bird & Osland, 2004; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002; Lane et al., 2004), and a significant part of how good of a global leader an individual can become rides on his/her ability to respond to ambiguity (O'keefe, 2018).

The fifth theoretical contribution of the present study is on building on the spillover effect theory of Takeuchi et al., (2002), as opposed to studying the impact of each of the CQ facets on intercultural adjustment as in previous research (Ang et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2014; Lee & Sukoco, 2007; Templer et al., 2006), one of our major contributions was looking into the impact of the aggregate CQ construct on the aggregate intercultural adjustment construct. The present study has

looked into the impact of the aggregate CQ construct because it has been shown to increase the explained variance of work-related outcomes (Schlaegel et al., 2017). The present research studied the impact of the aggregate CQ not only on work adjustment but on the aggregate intercultural adjustment because whatever the impact the aggregate CQ will have on work adjustment is likely to extend to include all the aggregated intercultural adjustment due to the spillover effect (Takeuchi et al., 2002).

Finally, despite the close link between cultural adjustment and global leadership potential, the relationship between the two constructs was never theoretically defined nor empirically tested (Mendenhall, 2001). To the best of our knowledge, no previous study has considered intercultural adjustment as an antecedent of global leadership potential. The current study contributes to the body of existing research by providing a sound theoretical foundation for the relationship and also by providing empirical evidence for it. We have done so by drawing on the social learning theory through theorizing that successful past intercultural adjustment serves as a master experience that can boost the task-specific self-efficacy essential for global leadership development (Ng et al., 2009). By allowing the individual to focus on his/her performance in the task at hand rather than being consumed by the stress, anxiety, and fear of failure as they will have successful past experience to draw certainty from (Bandura, 1982).

4.3. Practical Contributions

The shortage of global leadership in organizations (Lane et al., 2017; Vora, 2020) prompts the need to identify and recruit individuals with high global leadership potential (Israfilov et al., 2020; Mendenhall et al., 2018). Through this research, we have been able to build a profile of a potential global leader in terms of their experience portfolio, personality, and skills that should help organizations not only recruit employees with global leadership potential but also provide current employees with learning and training opportunities to increase their global leadership capabilities. To able to develop global leadership potential it is important to engage in international experience through which an individual engages in the intercultural exposure needed to develop a certain level of cultural awareness, empathy, and knowledge that allows them to operate efficiently within intercultural contexts (CQ) (Chao et al., 2017; Crowne, 2013; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Li et al., 2013; Shannon and Begley, 2008; Şahin et al., 2014), and adapt effectively to the foreign cultural environments while maintaining psychological comfort (intercultural adjustment) (Ang et al., 2007; Lee & Sukoco, 2007; Ng & Earley, 2006; Ramalu et al., 2010; Shu et al., 2016). Therefore, organizations trying to recruit employees with global leadership potential should look for an individual who spent time abroad, bearing in mind that the more time an individual has spent abroad the higher their global leadership potential is likely to be. To develop global leadership capabilities, organizations can consider expatriation as a learning opportunity for their current employees as well. We also illustrated the value of a diversified international

experience in terms of the destination cultures, in that the more diverse the cultures an employee is exposed to through the international experience can yield higher CQ, intercultural adjustment, and global leadership potential thereafter.

However, recruiters must recognize that for the international experience to be useful in the development of global leadership potential, the individual must possess a set of personality traits and skills that will enable the utilization of international experience in the development of global leadership potential. Otherwise, international experience can be ineffective and sometimes even counterproductive. The individual must be proficient in the host language to be able to achieve the level of exposure needed to develop global leadership potential. Therefore, it is considered good practice to provide pre-departure language training for employees before expatriation (Puck et al., 2008), and in terms of recruitment, it is important to make sure that a candidate was able to speak the foreign language during international experience before assuming that it had an impact on their ability to function in cross-cultural contexts.

Extroversion, openness to experience, and agreeableness as well as general self-efficacy are personality traits to look for in a candidate during the recruitment process. Because being socially outgoing, having the willingness to engage in novel situations (Şahin et al., 2014), and desire to conform with the environment determine an individual's ability to develop CQ, and global leadership capabilities thereafter. Furthermore, the level of psychological comfort an individual can achieve while adapting to a foreign cultural context is conditioned upon the level of their positive overall capabilities assessment, which facilitates the development of global leadership potential. Notably, for recruitment and expatriate selection purposes, introversion, lack of agreeableness, and low general self-efficacy can hinder the development of global leadership potential as they inhibit international exposure and create further anxiety related to intercultural interactions.

Along with social initiative, cultural empathy, flexibility, open-mindedness, and emotional stability, we emphasized the role of ambiguity tolerance in evaluating the global leadership capability of an individual. Given the significant level of uncertainty, a global leader has to operate under (Bird & Osland, 2004; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002; Lane et al., 2004). Their ability to handle the stress associated with uncertainty and their ability to make decisions in less than ideal situations can determine to a great extent of their global leadership potential (O'keefe, 2018).

4.4. Limitations of the Study

To control the impact of common method variance on the interpretability of the study findings we have presented temporal separation (one-month lag time) in the data collection process, as well as sources separation by collecting the data from a different source (the employees and their immediate supervisors) (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakof et al., 2012). However, we cannot rule

out the existence of common method variance because 1. A one-month time lag does not constitute a longitudinal study. 2. The use of a self-reporting tool to measure some of the constructs within the study may cause bias due to the social desirability factor (Moorman & Podsakoff, 1992). In self-reporting personality and competence-related questions, respondents are inclined to choose extreme answers to portray competence leading to common method variance issues (Tehseen et al., 2017). These factors contribute to augmenting the relationships between the study constructs, hindering the interpretability of our findings (Spector & Brannick, 2009).

The assessment of the global leadership capabilities of the respondents was done based on the data collected from a single source. Neither the employees themselves nor the co-workers participated in the assessment. However, multi-rater assessment methods are known to provide more reliable assessment results (Church & Bracken, 1997). Multi-rater assessment tools can provide otherwise unattainable information unique to the perspective of the rater. As the information, each rater provides will depend on the type of work relationship with the ratee (Craig & Hannum, 2006).

One of the major limitations of the study was testing international experience as the sole antecedent of intercultural adjustment, and CQ. To maintain the parsimony of our research model, we did not include other factors that can be a source of international exposure that may lead to the development of CQ and intercultural adjustments such as social media usage and inter-cultural training (Hu et al., 2020). Considering such factors would have allowed us to assess how different international exposure tools contribute to the development of CQ, intercultural adjustment capabilities, and global leadership potential thereafter.

Even though we have looked into the impact of skills (language proficiency), and personality traits (general self-efficacy) on the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment, we have failed to take into account contextual factors such as cultural distance. The distance between the home and host cultures on the level of cross-cultural exposure gained through the international experience. Transferring knowledge from one culture to another becomes more difficult as the cultural distance increase because it creates an understanding barrier that adds to the stress of trying to adapt to the foreign cultural context (Peeters et al., 2019).

Due to time limitations, we have not considered how the different facets of CQ contribute to intercultural adjustment and the development of global leadership potential, and we only tested the aggregated impact of CQ. However, the different facets of CQ are qualitatively distinct from each other and not necessarily correlated (Ang et al., 2007), meaning the impact they may have on intercultural adjustment and global leadership potential can vary as well.

Due to COVID-19 containment measures and remote work being practiced in most organization the questionnaire was only implemented in one organization and, which further strains the generalizability of our findings. Also, we implementing the study in Australia. However, there is a considerable need to expand global leadership research beyond Anglo-Saxon cultures, and exploring global leadership aspects in different cultural contexts. Given that research in the area is heavily dominated by the Anglo-Saxon understanding of global leadership (Jepson, 2009). Furthermore, the respondents come from diverse ethnic/racial backgrounds. However, the possible impact of their minority status in the country was not factored in even though previous research has indicated that the impact of international experience for majorities differs from the impact for minorities (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012).

4.5. Future Research Directions

Future research can empirically test the current research model within a different cultural context. Doing so can help form an understanding of how the relationship between the constructs within the study differs based on the cultural context and explain these differences if they exist. Furthermore, this may help with establishing the cross-cultural validity for the global leadership potential measurement tool. Redesigning the tool to collect information from multiple respondents (multi-rater tool) can increase the reliability of the assessment process (Church & Bracken, 1997), and hence improve the reliability of the findings.

Another possible direction for future research would be to dig deeper into the relationship between CQ on one hand and intercultural adjustment and global leadership potential on the other through investigating the impact of each CQ facet on the development of global leadership potential. Being able to break down the relationship will help uncover which one of the four CQ facets contributes more to better intercultural adjustment and the development of global leadership potential. It will also be of great value to be able to uncover whether or not the level of contribution each facet makes to intercultural adjustment will be similar to its contribution to the development of global leadership potential and the reasoning behind that.

One of our most interesting and unexpected findings was that the impact of international experience on CQ is negative for introverted individuals or those who lack agreeableness. We contributed the counterproductive effect of international experience in these cases is due to the impact of these personality traits on the quality of cross-cultural contact. Introversion and lack of agreeableness can turn the contact experience into a negative one leading to augmenting negative stereotypes and prejudices (Aberson, 2015), which would limit the intercultural effectiveness of an individual instead of increasing it. This aspect of the study warrants further investigation; future research can look specifically into the impact personality traits have on the quality of intercultural contact and the outcomes of international experience in terms of CQ and intercultural adjustment.

The research field can benefit from a longitudinal study that looks into the impact of CQ on intercultural adjustment and global leadership potential. Because CQ is a malleable and dynamic competency it will be interesting to be able to capture how the impact of CQ may vary over time. The longitudinal study can also investigate the direction of the relationship in which global leadership potential will enhance international experience and CQ sequentially to have an effect on intercultural adjustment. We also recommend using a qualitative research methodology that might enrich our understating of CQ as a competency and intercultural adjustment and global leadership potential as outcomes.

CONCLUSION

Drawing on the social cognitive theory we have developed and tested a comprehensive model that depicts the antecedents of global leadership potential through sequentially mediating and moderating processes. We have concluded that CQ mediates the relationship between international experience and global leadership potential both directly and sequentially through intercultural adjustment. Moreover, the current study has concluded that language proficiency and openness to experience moderate the relationship between international experience and CQ; in that higher language proficiency and openness to experience increase the strength of the relationship, while lower language proficiency and openness to experience weakens the strength of the relationship. Extroversion and agreeableness also moderate the relationship between international experience and CQ; in that higher extroversion and agreeableness strengthen the relationship between international experience and CQ. However, lower extroversion and agreeableness reverse the positive impact of international experience on CQ.

Not only that, but also the current study demonstrated that both extroversion and agreeableness moderated the indirect effect of international experience on global leadership potential through CQ. The current study has also found that general self-efficacy moderates the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment so that the relationship is stronger when general self-efficacy is high, and weaker when general self-efficacy is low. Furthermore, language proficiency was found to moderate the relationship between international experience and intercultural adjustment, so that the positive relationship is stronger when language proficiency is high and turns negative when language proficiency is low.

Organizations seeking to hire employees who possess global leadership potential should look for candidates who not only have deep and wide international experience, but also an individual who possess the right set of personality traits (extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and general self-efficacy) and language skills that will allow them to utilize their international experience in the development of global leadership potential. This research strongly contributed to the social cognitive theory that international experience enhances cultural intelligence and intercultural adjustment sequentially to influence global leadership potential

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Deleted Item Reliability Test

Tables 12 and 13 indicated how deleting a certain item in the metacognitive CQ scale and cultural empathy scale can improve the Cronbach Alpha of the corresponding scale.

Metacognitive CQ

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q9	15.910	4.661	-.030	.742
Q8	15.253	4.113	.365	.460
Q7	15.224	3.622	.543	.354
Q5	15.183	3.500	.438	.400
Q6	15.122	4.217	.485	.425

Cultural Empathy

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q124	33.340	15.524	.471	.535
Q125	33.212	15.904	.400	.550
Q126	33.628	15.643	.316	.563
Q127	34.587	17.375	.128	.603
Q128	33.635	15.332	.387	.546
Q129	33.894	15.034	.409	.540
Q130	34.282	16.705	.219	.585
Q131	34.051	16.827	.191	.591
Q132	34.587	17.613	.094	.609
Q133	33.891	16.200	.276	.573
Q134	34.163	16.819	.094	.624

Model 1
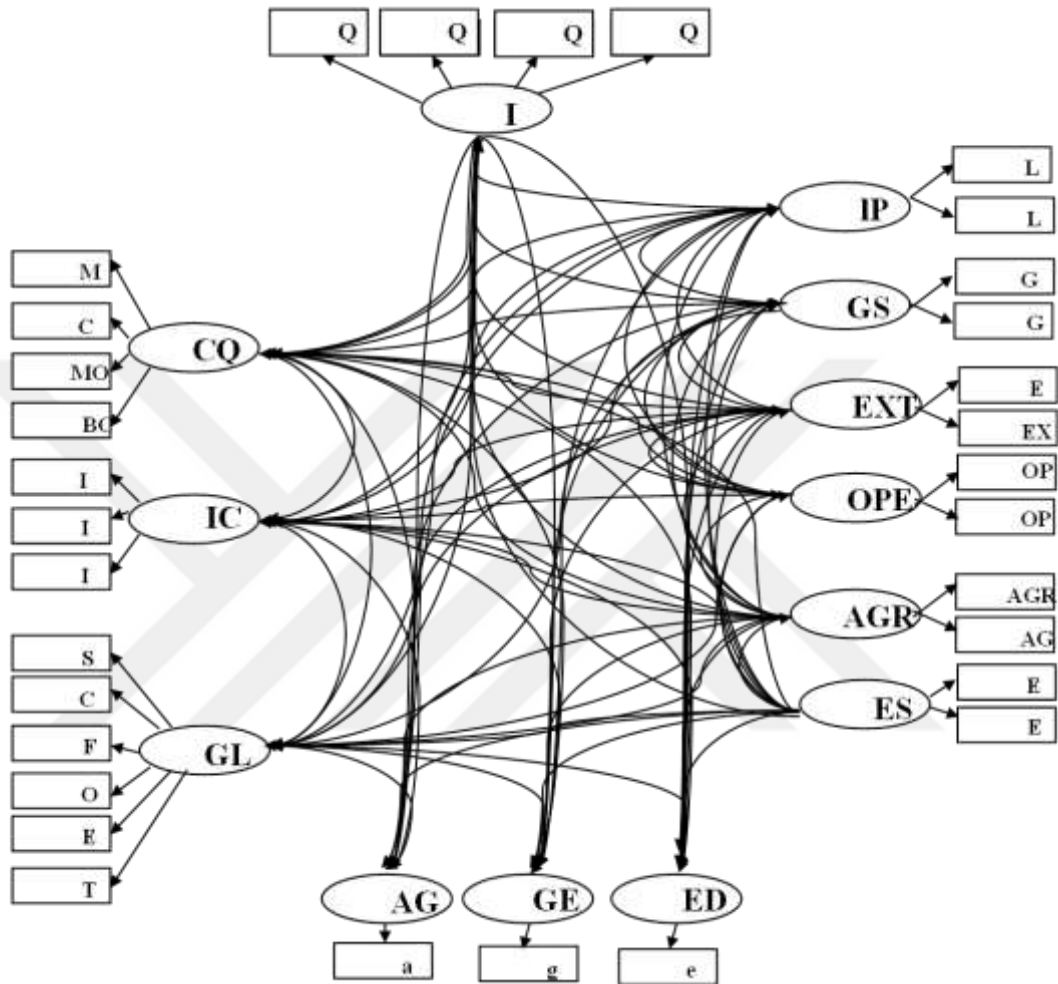
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