



Developing global transformational leaders



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ABSTRACT

Despite significant increases in training and development of global managers, little is known about the precursors of transformational leadership in Multilatinas. While prior cross-cultural literature suggests that being an autocratic leader is ideal in Multilatinas, using transformational leadership theory, we argue that global leaders of Multilatinas embrace a more humanistic approach to leadership because of the importance of relationships between leaders and their followers. Additionally, we argue that global leaders with high levels of cultural intelligence will have high levels of transformational leadership because they are better able to understand the differences of other cultures, and appropriately adjust their behavior.

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1. Introduction

Transformational leadership is one of the most researched leadership concepts to date because of its importance to the organizational sciences field (Gardner, Lowe, Moss, Mahoney, & Coglisier, 2010; Lowe & Gardner, 2001; Schwepker & Good, 2010; Ussahawanitchakit, 2011). Bass (1985, p. 25) defined the transformational leader “as someone who raised their awareness about issues of consequence, shifted them to higher-level needs, influenced them to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the group or organization, and to work harder than they originally had expected they would”. Behaviors associated with transformational leadership have been shown to positively impact a wide range of individual and organizational outcomes in a variety of contexts including military (Hardy et al., 2010), sports (Charbonneau, Barling, & Kelloway, 2001), business (Howell & Avolio, 1993), the public sector (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004), and education (Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995). Meta-analytic reviews have verified positive relationships between transformational

leadership of superiors and the performance of their subordinates (Lowe & Kroeck, 1996). Yet while leadership researchers have made significant strides in domestic and international contexts, they still recognize that the challenge for global leaders is how to adapt their leadership style to fit local circumstances (Steers, Sanchez-Runde, & Nardon, 2012). We suggest there is more to learn about leadership from the lesser known, large Latin American companies (or Multilatinas), and the unique circumstances in which they operate (Sirkin, 2010).

With the wide-spread internationalization of Multilatinas (Cuervo-Cazurra, 2008) and the globalization of their workforces, having globally competent transformational leaders has become increasingly pertinent for businesses (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). The focus of this study is on the employees of Multilatinas because we did not want to assume that working for firms from developing nations is the same as those from developed nations (Cuervo-Cazurra, 2008). For instance, a Latin American vice-president of a Multilatina disclosed during an interview that “I can only imagine how difficult it must be for a foreigner to understand how important family and personal relationships are and how they are entrenched within our institutions.”

The history of the environment in which Multilatinas emerged has affected their leadership style for three primary reasons. First, Latin America has had notoriously weak public institutions (Coatsworth, 2005). This caused a reliance on social relationships

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as a source of protection due to the lack of access to institutions (Vassolo, Castro, & Gomez-Mejia, 2011). Second, these social relationships have evolved into leaders placing value on positive and social interactions (Lenartowicz & Johnson, 2002). Finally, the interactions among leaders and their followers tend to be humanistic and paternalistic in nature (Davila & Elvira, 2012). These unique aspects of leadership style among Multilatinas makes their development worthwhile of a more in depth introspection.

The development of global leaders has been identified as a key aspect of personnel management for multinational corporations (Stroh & Caligiuri, 1998). Global leaders who are capable of understanding, functioning, and managing within global settings are valuable, rare, inimitable, and organizationally embedded resources that can help firms create a competitive advantage (Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Barney, 1991). As such, researchers are calling for more culturally intelligent global leaders (Elenkov & Manev, 2009; Manning, 2003). Cultural intelligence (CQ) is defined as one's ability to successfully adapt to new cultural contexts and function within a cross-cultural environment (Earley & Ang, 2003). It has become a recognizably important competence in promoting effective cross-border exchanges and relationships (Earley, 2002; Ng, Tan, & Ang, 2011).

Despite the recent attempt to assess the impact of global forces on transformational leadership, the mechanisms through which this process affects individual skills remains an underdeveloped area in the literature. The purpose of the present study is to extend transformational leadership theory (Burns, 1978) by examining the influence of CQ on transformational leadership for global leaders working for Multilatinas. We attempt to advance the literature in both fields by building on Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne, and Annen (2011) by unpacking their CQ research to provide a more nuanced understanding of CQ and transformational leadership. CQ is a set of knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) that are essential for the development of transformational leaders in Multilatinas. Furthermore, we will discuss why international experience alters the strength of this relationship.

This paper is organized as follows. First, we provide a review of the transformational leadership and CQ literatures. During the review, we will argue why leaders working for Multilatinas have higher levels of transformational leadership and cultural intelligence. Next, we develop the hypothesis linking CQ to transformational leadership, and then the subsequent hypothesis for the moderator. The hypotheses are followed by sections on research design and results. Finally, we discuss our findings and provide implications for theory and practice, as well as directions for future research.

2. Literature review and hypotheses development

2.1. Transformational leadership

Early studies of leadership identified authority deriving from the respect and confidence subordinates have in the abilities of the individual seen as the leader (Barnard, 1938). Likewise, effective leaders are able to identify a zone of indifference where the leader is best able to influence the followers, building trust in the leader's ability, and bonding with the subordinates (Barnard, 1938). The concept of transformational leadership was introduced by Burns (1978), and later more fully investigated by Bass (1985). The theory of transformational leadership builds upon these concepts such that transformational leaders are not only able to recognize the need for change, but also create of vision of what should take place and focus the exchanges of subordinates to achieve said vision (Burns, 1978). Additionally, transformational leaders are able to inspire and motivate followers by acting as a role model and building morale

so that teams are able to complete goals (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Vizeu, 2011). Transformational leadership proposes self-development and intellectual encouragement to transcend individual interests on behalf of group objectives set forth by the leader.

Transformational leadership has six principal elements (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990): 1) *Identifying and articulating a vision*; 2) *Providing an appropriate model*; 3) *Fostering acceptance of group goals*; 4) *High performance expectations*; 5) *Providing individualized support*; and 6) *Intellectual stimulation*. The six components are based on Bass' original four (Avolio, 1999; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995; Bass, 1985; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996), yet provide distinctiveness and allow for a better understanding of the different components. The newer model includes *mutual influence*, which generates a stronger and more stable relationship. The leader's authority is legitimized by his or her ability to interact, rather than by formal power. Thus, leaders achieve success by influencing followers, as well as by accepting their opinions. As a consequence, these leaders attain higher levels of personal effectiveness, team performance, satisfaction, commitment, and positive changes in groups and organizations (Gomes & Cruz, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 1996).

While the majority of the transformational leadership literature focuses on its effects on individual and organizational performance, relatively few (see Trépanier, Fernet, & Austin, 2012; Ussahawanitchakit, 2011 as notable exceptions) have empirically investigated the antecedents of transformational leadership behaviors (Cavazotte, Moreno, & Hickmann, 2012; Lim & Ployhart, 2004; Scott & Bozeman, 2003). Because transformational leadership has been associated with such important individual, team, and organizational outcomes, it is important to understand which KSAs cause leaders to engage in transformational leadership behaviors within Multilatinas (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). For example, Latin American leaders tend to be described as "an integrator, good administrator, group-oriented, and collaborative" (Castaño et al., 2015; p. 594). One "high potential" Latin American manager was denied promotion to director due to his "aloof, tough style that discounted the need to connect at an interpersonal level" (Stawiski, Gentry, Santana, & Dinwoodie, 2015, p. 1).

As aforementioned in the introduction, the history of the environment in which Multilatinas emerged has affected their leadership style. In an attempt to extend the recent and extensive review of leadership behaviors in Latin America by Castaño et al. (2015), we will recount a few of their perspectives and then make one key departure. The leader of Multilatinas is a paternalistic figure that engenders care and loyalty, as well as protects working relationships using a humanistic approach (Davila & Elvira, 2012). The Latin American context emphasizes a relationship orientation that respects power and authority (Castaño et al., 2015). Yet the authors often refer to the leaders of Multilatinas as "charismatic", which is a term with a long history in the leadership literature. We propose to label the leaders of Multilatinas as "transformational" based on the mechanism of articulating a vision. A charismatic leader is the "head of the show", ultimately responsible to not only articulate his/her vision, but also gain agreement and commitment to that specific vision. To the contrary, the transformational leader is open to follower input of the vision, which involves power sharing, participation, and follower development (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). To be larger than life is charismatic leadership, not transformational. The ability to listen, share power, and encourage participation is particularly salient to leaders of Multilatinas. Therefore, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1a. Leaders working in Multilatinas will be higher on transformational leadership than those who do not.

2.2. Cultural intelligence

In response to the ever expanding challenges with the globalization of organizations and the resulting cultural diversity within the workforce, international business researchers have worked to help organizations identify global talent (Steers et al., 2012). In the past decade, the concept of cultural intelligence has emerged as both an important theoretical framework for identifying intercultural competence and a practical capability for many levels – individuals, teams, and organizations – working in a global environment (Ang, Van Dyne, & Rockstuhl, 2015). As mentioned above, CQ focuses on one's ability to successfully adapt to new cultural contexts and function within a cross-cultural environment (Earley & Ang, 2003). Cross-cultural interactions require people to understand and adapt their behaviors to the values, beliefs, and customs of other societies in order to promote more effective transactions and relationships (Ng et al., 2011).

The CQ construct encompasses a set of knowledge, skills, and abilities. These KSAs help understand how individuals think and behave in different global settings. CQ has been shown to positively predict leadership performance (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011), international leadership potential (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012), as well as leader emergence in multicultural teams (Rockstuhl, Ang, Lee, & Paunova, 2013). Research has also shown that CQ is a set of KSAs that can be trained and developed (Ng et al., 2011), and therefore organizations that want to compete on an international level should include the development of CQ in leader training programs (Elenkov & Manev, 2009).

As with general intelligence (IQ), emotional intelligence (EQ), and social intelligence, the focus on one's ability to adapt to the demands of a specific environment provides a theoretical framework for the conceptualization of CQ (Ang et al., 2015). CQ specifically is designed to explain adaptation to a new cultural environment (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Earley & Ang, 2003). It covers the skills and capabilities required to interact within new cultural contexts (Livermore, 2010), such as requiring a certain level of open-mindedness, flexibility, and respect for others (Peterson, 2004). Another important attribute of CQ is that those high in CQ develop a habit of suspending judgment until an adequate amount of information has been revealed (Triandis, 2006). CQ does not generalize to an individual's ability to function in a specific culture. Rather, it represents a general set of KSAs that enable individuals to effectively navigate different intercultural environments (Ang et al., 2015). Thus, developing CQ diverges from learning how to be effective in a specific cultural environment, even if that culture differs from one's own.

Many positive outcomes have been associated with cultural intelligence. Initially, CQ was used to select the right people for international assignments. For instance, a culturally intelligent expatriate faces less culture shock (Chen, Lin, & Sawangpattanakul, 2011) and adjusts to unfamiliar interactions more easily (Moon, Choi, & Jung, 2012). Later, effects of CQ were investigated for organizational outcomes. CQ has been found to have a positive relationship with work performance, either directly (Chen et al., 2011) or mediated by other variables (Lee & Sukoco, 2010). In addition, CQ has been an important element for leaders, specifically global leaders. Rockstuhl et al. (2011) found among other types of intelligence, CQ had the strongest impact on cross-border leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, CQ has been shown to positively predict important global leadership outcomes such as leadership performance (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011) and international leadership potential (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). CQ is also positively related to leader emergence in multicultural teams (Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Rockstuhl et al., 2011), and has been shown to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation (Elenkov & Manev, 2009).

CQ is comprised of four components: metacognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioral. Metacognitive CQ encompasses one's ability to acquire and understand knowledge. Individuals with high metacognitive CQ more readily reflect upon their interactions, and better adjust their cultural knowledge in multicultural situations (Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Earley & Ang, 2003). Cognitive CQ refers to an individual's knowledge about one's own and others' culture. Cognitive CQ may be obtained from educational or personal experiences (Ang & Inkpen, 2008). Similar to metacognitive CQ, individuals with high cognitive CQ make more appropriate interpretations of cultures and make decisions more effectively (Ang et al., 2007). Motivational CQ reflects an individual's openness and willingness to engage in cultural interactions (Earley & Ang, 2003). This is a key component in activating the cognitive process (Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2011). Behavioral CQ relates to an individual's ability to adapt to other cultures. Whereas metacognitive, cognitive, and motivational CQ are related to "mental" processes, this facet of CQ reflects the capability of actually behaving (Ang et al., 2011). It focuses on external behaviors (such as verbal and non-verbal communication) and acknowledges social forms of behavior, based on interpersonal and interaction situations.

An approach to thinking about leadership in a global context is to "focus on enduring personal skills and abilities that are thought to characterize effective global managers" (Steers et al., 2012; p. 480). The authors refer to this as a normative approach and focus on the leader as a global manager that has a global mindset or cultural intelligence. After a thoughtful review on global leadership, they leave the reader wondering "whether these traits are indeed commonplace among successful managers in different parts of the world" (p. 480). The work by Castaño et al. (2015) suggests that in Multilatinas, being worldly contributes to outstanding leadership in most Latin American firms. They also suggest that leaders who are aware of potential differences and are willing to adapt their behaviors are most likely to be perceived as effective. These are two key elements of being high in CQ. Thus, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1b. Leaders working in Multilatinas will be higher on cultural intelligence than those who do not.

2.3. The relationship between cultural intelligence and transformational leadership

Transformational leaders engage in behaviors to create a connection with followers that raise the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower. Transformational leaders try to help followers reach their fullest potential by being attentive to the needs and motives of the followers. In a multicultural environment, the transformational leader must be able to understand differences associated with culture and how the multicultural followers express their needs and motives. Thus, to be a global transformational leader (that is to engage in transformational leadership behaviors salient to multiple cultures), one must have knowledge of other cultures and know how to affect the multicultural followers in such a way as to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors. Elenkov and Manev (2009) argued that leaders with high CQ would be more likely to behave in a manner consistent with transformational leadership. They gave the example of "acting as a role model for followers involves senior expatriate leader's actions that may have differing meanings in different cultures. An ability to quickly grasp these differing meanings and adapt behavior accordingly is then instrumental for effective leadership" (Elenkov & Manev, 2009; p. 361). While the authors did not provide a theoretical argument for why leaders high in CQ would behave in ways consistent to TL, they did provide

many examples of how they would adjust to a new cultural environment.

As mentioned previously, the conceptualization of CQ is grounded within the theoretical foundation of the broader intelligence research. A long history of investigating how IQ affects leadership exists (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003), and reviews of early leadership studies found that intelligence did affect leadership success (Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986). More recently, researchers have focused on how EQ affects leadership outcomes with inconsistent findings. However, a recent meta-analysis found evidence for a small but significant relationship between EQ and transformational leadership (Harms & Credé, 2010). Likewise, CQ has been shown to contribute to leadership competency, both empirically (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Rockstuhl et al., 2011) and theoretically (Alon & Higgins, 2005; Livermore, 2010). Furthermore, Groves and Feyerherm (2011) found CQ to be a predictor of leader and team performance beyond the effects of EQ and general leadership competencies. This is consistent with Ang et al. (2007) findings of the predictive power of CQ beyond that of EQ in cultural judgment and decision making and cultural adaptation, important considerations within the framework of transformational leadership theory (McDowelle, 2009; Podsakoff et al., 1990). In summary, based on general intelligence theory, and given the boundary condition of an international context, we expect CQ to have a positive effect on transformational leadership.

While transformational leadership has been at the forefront of leadership research, relatively few studies link overall cultural intelligence with overall transformational leadership. However, research has found significant positive correlations between overall CQ and two of the transformational leadership components (Elenkov & Manev, 2009), providing tangential evidence of a positive relationship between overall CQ and overall transformational leadership. While their study examined CQ as a moderating variable on the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation, the results were mixed. This may be because CQ is a predictor of transformational leadership and not a moderator of the CQ–innovation relationship. In subsequent paragraphs we will discuss how the components of CQ influence transformational leadership behaviors. Then, we will draw on these connections to hypothesize overall CQ's effects on overall transformational leadership.

Utilizing the definitions of the six behaviors of transformational leadership provided by Podsakoff et al. (1990) and the four component definition of cultural intelligence provided by Ang et al. (2011), we develop our hypothesis predicting a positive relationship between overall CQ and overall transformational leadership. Within the following sections, examine why overall CQ should have a positive impact on overall transformational leadership. Then, we discuss how the components of CQ affect the transformational leadership behaviors. Staying consistent with the principle of compatibility to test the constructs on the same level of specificity (Ajzen, 2005), we discuss the individual components of transformational leadership and examine some specific examples of how the four components of CQ might affect them.

We hypothesize the overall construct of CQ, instead of the individual dimensions, because we believe that the CQ subcomponents dynamically interact to enhance the overall construct (Earley & Ang, 2003), and that the four subcomponents develop and are applied in a four-step cycle with feedback-loops (Livermore, 2010; Van Dyne, Ang, & Livermore, 2010). We thereby concur with prior literature suggesting that none of the subcomponents are more or less important but highlight the integrative nature of the construct (Bücker, Furrer, Poutsma, & Buyens, 2014). For example, CQ behavior “involves the practical application of the cognition and motivation components to real-world contexts”

(Earley & Ang, 2003; p. 189). Thus, in order to enact appropriate behaviors, individuals must have processed new information accurately (metacognitive and cognitive CQ) and were motivated to respond to novel cross-cultural situations (motivational CQ). This process is iterative, as once others respond to the behavior, cognition and motivation are reactivated which ultimately leads to the enhancement of the overall CQ (Van Dyne et al., 2010). Similar to the CQ construct, we believe that the transformational leadership components work in tandem and that it is enhanced through an iterative and dynamic process between the subcomponents. *Identifying and articulating a vision* addresses the behaviors associated with identifying new opportunities and developing, articulating, and inspiring others with a common vision of the future. The metacognitive component includes being aware of others' cultural preferences before and during interactions. This awareness, in addition to the individual's willingness to adjust cultural assumptions and mental models, will positively impact how the individual phrases the vision and presents it to subordinates in order to inspire them. Likewise, the precipice of cognitive CQ, identifying and understanding similarities and differences across cultures, gives an individual a basis to affect behaviors as addressed in motivational and behavioral CQ. Specifically, behavioral CQ is associated with exhibiting situationally appropriate behaviors including verbal and nonverbal communication. As such, articulating and inspiring others with a shared vision will be affected by a person's ability to provide culturally appropriate words, tone, gestures, and facial expressions.

Providing an appropriate model, which addresses the behaviors associated with setting a good example for subordinates to follow, consistent with the leader's values, is specifically associated with the behaviors of the leader. How these behaviors will be viewed and accepted are addressed by cognitive CQ, and prescribed by a person's ability to exhibit appropriate behaviors (behavioral CQ). Likewise, metacognitive CQ plays an important role due to the individual's willingness to adjust cultural assumptions and mental models, which in turn leads to the willingness to adjust the types of behaviors the leader exhibits while providing the appropriate model. Overall, leaders who recognize and understand their own culture, and who demonstrate an understanding of other cultures, could serve as role models for their followers, thereby enhancing followers' trust in and respect for their leaders.

Fostering acceptance of group goals, which identifies behaviors associated with promoting cooperation and teamwork, most directly involves interactions and managing those interactions. Thus, all components of CQ should have influence over this. Specifically, having knowledge of (cognitive CQ) and being consciously aware of others' cultural preferences before and during interactions (metacognitive CQ) will positively impact the effect a leader can have on those interactions and provide a more effective means for getting people to cooperate and work together. Furthermore, the ability of being able to exhibit culturally appropriate behaviors (behavioral CQ), and the confidence and intrinsic interest in cross-cultural effectiveness associated with motivational CQ will positively impact a leader's ability to promote teamwork.

High performance expectations encompasses behaviors demonstrating a leader's expectations for excellence from the followers. Having the knowledge and desire to use that knowledge (cognitive and metacognitive CQ) will inform a leader on how to demonstrate expectations of excellence in quality and/or performance (behavioral CQ). Likewise, *providing individualized support*, which identifies leader behaviors showing respect and concern for followers and their personal feelings, will be informed by the cognitive and metacognitive CQ components to prescribe the appropriate behaviors needed in a multicultural environment.

Furthermore, leaders high in CQ will be better able to understand individual needs and how they differ based on cultural consideration.

Intellectual stimulation is associated with behaviors that challenge followers to re-examine assumptions and rethink how work is performed. This is most closely associated with meta-cognitive CQ in the leader's own ability to question cultural assumptions and adjust his/her mental model. Having this ability will greatly influence one's ability to help others do the same. Additionally, knowledge of cultures and desire to learn about culture will provide a basis for the leader to exhibit appropriate behaviors and knowledge when providing intellectual stimulation to subordinates.

The individual components of cultural intelligence inform on the need to adjust behaviors associated with transformational leadership so that those behaviors might be considered transformational in a cross-cultural work environment. Thus, we suggest that the higher the leader's overall CQ, the more likely their transformational leadership behaviors will appear within the context of intercultural interactions. As such:

Hypothesis 2. Overall CQ will be positively related to overall transformational leadership.

2.4. The role of international experience

As discussed previously, prior international experiences have been studied in conjunction with cultural intelligence. International experience is often theorized as an antecedent to CQ, a control variable, or through a mediation relationship as a distal predictor of intercultural outcomes (Ang et al., 2015). In a global context, we suggest that international experience may play an important role in understanding the strength of the positive relationship between CQ and transformational leadership.

While some researchers have not found an association between international experiences and global leadership outcomes (Gundersen, Hellesøy, & Raeder, 2012; Van Woerkom & De Reuver, 2009), or have not included international experiences in their study of CQ and leadership behaviors (Elenkov & Manev, 2009; Groves & Feyerherm, 2011), others have provided strong evidence for the importance of international experiences for global leadership. For example, Pless, Maak, and Stahl (2011) found that international experience in the form of service learning abroad fosters the development and enhancement of competencies that are critical for global leadership. Similarly, results from a study of 126 Swiss military officers revealed that international experience has the strongest impact on general leadership effectiveness and cross-border leadership effectiveness—beyond general, emotional, and cultural intelligence (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). Rockstuhl et al. (2011) also established that while general intelligence predicted both leadership effectiveness measures, EQ predicted general but not cross-border leadership effectiveness. CQ predicted cross-border leadership effectiveness beyond the other intelligence measures but had no effect on general leadership effectiveness. Finally, Kim and Van Dyne (2012) showed that intercultural contact, measured by the number of countries lived in for more than six months, as well as CQ is positively related to international leadership potential.

Thus, given the boundary condition of a culturally heterogeneous context, both CQ and international experience are suggested to be important predictors of global leadership behaviors. Having argued that CQ and international experiences increases the propensity to enact transformational leadership behaviors, we suggest that the interaction between the two variables amplifies the positive effect. Therefore, we extend previous studies that used previous international experience as an antecedent or control

variable for understanding CQ and transformational leadership behaviors, in order to allot it a more substantive role. In line with Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun, and Lepak's (2005) findings that previous international experience may serve more accurately as a moderator than a main effect when predicting cross-cultural outcomes, we suggest that in a global context, international experience helps understand the strength of the positive relationship between CQ and transformational leadership. Specifically, we suggest that the relationship between CQ and transformational leadership strengthens when a global leader has a higher number of international experiences due to the two reasons.

First, international experiences equip global leaders with a broader understanding of the importance of utilizing the knowledge, skills, and abilities associated with CQ in order to create a wider range of transformational leadership behaviors. Individuals learn norms, customs, and behaviors of foreign cultures through direct experience while travelling or living abroad (Bandura, 1997). Individuals with high levels of international experience have also learned routines and developed comprehensive frameworks for functioning in different cultures (Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Takeuchi et al., 2005). While the general international knowledge may, however, neither be sufficient nor necessarily translate into the work environment (Takeuchi et al., 2005), it may provide cues and cognitive transfer possibilities for cultural intelligent individuals to enact culturally appropriate transformational leadership behaviors. Thus, if global leaders possess high levels of CQ, then they can make the prior international experience salient. The interplay of CQ and prior international experiences may be particularly important for global leaders of Latin American firms when fostering group goals due to culture-specific motivations, social interactions, and expectations.

Furthermore, prior international experiences may allow global leaders to dig deeper into their CQ potential, which could have been primarily nurtured through academic training instead of international exposure (Eisenberg et al., 2013; Ramsey & Lorenz, 2016). Previous literature has highlighted that personal factors, such as CQ, can serve as "important boundary conditions that can affect the usefulness of international experiences for developing leadership capabilities" (Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009; p. 145). The authors also suggest that "cultural intelligence is an essential learning capability that leaders can use to translate their international experiences into effective experiential learning in culturally diverse settings" (Ng et al., 2009; p. 125). Thus, CQ serves as the culture-free ability (Ng & Earley, 2006) that transforms the domain and location specific international experiences (Takeuchi et al., 2005) into valuable leadership competencies which can stimulate and expedite adjustment, social interactions, intellectual simulation, and performance.

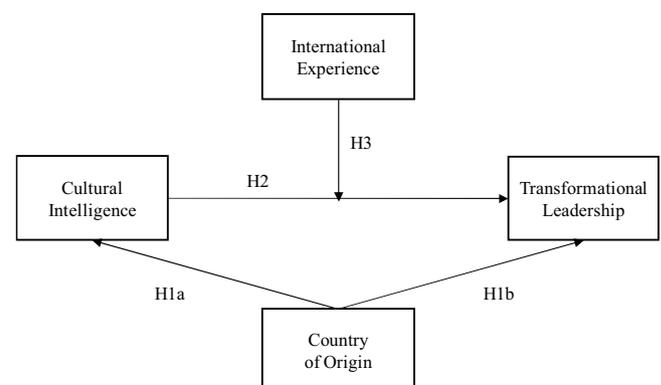


Fig. 1. Hypothesized model.

The aforementioned arguments suggest a positive interaction of CQ and prior international experiences on effective transformational leadership behaviors (see Fig. 1 for an overview of the hypothesized relationships). Thus, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3. International experience positively moderates the relationship between CQ and transformational leadership such that high levels of international experience create a stronger relationship between CQ and transformational leadership.

3. Methods

3.1. Data collection

In order to test the hypotheses of this study, a survey was conducted with global leaders from MNEs operating in Brazil (Brazilians or foreigners). Potential MNEs were identified from two main sources: 1) the Ranking of Brazilian Transnationals (Cretoiu, Barakat, Nogueira, & Diniz, 2012) and the 2) GADEX and GDI, two large groups of Brazilian and foreign MNEs that meet monthly to discuss International Human Resource Management (GADEX, 2012; GDI, 2012).

Participant companies were asked to select potential respondents based on two criteria. First, the individuals must have leadership positions (supervisors, managers, directors and/or presidents/CEOs). Since the dependent variable in this study is transformational leadership, it is imperative that the sample have a leadership role. Therefore, we made this a condition for answering the survey. We also included “position” in the survey as a secondary check, which was a write in (as opposed to a dropdown box). All of the respondents put a leadership position (supervisor was the lowest level reported, with CEO or Managing Director on the other end of the spectrum). Second, they must have global responsibilities (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). The latter was comprised of at least two of the following job characteristics: 1) have constant interaction with other cultures (daily or weekly), 2) travel often to other countries (twice a year or more), 3) be an expatriate, and 4) coordinate global activities (e.g., managing foreign teams, controlling foreign affiliates, and managing contacts with foreign clients and suppliers). Respondents could be working either in the headquarters or in foreign affiliates.

We provided a link to the online questionnaire to participating companies’ human resources departments, who then forwarded it to potential respondents. The research team followed up on responses and sent reminders to companies over a period of three months.

Seventy-one MNEs operating in Brazil were invited to participate in the study with 23 accepting (32%). A total of 332 global leaders completed the survey. Samples ranged from one to 63 people per company, with an average of 14.4. We divided the sample into two groups: MNEs headquartered in Brazil (Multilatinas) and MNEs headquartered in developed nations. We then decided to focus the study on the employees of only the Multilatinas since we did not want to assume that working for firms from developing nations is the same as those from developed nations. Finally, by focusing on the relationship of CQ and transformational leadership in a developing region, we answer the call from Elenkov and Manev (2009) who examined that relationship on participants originating from the EU. We will briefly discuss the analysis of both groups in the Results section. From the 23 accepting companies, 12 companies could be identified as Multilatinas (52%). Consequently, the final sample was composed of 190 global leaders working for 12 Multilatinas with samples ranging from one to 40 people and averaging 15.8 employees per company.

3.2. Measures

We examined overall CQ as the independent variable in relation to the overall measure of transformational leadership behavior as the dependent variable. Further, we assessed the moderating impact of international experience on the hypothesized bivariate relationship. The validated scales and control variables used are further described below.

3.2.1. Cultural intelligence

We measured CQ with the cultural intelligence scale developed by Ang et al. (2007). As a multidimensional construct, CQ is comprised of 20 items in four dimensions: *metacognitive* (4 items), *cognitive* (6 items), *motivational* (5 items), and *behavioral* (5 items). Individually, each represents a set of capabilities used to function in diverse cultural settings, and together they form overall CQ. Research demonstrates the value and predictive validity of self-report versions of the scale (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012; Van Dyne, Ang, & Koh, 2008; Ward, Fischer, Lam, & Hall, 2009). Sample survey items include: (1) *I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds*; (2) *I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures*; and (3) *I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures*. Respondents were asked to reply to a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The internal consistency in our study was acceptable with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.92 (DeVellis, 2012).

3.2.2. Transformational leadership

We measured transformational leadership with the transformational leader behaviors inventory (TLI) developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). The multidimensional construct has six components and a total of 23 items. The components are: *identifying and articulating a vision* (5 items), *providing an appropriate model* (3 items), *fostering the acceptance of group goals* (4 items), *having high performance expectations* (3 items), *providing individualized support* (4 items), and *providing intellectual stimulation* (4 items). The scale was validated by Podsakoff et al. (1996) and utilized in more recent leadership literature (e.g., Gundersen et al., 2012; Schwepker & Good, 2010). Respondents were asked to rate themselves on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Example survey questions include: (1) *I have a clear understanding of where we are going*; (2) *I foster collaboration among work groups*; and (3) *I show respect for the personal feelings of others*. The internal consistency in our study was acceptable with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.89 (DeVellis, 2012).

There have been mixed reviews over the reliability of self-report leadership scales (Avolio, Yammarino, & Bass, 1991). Some authors have found that self-reports do not accurately predict leadership behavior, while others argue the contrary (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Bass & Yammarino, 1991). For example Kim and Yukl (1995, p. 371) stated “However, contrary to findings in the study by Bass and Yammarino (1991), self-reports in our study predicted effectiveness ratings to some extent”. Additionally, research has shown that education increases self-other agreement (Ostroff, Atwater, & Feinberg, 2004). “Those with more education may be more likely to use feedback and process information from others in such a way that their self-ratings are more closely aligned with ratings from others” (Ostroff et al., 2004; p. 338). Since our sample was highly educated (82.1% have a specialization/master’s degree or higher), we believe that the accuracy and reliability of using a self-report measure for transformational leadership may be justified in this case.

3.2.3. International experience

We measured international experience as a standardized aggregate of three international experience components:

countries visited, countries resided, and countries educated. *Countries visited* was the number of countries that respondents had visited. *Countries resided* was the number of countries that respondents had lived for more than 2 years. *Countries educated* was the number of countries in which they had received formal education. Before aggregating, we standardized each of the three components to ensure that each accounted equally to the overall measure. The aggregation of various international experience components to one measure has been used in prior research (e.g., Helms, Rutti, Lorenz, Ramsey, & Armstrong, 2014). The triangulation is particularly important as “an individual can become familiar with the national culture through many means; for instance by traveling, studying [. . .]. Each [of the experiences] is considered significant because the individual has actually experienced another culture by visiting it or residing in it” (Crowne, 2008; p. 393). The internal consistency in our study was acceptable with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.69 (DeVellis, 2012).

3.2.4. Control variables

In addition to the independent, dependent, and moderating variables, we tested the effect of seven control variables: *position*, *tenure*, *age*, *nationality*, *education*, *gender*, and *expatriated*. *Position* indicated the position the global leader held in the MNE (1 = Supervisor, 2 = Manager, 3 = Director, 4 = President/CEO). *Tenure* was measured by the number of years that the respondent had worked for the company. *Age* was measured in years. *Nationality* of the respondent was dummy coded (1 = Brazil, 0 = Other). *Education* was measured by the highest educational level the respondent has attained (1 = High school, 2 = Undergraduate, 3 = Specialization, 4 = Master’s degree, 5 = PhD). *Gender* and *expatriate experience* were dummy coded (1 = Male, 0 = Female) and (1 = Yes, 0 = No), respectively.

In order to assess the *discriminant validity* of the CQ and transformational leadership scale, we followed the procedure outlined by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). We estimated a model that forced the correlation of the CQ and transformational factors to 1.00 and compared it, via a Chi-Square difference test, to the measurement model in which the correlation was estimated. The Chi-Square difference test revealed that the models were significantly different ($\chi^2(1) = 112.91, p < 0.001$) and the 2-factor solution fit the data significantly better, rejecting that the constraint of a perfect correlation was an appropriate exemplification of the relationship among the two. The discriminant validity was also confirmed in a second procedure. Since the square root of the average variance extracted by each construct exceeded the correlation between all pairs of constructs, the discriminant validity between the CQ and transformational leadership scale could be established (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) (see Table 1).

3.3. Sample profile

The sample was comprised of 190 global leaders from 12 Multilatinas. All companies are considered large according to the Brazilian size classification (net revenue greater than US\$140 million BNDES, 2012). The majority of the sample was male (86.6%) and Brazilian (93.7%). Individuals having expatriate experience comprised 48.2% of the sample. Respondents’ ages ranged from 23 to 64 with an average of 41.5 years old. The sample was highly educated with 82.1% having a specialization/master’s degree or higher. On average, the global leaders in the study worked for 13.4 years in the companies that employed them. Respondents lived, on average, in 0.9 other countries for two years or more, and the number of countries visited by respondents ranged from zero to 55, averaging 14.4. Finally, respondents received formal education in 1.1 other countries than their own.

4. Results

4.1. Descriptive analysis

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations and correlations among the variables in this study. Not surprisingly, CQ was highly correlated with transformational leadership ($r = 0.39, p < 0.001$). Additionally, CQ was highly correlated with international experience ($r = 0.29, p < 0.001$).

4.2. Analysis

We conducted the analysis using SPSS and the regression-based Process Model (Hayes, 2012). In order to assess Hypothesis 1a and Hypothesis 1b, we compared global leaders’ level of CQ and transformational leadership from Multilatinas to the level of global leaders from other MNEs operating in Latin America. We analyzed the differences using an independent *t*-test. While the leaders were similar in age, education level, position, tenure, gender, and international experiences, global leaders from Multilatinas had higher levels of CQ ($M = 5.76, SE = 0.54$) than those leaders from other MNEs operating in Latin America ($M = 5.54, SE = 0.64$). This difference was statistically significant ($t = 2.93, p < 0.01$). Similarly, global leaders from Multilatinas possessed higher levels of Transformational Leadership ($M = 6.09, SE = 0.40$) than those employees from other MNEs operating in Latin America ($M = 5.98, SE = 0.47$). This difference was also significant ($t = 2.21, p < 0.05$).

To assess Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 3, we first tested the effect of the seven control variables on the dependent variable *transformational leadership*. In the second step we introduced the

Table 1
Means, standard deviations, and correlations of leaders of multilatinas.

Variable	Mean	Std Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Transf. Leadership	6.09	0.40	(0.59)								
2. Cultural Intelligence	5.76	0.54	0.39***	(0.74)							
3. International Exp.	0.00	0.74	0.08	0.29***	(0.60)						
4. Position	2.40	0.80	0.12	0.07	0.24***						
5. Tenure	13.38	9.84	0.03	-0.05	-0.17*	-0.09					
6. Age	42.50	7.64	-0.01	-0.14	-0.02	0.30***	0.41***				
7. Nationality	0.94	0.24	-0.06	-0.01	-0.06	-0.20**	0.19**	-0.10			
8. Education	3.12	0.63	0.00	0.07	0.20**	0.12	-0.07	0.02	0.09		
9. Gender	0.87	0.34	0.03	-0.02	0.01	-0.01	0.06	0.02	-0.04	-0.05	
10. Expatriated	0.49	0.50	0.08	0.10	-0.09	-0.10	0.19*	-0.08	0.04	-0.05	0.17*

Notes: n = 190. *p < 0.10; SQRT AVEs are on the diagonal.
 * p < 0.05.
 ** p < 0.01.
 *** p < 0.001.

independent variable *cultural intelligence* in order to test its direct effect on *transformational leadership* as well as assess the amount of incremental explained variance (Table 2).

The second hypothesis stated that overall CQ would be positively related to transformational leadership. The results provide support for this hypothesis ($b = 0.31, p < 0.001$). None of the controls were significant. Independent and control variables explained 17% of the variance in the model.

The third hypothesis stated that the relationship between overall CQ and transformational leadership would be positively moderated by international experience. Using the SPSS Process macro and following Aiken and West (1991) principles for interactions, we mean-centered the independent variable (CQ) and the moderator variable (international experiences). Mean centering allowed (1) to estimate a reliable model that includes the product of the independent variable and the moderator, and (2) to make the lower-order effects interpretable (Field, 2013). The results also provide support for the third hypothesis ($b = 0.14, p < 0.05$). Independent, control variables, and the interaction effect explained 19% of the variance in the model, 2% due to the interaction. To probe the interaction, a simple slope analysis was conducted (Aiken & West, 1991). We estimated the conditional effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable on high levels (one standard deviation above the mean), average levels (the mean level), and low levels of the moderator (one standard deviation below the mean). The examination of the simple slopes confirmed the significant moderation effect. When international experience is low ($b = 0.21, p < 0.01, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.07, 0.35]$), at the mean of the value ($b = 0.31, p < 0.001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.20, 0.42]$), and high ($b = 0.41, p < 0.001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.25, 0.58]$), there is a significant positive relationship between CQ and transformational leadership. The higher the global leader's international experience, the stronger is the relationship between CQ and transformational leadership. To produce a visual representation of the interaction (see Fig. 2), we plotted the simple slope graph based on the predicted value of transformational leadership for the combination of high, average, and low values of CQ and international experiences (Hayes, 2013).

Table 2
Regression results.

Variable	Transformational Leadership		
	b	SE	CI
Constant	6.09***	0.28	[5.55, 6.64]
<i>Main Effects:</i>			
Cultural Intelligence (CQ)	0.31***	0.06	[0.20, 0.42]
International Experience (IE)	-0.06	0.04	[-0.14, 0.03]
<i>Interaction Effects:</i>			
CQ X IE	0.14 [†]	0.07	[0.01, 0.28]
<i>Controls:</i>			
Position	0.05	0.04	[-0.03, 0.13]
Tenure	0.00	0.00	[-0.01, 0.01]
Age	0.00	0.01	[-0.01, 0.01]
Nationality	-0.19	0.17	[-0.53, 0.14]
Education	-0.01	0.05	[-0.10, 0.08]
Gender	0.04	0.08	[-0.12, 0.20]
Expatriated	0.04	0.06	[-0.08, 0.15]
F	3.95***		
R ²	0.19		
$\Delta R^{2\text{duetointeraction}}$	0.02 [†]		

Notes: n = 190. [†]p < 0.10; **p < 0.01; CQ and IE are mean centered; all coefficients are unstandardized; CI denotes the confidence intervals.

[†] p < 0.05.
*** p < 0.001.

Although not hypothesized, per suggestion of the reviewers, we examined additional relationships within the model (see Appendix).

4.3. Common method variance

Since our model relied on survey-based data and self-reports, the constructs used are susceptible to common method bias (CMB) (Conway & Lance, 2010; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Although present, the potential risk of conflated relationships in the present paper (1) was a priori limited due to a careful study design and (2) was not serious enough to threaten our hypotheses testing as determined by the significance of the interaction effect and a post-hoc analysis.

A priori, CMB was minimized through the selection of a motivated and qualified sample population. The participants were motivated to take the survey because the topic was important to their job, and thus they were more likely to answer truthfully. They were also qualified to participate in the study due to knowledge of cultural factors (global) and rank (supervisors or higher). Additionally, the short length and unambiguity of the survey, as well as the use of reliable measurement constructs, helped to reduce CMB. Finally, the reverse causal order of dependent and independent variable items in the questionnaire should aid in reducing the effect of CMB (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

In addition to preventing CMB through the study design, we examined post-hoc the potential effect of CMB. First of all, as CMB severely deflates rather than inflates interaction effects, the statistical significance observed in our hypothesized interaction likely does not constitute an artifact of CMB (Evans, 1985; Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010). Second, as our research goal was not only focused on the interaction but also on the bivariate relationship, we conducted a CMV analysis with MPLUS7. First, we established a measurement model with the substantive constructs. The results revealed an adequate fit ($\chi^2 (849) = 1391.11, p < 0.001$; RMSEA = 0.06; CFI = 0.87; TLI = 0.86) to the data. Second, in order to test for the possibility of CMB, we added a common method variance (CMV) latent factor to the measurement model. In this model, we allowed all items to load on their latent constructs as well as on the CMV factor. The CMV factor was not permitted to correlate with any substantive construct. If the fit of the measurement model is improved through the addition of the CMV factor, CMB may be present. Then we examined how much variance was due to the substantive constructs and how much was due to the method factor. Results revealed that the model that included the method factor better fit the data ($\chi^2 (807) = 1268.28, p < 0.001$; RMSEA = 0.05; CFI = 0.89; TLI 0.88). Moreover, the difference between the models ($\Delta\chi^2 (42) = 122.83, p < 0.001$) was significant, thus suggesting the existence of CMB.

Although CMB was present, there was evidence that it was not a pervasive problem in the data for two reasons. First, there was no difference in the significance level of the correlations between the study variables in the models with or without the CMV factor. Second, an analysis of the average variance extracted revealed that the CMV method factor accounted for 9% of the variance in the data. This is less than the 25% threshold established by Williams, Cote, and Buckley (1989). In conclusion, while we did have some CMB, it did not appear to be large enough to nullify our results.

5. Discussion

Drawing on transformational leadership theory and the theory of general intelligence, we hypothesized that the CQ of global leaders working for Multilatinas is an important predictor of their

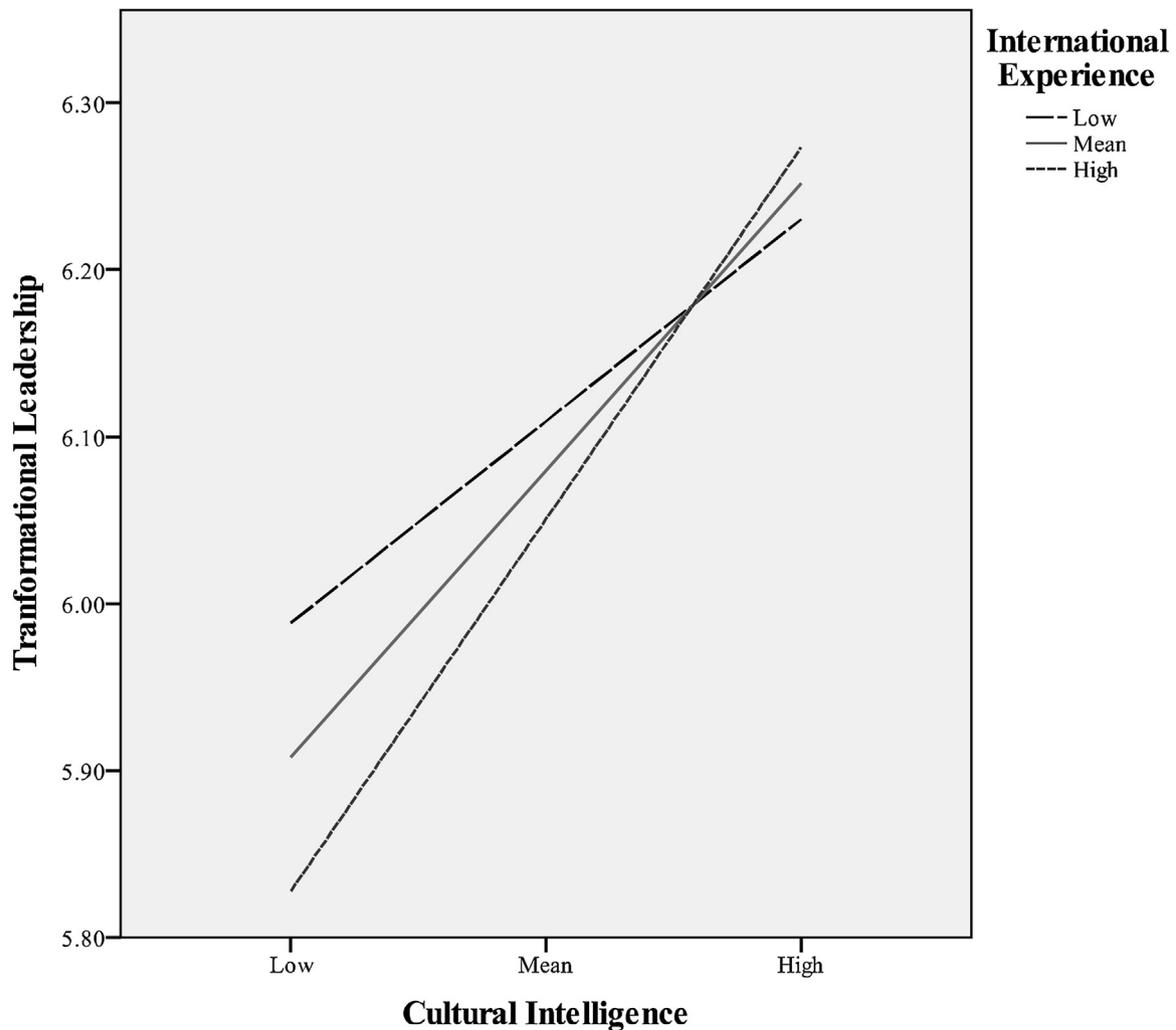


Fig. 2. Interaction plot.

transformational leadership behavior in a cross-cultural context. Furthermore, we suggested that the level of international experience strengthens the impact of CQ on transformational leadership. Our findings provide evidence for the positive relationship between CQ and transformational leadership and the moderation effect of international experience. Although we did not explicitly hypothesize the relationship between CQ and the subdimensions of transformational leadership behaviors, we established post-hoc the significant impact of CQ on five of the six dimensions. The component of *providing individualized support* was not statistically affected by CQ, but was influenced by the position level of the global leader.

5.1. Theoretical and managerial implications

Firms invest substantial resources into developing transformational leaders that can lead in cross-cultural contexts. An increasing number of scholars have pointed to the potential advantages of CQ behaviors (Elenkov & Manev, 2009; Groves & Feyherm, 2011) or international experience (Pless et al., 2011; Rockstuhl et al., 2011) in the development of global leaders. Notably, we established that high levels of CQ and international experience drive the development of transformational leadership behaviors of global managers working for Multilatinas, given the boundary condition of an intercultural environment. We thus

partially answer the calls for a deeper examination of the mechanisms driving transformational leadership behaviors in general, and in Multilatinas, specifically (Castaño et al., 2015). Understanding why CQ and international experience are related to transformational leadership further extends transformational leadership theory into the context of Latin America. Although, the constructs contribute individually to the explanation of transformational leadership behavior, transformational leadership is suggested to reach its highest potential when high levels of CQ and international experience are combined.

We also contribute to research examining the nomological network of CQ. Our findings show support for CQ as an antecedent to transformational leadership. This is important because of transformational leadership's positive affect on performance (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Dum Dum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Lim & Ployhart, 2004). While we did not examine the effects of global managers' CQ on performance, the fact that the ones that work for Multilatinas are higher on both CQ and transformational leadership alludes to the potential importance of understanding the phenomenon in Latin America. Furthermore, the significance of the interaction effect postulates the importance of international experience, not only in the development of CQ, but also the application of it.

From a managerial perspective, this study provides guidance for firms that seek to develop or strengthen transformational

leadership behaviors in their organizations in Latin America. Specifically, our study suggests that global leaders' level of CQ can determine their transformational leadership behaviors in a cross-cultural environment within Latin America. The context of Latin America is unique to the leadership discipline. During informal interviews of some of the participants of our study, we kept hearing things like “the more connections you have, the more effective leader you will be” and “Latin America is not a meritocracy, it's based on relationships”. These statements highlight the importance of listening, understanding group goals, and building a vision together. Current and future global leaders would be wise to adhere to these affirmations of what makes a good leader in Latin America.

As CQ is a learned skill that can be further developed, rather than an innate ability; organizations can offer CQ training to their global leaders. Often CQ training utilizes a pre and posttest process where the CQ survey is administered before and after the CQ training (Ramsey & Lorenz, 2016). CQ courses usually employ experiential learning in order to reinforce the material. CQ training may be particularly important due to the challenges of an increasing multicultural workforce that is emerging in Multilatinas.

Given the importance of international experience, firms may foster the international immersion of their leaders through exchanges, multi-cultural teams, and expatriate assignments. Firms may also base their selection for a global leadership position, at least partly, on the international experience of the candidate. One of the participants of our study said that “Travelling and working internationally has helped me to become a better leader. It is not all about being skilled and trained. Your employees come from so many different places that without the personal experiences and also failures . . . it would have been very difficult.”

5.2. Limitations and future research

Our study should be interpreted in light of some limitations. First, leadership behaviors were self-reported. While we feel this measurement method was sufficient due to the high level of education of the leaders, further studies that examine the effect of CQ on other-reports of leadership behaviors are needed.

Second, our study focused on global leaders working for Multilatinas. While we chose to study the specifics of these global leaders, it also limits the generalizability of the results. Prior literature as well as our post-doc analysis confirmed that Multilatinas differ from firms origination from other parts of the world (Cuervo-Cazurra, 2008).

Third, since we only surveyed leaders with global responsibilities, we cannot generalize our finding to include the effect of CQ on the transformational leadership for those with only domestic responsibility. We encourage future studies to test these hypotheses in different contexts similar to Rockstuhl et al. (2011). In addition, we suggest an examination of the effects of each of the CQ components on overall transformational leadership, as well as each of the transformational leadership behaviors. To further extend the leadership literature in general, it would be interesting to examine whether CQ contributes to other types of leadership as well.

Fourth, in our study we did assume that leaders try to enact transformational leadership behaviors. However, it is possible that leaders not only can choose different leadership styles, but even different transformational leadership behaviors. One could even argue that those high in CQ should choose a leadership style that will be most effective in the culture in which the leader is operating. Future studies may investigate the leadership style and behavior choices and the potential effect the level of CQ asserts on those.

Finally, we did not control for some key variables such as cognitive ability, emotional intelligence, and the big five personality traits. Ang et al. (2015) have provided an excellent review of how these variables interact with CQ. For example, empirical results show that openness to experience is positively correlated to all four of the CQ components (Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2006). We specifically left these and other controls out of the survey due to the time constraints of our respondents. Future research should add these controls in order to demonstrate incremental explanatory power of CQ.

Appendix.

Additional analysis

In order to better understand the distinct impact of CQ, we parceled out the effect of CQ on the different transformational leadership components: identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, having high performance expectations, providing individualized support, and providing intellectual stimulation (see Fig. A1).

After controlling for position, tenure, age, nationality, education, gender, and expatriate experience, we found that CQ was positively and significantly related to five of the six transformational leadership behaviors. Only the “providing individualized support” component proved to be insignificant. Whereas the

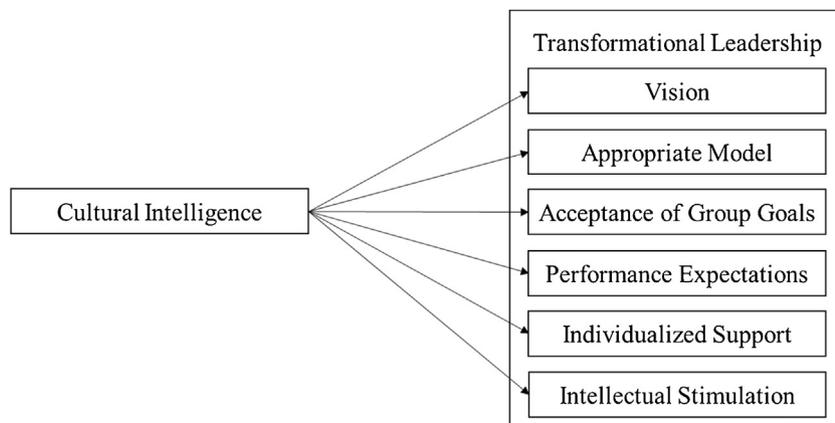


Fig. A1. Post-hoc analysis model.

Table A1
Regression results for post-hoc analysis.

Variable	H1: Articulating a vision		H2: Providing an appropriate model		H3: Fostering the acceptance of group goals		H4: Having high performance expectations		H5: Providing individualized support		H6: Providing intellectual stimulation	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
CQ		0.33***		0.32***		0.41***		0.27***		−0.01		0.33***
Position	0.02	0.00	−0.01	−0.03	0.11	0.08	0.10	0.09	0.22**	0.22**	0.03	0.01
Tenure	0.10	0.07	−0.04	−0.07	0.05	0.02	0.03	0.01	0.07	0.07	−0.01	−0.06
Intl. Experience	0.09	−0.02	0.05	−0.06	0.06	−0.08	0.12	0.03	−0.04	−0.04	0.06	−0.04
Age	−0.08	−0.03	0.01	0.06	−0.01	0.06	−0.10	−0.05	−0.05	−0.06	0.08	0.13
Nationality	−0.10	−0.07	−0.06	−0.04	−0.02	0.01	−0.12	−0.10	0.01	0.01	−0.14 [†]	−0.11
Education	0.05	0.04	0.10	0.09	0.02	0.01	−0.10	−0.10	−0.02	−0.02	0.02	0.01
Gender	0.13 [†]	0.15 [†]	0.09	0.10	0.06	0.08	0.08	0.09	−0.18 [†]	−0.18 [†]	0.02	0.03
Expatriated	0.11	0.07	−0.05	−0.08	−0.03	0.07	−0.05	−0.08	0.15 [†]	0.15 [†]	0.04	0.01
F	1.37	3.45***	0.57	2.49**	0.49	3.75***	1.24	2.52**	1.99 [†]	1.76 [†]	0.74	2.66***
ΔF		2.08		1.91		3.26		1.28		−0.23		1.92
R ²	0.06	0.16	0.03	0.12	0.05	0.15	0.06	0.12	0.09	0.09	0.03	0.13
ΔR ²		0.10		0.09		0.10		0.06		0.00		0.10

Constant effects are included, but not reported. Numbers represent the standardized regression weight of the independent variables. $n = 190$.

[†] $p < 0.10$.

* $p < 0.05$.

** $p < 0.01$.

*** $p < 0.001$.

control variables did not impact the results for the five significant relationships, the global leader's position was significantly associated to the "providing individualized support" component (Table A1).

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