5-2021

Want more positive outcomes? Leader cultural intelligence and the facilitation of a quality feedback environment

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quality feedback environment

by

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A dissertation submitted to the
College of Psychology and Liberal Arts at
Florida Institute of Technology
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Industrial/Organizational Psychology

Melbourne, Florida
May, 2021

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Abstract

Title: Want more positive outcomes? Leader cultural intelligence and the facilitation of a quality feedback environment

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The world continues to change, forcing organizational leaders to adapt (House et al., 2014). Leaders with the ability to adapt to a cultural situation that involves people from diverse cultures, otherwise known as culturally intelligent leaders, are predicted to be the most successful in this ever-changing environment (Earley & Ang, 2003; Ang, et. al., 2007). With diversity increasing, (Olson, Green, & Hill, 2008), feedback can no longer be delivered in a "one size fits all" manner (Earley, 1986; Earley & Stubbledine, 1989). Leaders who prioritize being culturally intelligent should contribute to the creation of feedback environments that are personalized and comfortable for employees. Whether a leader and employee are from a loose versus tight culture, or whether that society is more or less accepting of noncompliance related to societal norms (Gelfand, Nishii, & Raver, 2006; Gelfand et al., 2011), is likely to impact the effect a leader's cultural intelligence has on the feedback environment created. Results indicated that perceptions of leader cultural intelligence were significantly associated with the feedback environment created, with tightness and looseness of culture moderating this relationship. The interaction showed that leaders who were perceived as culturally intelligent, and from loose cultures, facilitated the best quality feedback environments. There was less variance in the feedback environments created by leaders in tight cultures (i.e., India) than loose cultures

(i.e., America). Feedback environment was significantly related to trust in leaders, with

trust significantly mediating the relationship between feedback environment and

engagement, feedback seeking, and perceptions of coaching relationship.

Keywords. Perceptions of leader cultural intelligence, feedback environment, tightness
and looseness of culture, trust in the leader, employee engagement, feedback seeking,
perceptions of a quality coaching relationship.

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Acknowledgement

Thank you to my doctoral advisor, Dr. Lisa Steelman, for her unwavering guidance throughout the course of my Ph.D.

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A sincere thank you to my fiancé, Jake, for his endless support through not only my dissertation and Ph.D., but through the ups and downs of everyday life.

Chapter 1

Want more positive employee outcomes? Leader cultural intelligence and the facilitation of a quality feedback environment

"*To succeed in this complex business environment, leaders will need to adopt a set of characteristics and traits that enable them to move fluidly across cultures*" (House et al., 2014, p. 1).

As the business environment continues to increase in complexity, it is imperative that leaders establish the ability to navigate and interact effectively with people from a wide variety of countries and cultures (House et al., 2014). One factor that may enhance a leader's ability to work effectively with diverse employees is cultural intelligence (Rockstuhl, et al., 2011). A leader's cultural intelligence is concerned with the leader's ability to function effectively in cultural situations (Early & Ang, 2003). With increasing amounts of collaboration consistently happening around the world, cultural intelligence is becoming even more important for success in today's modern business world (Randstad, 2020). Researchers are also curious as to why some people function more effectively in cultural situations than others (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007).

Providing feedback is a critical competency for leaders. Feedback is a method for leaders to communicate what and why certain behaviors are desired within the work context. Feedback helps employees develop an action plan that will enable them to reach their desired goal-directed and organizational behaviors (Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003). Due to an increasingly diverse workforce, leaders are now tasked with providing performance feedback to employees from diverse cultures, demonstrating the feedback interaction itself can be a cultural situation. With the increasing amount of cultural feedback interactions, leaders can no longer implement the same performance feedback

strategy for all employees (Earley, 1986; Earley, 1989), suggesting a serious need for a more individually personalized feedback approach. Leaders working with employees who are from diverse cultures can be more effective if they personalize feedback environments, or the informal contextual features related to the feedback interaction (Steelman, Levy, & Snell, 2004). The feedback environment is made up of seven dimensions, which includes the (1) credibility of the person giving the feedback, (2) feedback quality, (3) the way the feedback is delivered, (4) favorable feedback, (5) unfavorable feedback, (6) the availability of the person giving the feedback, and (7) the promotion of employee feedback seeking (Steelman et al., 2004).

In addition, the increased diversity of values in a multicultural work environment exacerbates the complexity of feedback interactions. Since a workplace feedback interaction is a performance related conversation between a leader and employee, understandably communication styles play a large role. Not surprisingly, cultural values impact the manner in which employees communicate, process, and perceive the communications that happen around them (Moukarzel & Steelman, 2015). For example, employees from interdependent cultures (e.g., Ethiopia) view context as a combination of the person and their environment, meaning these individuals expect communications to occur more indirectly (Hall, 1976), suggesting clear implications on the feedback interaction. These individuals view the environment as controlling the people who work in it (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998), and may not be as open to the idea of feedback. On the other hand, individuals from independent cultures (e.g., United Kingdom) view the individual and environment as two individual entities, indicating that people have control over their environment (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998),

with these people expecting direct communications (Hall, 1976), and potentially being more open to the idea of feedback because it is something that will help employees improve.

As indicated above, people from particular cultures expect communications to occur in certain ways or expect the people they interact with to abide by certain cultural norms. Therefore, a critical variable when considering cross-cultural feedback interactions is tightness and looseness of culture. This variable is concerned with how acceptable it is to go against the society's norms or rules of expectations (Gelfand et al., 2006; Gelfand et al., 2011). Cultures can be tight (i.e., it is less acceptable to go against the expected norms of that culture or break the rules) or loose (i.e., it is more acceptable to go against the expected norms of that culture or break the rules) (Gelfand et al., 2006; Gelfand et al., 2011).

Trust between a leader and employee is another important factor that has received attention in this research area (Giffin, 1967). Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) note that trustworthiness involves the trustor (person trusting) and the trustee (person asking to be trusted), and is made up of three dimensions, which are (1) ability, (2) benevolence, and (3) integrity, with trust being the outcome. Ability can be thought of as whether the person being trusted has the knowledge necessary. Benevolence can be thought of as the person being trusted wanting to do the right thing for the person doing the trusting. Integrity is the moral standards the person being trusted has (Mayer et al., 1995). The dimensions of Steelman and researchers' (2004) model map well onto the dimensions of Mayer and researchers' (1995) model, suggesting that leaders who foster a favorable feedback environment might be trusted more than those who do not. In fact, trust between

a leader and employee may explain the relationship between the feedback environment created and relevant organizational outcomes (e.g., higher employee engagement at work, increased employee feedback seeking, and higher perceived quality of coaching relationships between a leader and employee).

Bringing together the literature on cross-cultural psychology and feedback processes will have both theoretical and practical contributions. Starting with contributions to research, this research will advance the knowledge on dynamics between leaders and employees. First, this study contributes to future research by investigating context in the feedback seeking processes, addressing Ashford and researcher's (2003) call for future research. Second, this research addresses perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence and relationships with feedback processes, addressing Sully de Luque and Sommer (2000)'s concerns. Third, this research will use an employee sample as opposed to expatriate samples that are usually used for cultural research, further addressing a sample limitation.

Practically speaking, if a leader can demonstrate they understand an employee's cultural background, the leader may then personalize their feedback interactions with this employee to match what the employee prefers. This would then potentially result in more effective feedback and coaching interactions within organizations. If the employee feels the leader is making more of an effort to adapt and accommodate their individualized feedback needs, generally and culturally, the employee will be more likely to place trust in their leader, and therefore, trust and accept the feedback that comes from their leader. With more employee trust in leaders, the employee is more likely to do the work to change the behaviors they are receiving performance feedback on. This sequence of

events would then emphasize the importance of leader cultural intelligence as a potential

mechanism to increase the effectiveness of feedback and coaching interactions. As a

result, organizations could hire and/or train their leaders to be more culturally intelligent.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Cultural Intelligence

It is no secret that every day the world continues to become more global, resulting in a need for more communication across countries than ever before. It is no longer uncommon to work with someone from a different culture regularly or even be responsible for leading someone from a different culture than your own. As time goes on, and the modern workplace includes more and more global interactions and collaborations, cultural intelligence continues to grow substantially in importance (Randstad, 2020).

Leaders are viewed as a tool for organizations to maintain their competitive advantage (McCall, 1998), with organizations spending large amounts of their annual budgets on leadership development (O'Leonard, 2007). From a developmental perspective, in order to be effective in global business environments, it is important for today's leaders to possess the ability to interact successfully with people from many cultures (House et al., 2014). Understandably, when interacting effectively across cultures, a leader's understanding of appropriate communication is important (Ali et al., 2003). With increasing diversity in organizations, day to day feedback interactions between a leader and an employee can be considered frequently occurring cultural situations. This study focuses on the substantial value that culturally intelligent leaders can bring to organizations, specifically related to the increased effectiveness in leader and employee feedback interactions.

Within cultural research, several terms, such as cross-cultural competence and cultural intelligence, are commonly used. To start, in the fields of psychology and

international business, someone's ability to interact effectively in cultural situations is often referred to as cross-cultural competence, or 3C (Chiu, Lonner, Matsumoto, & Ward, 2013; Matsumoto & Hwang, 2013; Johnson, Lenartowicz & Apud, 2006). Other researchers consider cross-cultural competence to be defined as the differences in people's capabilities when interacting with others from different cultures (Bernardo & Presbitero, 2017; Li, Mobley, & Kelly, 2016). Overall, much of the research on cross-cultural competence has focused on understanding what specific characteristics make a person able to function effectively in cultural situations, with this research falling under the Cognitive, Affective, Behavioral (CAB) framework (Hammer, 2015). The CAB framework focuses on determining what cognitive, affective, and behavioral characteristics allow a person to be interculturally competent, with attention paid to personal characteristics such as a person's tolerance for ambiguity, open-mindedness, and their flexibility in behaviors (Hammer, 2015).

Several frameworks have been used historically to understand the makeup of cultural competence, and in order to best understand how leaders can be culturally competent and therefore facilitate the best feedback environments for their employees, it is important to also understand the theories and models behind these constructs. To start, Hofstede's (2001) intercultural communication competence model entails three pieces, which are (1) awareness, (2) skills, and (3) knowledge. Other researchers note in order for someone to be culturally competent, they must have (1) a strong and stable personal identity, (2) possess the necessary knowledge of the culture, (3) understand the importance of emotional sensitivity within cultural interactions, (4) understand the appropriate language of that culture, (5) engage in the necessary behaviors, (6) interact

socially with people from the culture, and (7) negotiate the institutional structures of the given culture (LaFromboise et al., 1993). Surprisingly, researchers mention that actual tangible knowledge of the culture is not the most important component of cross-cultural competence, rather the person's willingness to "step outside of their comfort zone" is what truly matters (Byram, 1997).

To date, there have been several types of cultural models with each having various identifying features. First, compositional models are models that specify what makes someone culturally competent, but do not discuss the relationships among these components. Second, is co-orientational models, which focus on understanding the interactional achievement of someone having an understanding in a cultural situation. Third, are developmental models, which focus on the interactional piece as well, but more specifically the time piece that can denote stages of progression that cultural competence is likely to progress. Lastly is adaptational models, which discuss someone adapting as a main cultural outcome of interest (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). Only compositional natured theoretical models will be discussed in support of this research because these models provide lists of appropriate characteristics that could prepare someone to be successful in cultural interactions (Spitzberg & Changon, 2009), similar to identifying what skills and abilities a leader would need to be successful when interacting with an international employee during a feedback interaction.

Therefore, a commonly used and particularly relevant compositional cross-cultural model that supports this feedback research is the Intercultural Competence Components Model by Howard Hamilton, Richardson, and Shuford (1998), which details what it means for someone to be culturally competent. This model is made up of three

major sections, which are (1) attitudes, (2) knowledge, and (3) skills. Within the attitudes (e.g., motivation) section of this model, interculturally competent interactions value equality of groups, risk-taking, and the importance of cross-cultural interactions on the quality of their life. These attitude values then enhance the knowledge piece of the model. Some examples of knowledge competencies are a knowledge or awareness of yourself and your cultural identity, knowledge of the impact of differences in culture on interactions, and knowledge of the similarities and differences within and between cultures. The knowledge component of the model then informs the last portion of the model, which is skills. Skills within this model of cultural competence include the ability to self-reflect, the ability to perspective take, and the ability to communicate across cultures. Both the ability to take different perspectives and the ability to communicate across cultures effectively are important in this study, as successful implementation of these skills is essential in feedback interactions.

Another feedback relevant compositional model that supports this feedback research is the Intercultural Competence Model by Deardorff (2006). Like the Howard Hamilton et al. (1998) model, this model has several different components, describing a continued process where all components influence one another. Deardorff's (2006) Intercultural Competence Model is concerned with first, what occurs within the individual and second, what happens within the cultural interaction. At the individual level, there are several attitudes that are important, including respect, openness, and curiosity. Respect can be thought of as valuing cultures that are different than yours, while openness is not being judgmental when interacting with someone from another culture. Lastly, curiosity is thought of in this model as being able to tolerate uncertainty.

These attitudes are particularly important in the feedback context, because a leader cannot be judgmental when interacting with employees from other cultures or just in general, rather the leader must learn to understand and adapt to that employee's unique feedback preferences. Another component of Deardorff's (2006) model at the individual level is knowledge and comprehension, which includes a knowledge of your own cultural self-awareness. The last component at the individual level is skills, which includes the ability to listen, observe, and evaluate cultural situations (Deardorff, 2006). The cultural awareness knowledge piece is relevant to this study, mainly because an employee needs to feel their leader understands and cares about their specific culture when providing feedback, or else the employee will not accept the feedback as accurate or useful. These attitudes, knowledge, and skills then trigger an internal outcome that happens within the individual. This internal outcome then causes a frame of reference shift, for example, the person demonstrating the necessary adaptability within the cultural situation. The attitudes, knowledge, skills, and now internal outcome then trigger the external outcome, which is the appropriate actions within the cultural situation (Deardorff, 2006). As mentioned above, this model is relevant to this feedback study because encouraging attitudes such as respect, openness, and curiosity in leaders should lead to the appropriate cultural knowledge or intelligence. The result will be leaders changing their frame of reference when delivering necessary feedback to employees from diverse cultures, meaning the external outcome of an effective feedback interaction is more likely to happen (See Appendix A).

Both intercultural competence models indicate the ways in which cultural competence enhances a person's adaptation and adjustment (Howard Hamilton et al.,

1998; Deardorff, 2006), with both being particularly relevant in a leader's creation of a positive feedback environment. Effectively adapting and adjusting in cultural situations, such as a feedback interaction, means the person must be willing to adopt the necessary behaviors to reach their desired goals, including the facilitation of quality (e.g., warm, respectful, and collaborative) interpersonal relationships and the perception that the relationship is serving the desired purpose through the accomplishment of necessary tasks (Black & Stephens, 1989; Brislin, 1993; Gudykunst, Hammer, & Wiseman, 1977).

Understanding and facilitating leader cross-cultural competence is important because past research demonstrates the link between these cultural variables and desirable organizational outcomes, such as patient experience within the healthcare industry (Ingram, 2012), team performance (Mateev & Nelson, 2004), cultural adjustment of employees placed internationally (Templer et al., 2006), and task performance (Ang et al., 2007). Of particular relevance to this study, cultural competence is important because it allows for better communication skills (Trejo et al., 2015), with additional research showing that cross-cultural competence promotes the development of skills appropriate for interactions in other cultures (McDonald et al., 2008). Better quality and cooperative work relationships should be associated with more effective feedback interactions between leaders and their employees. Of relevance to the feedback interaction, cross-cultural competence prepares individuals to resolve conflicts in more effective ways, also demonstrating importance in workplace feedback interactions (McDonald et al., 2008).

On the other hand, the term cultural intelligence, or someone's ability to appropriately adapt to a cultural situation (Earley & Ang, 2003), is often used

interchangeably with cross-cultural competence because of their significant similarities. The cultural intelligence construct is comprised of four dimensions, which are (1) metacognitive cultural intelligence, or the manner in which a person is able to comprehend culturally related information; (2) cognitive cultural intelligence, or the general amount of cultural knowledge a person has; (3) motivational cultural intelligence, or how motivated someone feels to put forth the appropriate amount of effort when in a cultural situation; and lastly, (4) behavioral cultural intelligence, or the degree to which a person acts in an appropriate manner when in a cultural situation (Ang, Van Dyne, & Koh, 2006). Similar to the cross-cultural competence construct, the cultural intelligence construct falls under the Cognitive, Affective, Behavioral (CAB) framework, suggesting cultural intelligence is also concerned with understanding the cognitive, affective, and behavioral characteristics that permit someone to be successful in cultural situations (Hammer, 2015).

Cultural intelligence is related to a number of favorable outcomes. For instance, researchers found a link between cultural intelligence and interactional adjustment, such that participants who were more culturally intelligent, specifically on the motivational and behavioral dimensions of cultural intelligence, demonstrated more interactional adjustment compared to others who were not culturally intelligent (Ang et al., 2007). Mor, Morris, and Joh (2013) reported a relationship between cultural intelligence and intercultural cooperation, such that individuals who are more culturally intelligent were more likely to be cooperative in intercultural situations. Also, important to note, research conducted on Chinese leaders indicated that cultural intelligence was linked to the outcome of communication effectiveness (Bucker et al., 2014). Chua, Morris, and Mor

(2012) found that being culturally intelligent led to participants being more likely to share information they had with culturally diverse people. Researchers such as Imai and Gelfand (2010) link cultural intelligence with increased effective intercultural negotiation, suggesting that people with more cultural intelligence will be more effective in negotiating with people from other cultures. Intercultural negotiation skills are relevant to the feedback interactions that happen between a leader and employee, as feedback interactions in a global world can be considered cross-cultural interactions, and therefore, are most effective when each party explains their perspective and can agree on specific actions moving forward.

When looking at the cross-cultural competence and cultural intelligence constructs, there are several similarities. To start, research comparing cross-cultural competence and cultural intelligence demonstrated a strong correlation between the two constructs (Li, 2020). When analyzing the outcomes of the two constructs, cultural competence is linked to cultural adjustment of people internationally (Templer et al., 2006), while cultural intelligence is linked to interactional adjustment, indicating that both of these cultural constructs are related to adjustment outcomes of people within cultural situations. Also, cultural competence and cultural intelligence are both linked with communication outcomes. Specifically, cultural competence research shows the relationship between cultural competence and communication skills (Trejo et al., 2015), while cultural intelligence research demonstrates the relationship between cultural intelligence and communication effectiveness (Bucker et al., 2014). This suggests the general importance of communication when interacting in cultural situations, as well as the similarity between cross-cultural competence and cultural intelligence.

As mentioned, the above observations emphasize the similarity, and therefore interchangeable nature, between the constructs of cross-cultural competence and cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003). Therefore, for the sake of this research, cross-cultural competence and cultural intelligence research together provide support for the hypotheses. When discussing the literature, the terminology (cross-cultural competence or cultural intelligence) used by the original authors will be maintained. Since Ang, Van Dyne, and Koh's (2006) cultural intelligence measure was used to assess perceptions of leader's cultural intelligence in this study, the cultural intelligence conceptualization is prioritized in this research.

Feedback Environment

Feedback is a method to inform employees whether their performance meets job expectations and how to improve job performance if needed (Ashford et al., 2003). Based on Ashford and researchers' (2003) definition of feedback, feedback is an organizational tool that can be used to assist employees in meeting work goals and subsequently improving work performance. Organizations value job performance feedback because it is a way to ensure employees are continually striving to meet organizational goals, as well as developing their skills and competencies (Hyland, 1988). Feedback within the work context can come from many sources (e.g., leader, coworkers, self, etc.) (Ashford & Tsui, 1991), but most commonly comes from the employee's supervisor or leader. Though feedback processes should be a top priority on organizations' minds, feedback is not given the attention it deserves, and as a result, it is not well understood. In fact, a study conducted by Kluger and DeNisi (1996) demonstrated, on average, feedback had a moderately positive effect on performance, but more than 30% of feedback interventions

had a negative effect on performance (Barton & Worlery, 2007; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). When delivering performance feedback, a leader's intentions are to increase employee performance, but Kluger and DeNisi's (1996) results demonstrate the relationship is not that simple, suggesting the influence of additional work-related variables. One of the most important additional variables is the culture or climate for feedback (London & Smither, 2002).

The feedback environment is a broad conceptualization of an organization's feedback climate, with feedback environment being defined as the informal contextual components influencing the feedback process on a day-to-day basis (Steelman et al., 2004). Feedback environments can be created by the organization or an individual within an organization, such as the leader (Dahling & O'Malley, 2011; Steelman, et al., 2004). Organizational feedback environments are considered the environment an organization creates centered around the giving and receiving of feedback (Dahling & O'Malley, 2011; London, 2003). London (2003) notes organizations can foster "global psychological settings or cultures" that are feedback oriented, providing employees with better quality feedback in an environment that is conducive to giving and using feedback. The facilitation of a culture that is feedback friendly entails the promotion of learning, developing trust with employees, and authenticity in feedback interactions (Baker et al., 2013). Ensuring employees understand the organization's expectations of them is an important piece contributing to the overall feedback environment (Dahling & O'Malley, 2011).

Organizations should devote considerable attention to the kind of feedback environments their leaders create, because quality feedback environments are linked to

several relevant organizational outcomes. For example, Norris-Watts and Levy (2004) demonstrated that the feedback environment enhanced organizational citizenship behaviors through affective commitment. Furthermore, if employees feel the feedback interaction went well, and the environment was conducive for receiving quality feedback, the employee is more likely to seek out more feedback in the future (Williams et al., 1999). Research reveals feedback is also linked to other desired organizational outcomes, such as employee engagement (Mone & London, 2010), further justifying why an understanding of feedback should be a top priority for organizations. Rosen, Levy, and Hall (2006) conducted a study looking at how the feedback environment influences the perceptions that politics are present within the organization. Organizational politics can be viewed as unfavorable employee behaviors that serve the employee, with limited contribution to the greater good of the organization (Ferris, et al., 2002). Political behavior within organizations is seen as disadvantageous, particularly resulting in lower levels of employee job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors, and performance (Cropanzano, et al., 1997; Ferris et al., 1996). Rosen et al. (2006) demonstrated that a favorable feedback environment can reduce the perception of organizational politics and subsequently enhance employee morale, further exhibiting the utility of a favorable feedback environment. Because a feedback interaction typically involves both the leader and employee (Duarte, Goodson, & Klich, 1994), an effective feedback environment is also likely to enhance the relationship quality (LMX) between the leader and employee (Anseel & Lievens, 2007).

Steelman et al. (2004) conceptualize the feedback environment as including seven different dimensions, with each of these dimensions influencing the overall environment

in unique ways. This conceptualization of the feedback environment has both a supervisor and a coworker source, because as mentioned, employees can receive feedback from many sources (e.g., supervisor/leader, coworkers, self, etc.) (Greller, 1980). Within both the supervisor and coworker source are the seven dimensions of the feedback environment (Steelman et al., 2004). Dimensions of the feedback environment are (1) source credibility, (2) feedback quality, (3) feedback delivery, (4) favorable feedback, (5) unfavorable feedback, (6) source availability, and (7) the promotion of feedback-seeking.

First, source credibility can be defined as the feedback source's competence, specifically how much the person receiving the feedback trusts that the person delivering the feedback is competent on the subject matter (Giffin, 1967). Second, feedback quality is concerned with aspects of the feedback itself, specifically that the feedback is consistent and specific (Greller, 1980). Third, feedback delivery is related to how the person delivers the feedback, particularly if the feedback is delivered in a considerate way. Research notes that the person receiving the feedback must believe that the person delivering the feedback has good intentions in order to incur positive reactions (Fedor, Edor, & Buckley, 1989). Fourth, favorable feedback can be thought of as the presence of positive feedback, with positive feedback entailing compliments that are thought to be deserved. Fifth, the unfavorable feedback dimension can be thought of as the presence of negative feedback, with negative feedback entailing feedback of a critical nature, which again, is thought to be deserved. Sixth, source availability is concerned with how available the person delivering the feedback is. Since a formal review of performance may only be conducted one time per year (Meyer, 1991), feedback sources must be

available enough to provide employees with informal and regular feedback when

necessary (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). Lastly, the promotes feedback seeking

dimension of the feedback environment is concerned with how leaders encourage

employees to seek out feedback information (Williams, et al., 1999). Complicating the

feedback process is the idea that most employees desire regular feedback but are

apprehensive to actually seek the feedback out (Ashford, 1989; Levy, et al., 1995). A

better-quality, more favorable, feedback environment could assist with employees'

comfort level when attempting to seek out performance feedback (Steelman et al., 2004).

The organizational feedback environment is thought of as an aggregated view of

the feedback environment in general, while the supervisor/leader feedback environment

is viewed at the individual level (Dahling & O'Malley, 2011; Steelman et al., 2004).

Supervisors, or leaders, may enact different feedback environments based on their

personal preferences, interaction styles, and individual differences. One individual

difference that may impact the feedback environment is leader cultural intelligence.

Leaders who are perceived to be culturally intelligent may be able to adapt and adjust the

feedback environment to what is needed by their employees. In other words, culturally

intelligent leaders are likely able to understand, prioritize, and create feedback

environments that are personalized to the needs of individual employees.

Individuals, or employees, raised in different cultures have diverse cultural values

and communication styles suggesting feedback processes within the workplace cannot be

treated as universal (Earley, 1986; Earley, 1989). The intercultural competence models of

both Howard Hamilton et al. (1998) and Deardorff (2006) demonstrate if leaders can

show they have the necessary attitudes, knowledge, and skills, they will be better

prepared to handle intercultural interactions, including a feedback interaction, with an employee from another country or with cultural values that do not align with their own. The specific skills relevant to the feedback interaction mentioned in these two intercultural competence models are skills in communication, interpersonal skills, as well as relationship building skills. These types of skills should be closely linked to a leader's ability to foster a favorable feedback environment. To explain, leaders who are perceived to be culturally intelligent should promote more favorable and personalized feedback environments for their employees through their interpersonal and relationship building skills and communication skills.

A leader having cultural intelligence should approach a feedback interaction with sensitivity and understanding. Leaders with strong cultural intelligence should be able to adjust to interpersonal differences, and thus, develop more favorable interpersonal relationships and provide feedback in a more culturally intelligent manner. Sully de Luque and Sommer (2000) suggest cultural values impact the type of feedback employees want and seek out. For instance, employees shaped by an individualistic culture may appreciate and seek out direct, individual-level feedback, whereas employees shaped by a collectivistic culture may appreciate and seek out feedback that is more indirect and emphasizes the group over the individual. As another example, a culturally intelligent leader would approach a feedback interaction with someone from a high-power distance culture already knowing this person may be responsive to leader feedback, but unlikely to seek feedback from their leader because of the fear of damaging their self-presentation (Moukarzel & Steelman, 2015). Moukarzel and Steelman (2015) argue that to effectively manage multicultural teams, leaders need to recognize

underlying cultural norms related to communication and feedback and leverage them in ways that foster the effective provision and use of feedback for all employees. In other words, effective leaders in multicultural settings need to have cultural intelligence to promote favorable feedback environments.

Hypothesis 1: Perceptions of leader cultural intelligence will be positively associated with the feedback environment as rated by employees.

Feedback Orientation

Another relevant variable to the feedback interaction is the leader's feedback orientation; specifically, the leader's opinion about the value of receiving feedback at work (London & Smither, 2002). The need for organizations to emphasize a better understanding of the construct of feedback orientation stems from the idea that feedback orientation has been linked to important individual level and organizational level outcomes. Feedback orientation relates to individual level constructs such as openness to experience, self-monitoring (London & Smither, 2002), feedback acceptance (Rutkowski, Steelman, & Griffith, 2004), learning goal orientation (Linderbaum & Levy, 2010), and increased receptivity to coaching (Steelman & Wolfeld, 2018). Organizationally, feedback orientation has been linked to training success (Gregory & Levy, 2008; 2012), quality feedback environments (Dahling et al., 2012), and employee development (Linderbaum & Levy, 2007). Feedback orientation encourages people to continually learn, such that feedback orientation can facilitate a positive learning culture at the organizational level (Sessa & London, 2006). Also important, a study conducted by Rasheed et al. (2015) found there was a direct relationship between certain dimensions of feedback orientation (e.g., utility, accountability, feedback self-efficacy, and social

awareness) and in-role job performance, signifying someone's feedback orientation can directly impact their performance on the job.

The feedback orientation construct is thought to be comprised of multiple dimensions (London, 2003), which collectively determine the person's feedback orientation. Historically, there are two commonly accepted conceptualizations of the dimensions that make up someone's feedback orientation, those of London and Smither (2002) and Linderbaum and Levy (2010). London and Smither (2002) discuss feedback orientation as being made up of six dimensions, including (1) liking feedback, (2) wanting to seek out feedback when necessary, (3) possessing the ability to process the feedback in a mindful manner, (4) having self-awareness regarding how others feel about you, (5) understanding the importance of feedback, and (6) feeling accountable to act on any feedback received (London & Smither, 2002). On the other hand, Linderbaum and Levy (2010) developed a measure of feedback orientation, the Feedback Orientation Scale (FOS), based on four theoretically derived dimensions, which are (1) utility, (2) accountability, (3) social awareness, and (4) feedback self-efficacy. Utility refers to the idea that the person receiving the feedback believes the feedback will lead to positive outcomes (Linderbaum & Levy, 2010). The accountability dimension entails the person receiving the feedback feeling as if they should act on the feedback in some way. The social awareness dimension addresses how the person receiving the feedback can use the feedback to better understand how their colleagues view them professionally. The feedback self-efficacy dimension states that the person believes they can understand and process the feedback however necessary (Linderbaum & Levy, 2010). For the sake of this research, Linderbaum and Levy's (2010) feedback orientation definition will be used, as

the Feedback Orientation Scale (FOS) developed in line with this definition has

appropriate psychometric properties allowing researchers to properly measure leader

feedback orientation. Feedback orientation can be thought of as on a continuum of high

to low, with organizations wanting employees to have high feedback orientations,

because that means these employees are highly receptive to performance feedback and

value learning how to improve their work performance (London & Smither, 2002).

For organizations to be able to understand feedback orientation, it is important to

first understand more holistically the construct of feedback orientation within feedback

processes. London and Smither's (2002) theoretical model outlines how feedback

orientation plays a role in the feedback process; specifically, the way someone receives,

processes, and uses feedback for performance management. The performance

management cycle is thought of as a process that could span weeks or months, with the

main piece of the performance management process being whether someone receives and

uses the feedback depending on their feedback orientation. To start, during the time the

person is receiving feedback, their feedback orientation can impact whether the person

has a positive or negative affective reaction to the feedback (London & Smither, 2002).

In this stage of the performance management process, the person's thoughts about

themselves and their environment influence how they will react to the feedback (DeNisi,

Cafferty, & Meglino, 1984). Second, during the feedback processing stage of the

performance management process, feedback orientation can impact whether the person

accepts or rejects the provided feedback (London & Smither, 2002). In this stage of the

process, the person attempts to understand what the feedback means and how it can help

improve performance (London & Smither, 2002). Third, feedback orientation can

influence how the person takes advantage of the feedback to strive toward their goals (London & Smither, 2002). This stage of the performance management process is best understood because of Locke and Latham's (1990) goal setting theory, with internal and external components influencing this stage. Internal components include the person's feedback orientation, as mentioned earlier, while external components can be the feedback culture or environment within which the person received the feedback (London & Smither, 2002).

As indicated by London and Smither's (2002) theory outlining the longitudinal nature of the performance management process, feedback orientation and feedback environment are linked. In line with the person environment interactional theory perspective, this theory suggests both the individual (i.e., feedback orientation) and the environment (i.e., feedback environment) influence the success of the performance management process (London & Smither, 2002). It is clear high feedback orientations are desirable, with researchers mentioning that feedback orientation can be trained. This suggests if employees or leaders within an organization do not initially have the desired levels of feedback orientation, training can be implemented to help improve this (London & Smither, 2002).

To date, majority of the feedback orientation literature looks at the feedback recipient's feedback orientation, largely ignoring the feedback orientation of the feedback source (i.e., the leader). Research conducted by Steelman and Wolfeld (2018) addressed this gap in their research by looking at a manager's feedback orientation and how this influenced the coaching process. The idea was that managers with a higher feedback orientation, who are more receptive to feedback, will place more emphasis on feedback

and coaching with employees because they valued feedback for themselves. Results

indicated the managers who possessed higher feedback orientations facilitated a more

favorable feedback environment and were viewed as better coaches by employees.

Manager feedback orientation and employee feedback orientation were found to be

linked, with the manager's coaching effectiveness explaining this relationship (Steelman

& Wolfeld, 2018).

Research directly linking cultural intelligence and feedback orientation is limited.

Although, intercultural competence models (e.g., Howard Hamilton et al., (1998) and

Deardorff (2006)) suggest if leaders can show they have the necessary attitudes,

knowledge, and skills, they will be better prepared to handle intercultural interactions,

such as a cultural feedback interaction. To explain, culturally intelligent leaders should

have feedback relevant skills, such as communication, interpersonal skills, as well as

relationship building skills, with these skills likely being closely tied to a leader's ability

to foster a favorable feedback environment. This is because leaders who are culturally

intelligent may be able to promote more personalized feedback environments for their

employees through their interpersonal, relationship building, and communication skills.

In addition to the theoretical foundation supporting the link between leader cultural

intelligence and favorable feedback environments, past research supports the linkage

between feedback environment and feedback orientation (London & Smither, 2002). For

instance, in order to have the best quality feedback environment, leaders should have

both cultural intelligence and value feedback (i.e., a high feedback orientation). In both

general and cultural feedback interactions, because of the feedback relevant skills

mentioned above, leaders who have a high feedback orientation, or positive opinion of

feedback processes, are expected to have a stronger relationship between perceptions of cultural intelligence and the feedback environment they foster.

Hypothesis 2: Feedback orientation will moderate the relationship between perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence and the feedback environment created, such that the relationship will be stronger for leaders with higher feedback orientation.

Tightness and Looseness of Culture

Researchers know cultures vary in their views on social norms as well as the ways the people of the culture adhere to these social norms, which as a result impacts individual level employee and organizational level behaviors (Pelto, 1968; Triandis, 1989). The construct of tightness and looseness of culture originated as an attempt to better understand the variation in how cultures follow the norms of their society (Gelfand et al., 2011). Research indicates tightness and looseness of culture is comprised of two main dimensions, which are (1) how clear the norms are within a society, and (2) the amount of tolerance there is when people do not follow those norms (Gelfand et al., 2006). A norm is defined as a person's perceptions regarding what is normal in that society for that given context (Leung & Morris, 2015). Cultures that are tight tend to have less variation in their attitudes and are less forgiving when people do not follow the established rules of the society (e.g., India, Japan, South Korea), while loose cultures tend to have more variation in their attitudes toward what is "normal" and are more forgiving when people disobey the established rules of the society (e.g., United States, Australia, Netherlands) (Gelfand et al., 2006; Gelfand et al., 2011; Triandis, 1989; Carpenter, 2000). The emphasis on understanding a culture's tightness and looseness stems from the idea that past research demonstrates that tightness and looseness of culture is linked to

important organizational outcomes piquing the interest of workplace researchers, for

example, negotiation outcomes (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010; Guinia et al., 2011) and

job satisfaction of expatriates (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010; Peltokorpi & Froese,

2014).

Researchers believe countries that are loose are historically that way because they

have faced little hardship forcing them to follow strict rules and work together towards a

common goal (Gelfand, 2020). A recent editorial by the top researcher in this research

field indicated countries with loose cultures, and little emphasis on following the rules,

are at even more risk when an uncontrollable crisis such as the coronavirus (COVID-19)

pandemic hits their countries. Tighter cultures, that emphasize organization and order, are

found to have the most effective strategies in mitigating the effects of the coronavirus

pandemic on their countries (Gelfand, 2020). Gelfand (2020) suggests that for loose

countries (e.g., the United States, Italy, etc.) to minimize the detriment of the coronavirus

pandemic, a shift in culture would be necessary.

In order to best understand the impact tightness and looseness of culture has on

organizations and feedback processes, it is important to also understand the how and why

behind tight and loose cultures becoming the way they are. The strength of social norms

within a culture is partially determined by the practices of that culture; specifically,

tighter cultures tend to have more narrow practices, and as a result a tight or inflexible

understanding of what is acceptable within that culture, whereas looser cultures tend to

have a wider and more flexible range of practices, and as a result a wider range of what is

acceptable within that culture (Gelfand et al., 2011; Triandis, 1972). For example, in tight

societies, parents are more likely to expect their children to strictly comply with the

society's pre-established rules, but in looser cultures or societies parents may be more lenient with their children if they do not completely comply with the society's rules or norms (Gelfand et al., 2006).

Therefore, tightness and looseness of culture involves the flexibility in the ways in which societies and cultures follow norms (Pelto, 1968), which has implications for how people behave during the workday. The felt accountability of people, specifically leaders, currently in tight versus loose cultures is an important aspect to consider. For example, leaders who are currently working in tighter cultures may feel obligated to adhere to the specific restricted norms of their culture, which may lead them to believe there is a narrower and more restricted range of appropriate feedback related behaviors to engage in with employees. On the other hand, leaders currently working in loose cultures may have a broader range of appropriate feedback related behaviors they are permitted to engage in with employees, therefore, showing potentially less conformity.

From a decision- making perspective, tightness looseness of culture is likely to impact the way people of certain cultures process and evaluate information when attempting to solve a problem (Gelfand et al., 2006; Kirton, 1976). Adaptor decision-makers favor the development of solutions to issues through the use of procedures and are more cautious and efficient in their decision-making approach, with this decision-making style likely having prevalence in tighter cultures where there is more felt accountability and consequences if you break the rules (Gelfand et al., 2006; Kirton, 1976; Kirton & Baily, 1991). On the other hand, innovator decision-makers push the boundaries when it comes to predetermined procedures and tend to look for solutions to issues without considering these predetermined procedures so much. Innovator decision-

makers are thought to be more prevalent among loose cultures and are more the risk takers (Kirton, 1976; Kirton & Baily, 1991). This discussion implies that leaders who have more innovator decision making styles, and are in looser cultures, may demonstrate more flexibility in regard to their communication style, and therefore, be more likely to be able to easily adjust their communication (i.e., feedback environment) to meet the needs of the specific person or situation. On the other hand, someone working in a tighter culture may not have this flexibility regarding their communication style, and thus, prefer to adhere to the already predetermined norms for communication and feedback.

As a result, this study predicts that perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence will have a stronger and more positive impact on the feedback environment in societies that are looser in nature, as opposed to tighter cultures. As research indicates, looser cultures tend to be more flexible in the way they approach following the norms of the society (Gelfand et al., 2011), potentially impacting the degree of positive influence culturally intelligent leaders can have when attempting to create positive feedback environments. Cultural intelligence involves "keeping an open mind" and having a general understanding and awareness of cultures other than your own to then adapt and adjust subsequent behaviors (Hancock et al., 2007), with looser cultures being more variable in the behaviors deemed acceptable and having a less pronounced cultural strength (Gelfand et al., 2006). Therefore, because of this flexibility, looser cultures are likely to have a greater opportunity to benefit from a leader who is culturally intelligent, and more specifically as a result, foster a better-quality feedback environment.

Hypothesis 3: Tightness and looseness of culture will moderate the relationship between perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence and the feedback environment created.

Looser cultures (i.e., the employees in this study from the United States) will demonstrate a stronger positive relationship between the employee rated leader's cultural intelligence and the feedback environment created for employees when compared to tighter cultures (i.e., the employees in this study from India).

As discussed, there are differences regarding the amount of variation in behavior across people of certain cultures, depending on if that culture is a tight versus loose culture. Cultures where the norms are stricter with clearer guidelines as to how people should behave are likely to have less variation and instead share many common experiences with one another. In cultures where the norms are looser, or there is more room for variation in behavior and there are less strict consequences for someone who behaves contrary to the norm, there is more likelihood that people of that society will instead experience what are called idiosyncratic experiences, or experiences that tend to be specific to that person (Gelfand et al., 2006; House, Rousseau & Thomas-Hunt, 1995; Strauss & Quinn, 1997). This variation in behavior related to the tightness and looseness of culture is likely to have implications for the range of behaviors used in feedback interactions between leaders and employees from tight cultures (i.e., India) versus loose culture (i.e., United States).

Hypothesis 4: There will be less variance in the feedback environment created by leaders in tight cultures (i.e., the Indian sample in this study) when compared to loose cultures (i.e., the American sample in this study).

Trust

Trust, or the expectations someone has of someone else to follow through on their word or promise (Rotter, 1967), between a leader and employee is an important feature of

successful workplace interactions (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Past research notes

disagreements regarding the dimensions that make up the construct of trust, help

contribute to the achievement of trust, and the outcomes that are linked to trust (Cook &

Wall, 1980). Trust involves multiple people, with one person participating in something

because of something another says they will do (McAllister, 1995). Some researchers say

for trust to be involved, the person must have something invested in the situation, or be

taking a risk when trusting the other person (Deutsch, 1958; Johnson-George and Swap,

1982). Important to note, and contributing to the confusion surrounding the trust

construct, several definitions of trust require the concept of risk (Deutsch, 1958; Johnson-

George & Swap, 1982), while others do not mention risk at all (McAllister, 1995).

Trust in leadership, or employees trusting their leaders, is critical in the success of

leaders (Dirks & Sharlicki, 2004; Dirks, 1999), because the employee must believe what

the leader says is consistent with their actions (Clutterbuck & Hirst, 2002). The

importance of trust is expected to grow in the workplace, specifically with the

introduction and continuation of increased amounts of diversity (Jackson & Alvarez,

1992). Increased workplace diversity implies employees cannot simply rely on trust

derived from leader and employee similarity (Berscheid & Walster, 1978). Problems

arise if leaders do not keep promises made to employees, introducing mistrust between a

leader and employee (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). However important organizationally,

unfortunately, trust is often not given the attention it deserves, though trust is correlated

with other valued organizational outcomes. For instance, high amounts of trust between

two individuals in the workplace can lead to more employee engagement (Deluga, 1994),

more organizational commitment from employees (Hosmer, 1995), and overall, more

employee productivity (Fairholm, 1994). A meta-analysis conducted by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) demonstrated trust in leadership is linked to organizational performance, job satisfaction, and job attitudes such as turnover intentions.

In order to best understand how to facilitate trust between leaders and employees during feedback and performance management processes, it is important to understand the foundational theories underlying the construct of trust. Historically, a popular but general theory that can be applied to the leader and employee relationship is social exchange theory (Whitener et al., 1998), suggesting interpersonal interactions involve reciprocal obligations (Emerson, 1976). Social exchange theory is also concerned with how leaders can facilitate more employee engagement through the obtainment of employee trust (Mayer et al., 2009). Social exchange theory is one of the oldest and most popular theories aimed at explaining organizational behavior (Malinowski, 1922), and this theory integrates many disciplines such as anthropology, sociology, and social psychology (Firth, 1967; Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Social exchange theory is concerned with shared reciprocity between the leader and employee (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005); employees will work harder for their leader when the employee feels that leader is understanding and cares about them (Mayer et al., 2009). Social exchange theory is the broader theory that encompasses the dynamics that happen between two people, but Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman's (1995) trust model provides more specific details about how a leader can gain trust from their employees within organizations. This is the model used to support this research study because it focuses on the idea that there are two people involved in a relationship, which are the trustor and the trustee. The trustor is the person doing the trusting, while the trustee is the person being trusted

(Mayer et al., 1995). Trust can go both ways between a leader and employee, but in a typical leader-employee feedback interaction situation, the trustor would be the employee, while the trustee would be the leader. Therefore, for the sake of this research, trust will only be investigated in that direction.

Specific to the trustor, the employee in a feedback interaction, is the notion that there are individual differences in trusting. For example, propensity to trust can be thought of as the idea that some people are more willing to trust than others. There can be cultural differences in propensity to trust, such that some cultures are less willing to trust another person than other cultures (e.g., Pakistan, Brazil) (Hofstede, 1980), which could then translate to some employees who are more willing to trust what their leaders say during feedback interactions than others. Next, characteristics of the trustee, or leader in the feedback interaction, must be considered. Due to the risk necessary in a trusting situation, the trustor often must be concerned with the trustworthiness of the other person (Ring & Van de Ven, 1992). Debate has revolved around what contributes to a person being perceived as trustworthy, with researchers noting there are three main components, which are (1) ability, (2) benevolence, and (3) integrity. The first dimension, ability, can be thought of as the competencies of the person asking to be trusted (Mayer et al., 1995). The second dimension, benevolence, is concerned with the extent the trustee wants to do the right thing when it comes to the trustor, demonstrating there is a relationship between the trustee and the trustor (Mayer et al., 1995). The third and last dimension is integrity, which can be thought of as the idea that the trustor believes the trustee has a set of acceptable moral guidelines the trustee follows (Mayer et al., 1995). If the leader can demonstrate to the employee that they as a leader possess these three dimensions, the

leader is more likely to be perceived as trustworthy, and subsequently, gain the

employee's trust (Mayer et al., 1995).

Due to the various dimensions of the feedback environment that reflect or signal

different elements of trust between a leader and employee, Steelman et al.'s (2004)

feedback environment dimensions can be mapped onto Mayer et al.'s (1995) dimensions

of trust (See Appendix B). The source credibility dimension of the feedback environment,

specifically how experienced the person delivering the feedback is, can be related to the

ability component of the model of trust. This is because both the ability dimension of

trust and the source credibility dimension of feedback environment are concerned with

competence.

Several dimensions of the feedback environment may be associated with the

benevolence component of the trust model, because this component of the trust model is

concerned with wanting to do the right thing and being respectful when doing it.

Specifically, the feedback delivery dimension, the source availability dimension, and the

promoting feedback seeking dimension of the feedback environment may all be

associated with benevolence. As mentioned, all three of these feedback environment

dimensions are concerned with being respectful, particularly having good intentions

when delivering feedback, going out of your way to be available when an employee

needs feedback, and encouraging employees to continue to seek feedback on tasks they

need more guidance on.

Lastly, several dimensions from the feedback environment may be associated

with the last dimension of the trust model, integrity. Integrity is concerned with

upholding a moral code; therefore, the feedback quality, favorable feedback, and

unfavorable feedback dimensions coincide with this trust dimension. To summarize, because dimensions of the feedback environment signal elements of trust, and the feedback environment dimensions overlap with the trust dimensions, this suggests that employees first experience a quality feedback environment and then comes trust. More specifically, when employees perceive a favorable feedback environment, they are more likely to, as a result, trust their leader. A leader providing employees with a more favorable feedback environment is thought to foster more trust in the leader per social exchange theory. In other words, when a leader shows they are doing something good for their employees, such as creating a quality feedback environment, the employees are more likely to then reciprocate that leader effort by placing trust in their leader, suggesting a favorable feedback environment should be associated with perceptions of ability, benevolence and integrity. Unfavorable feedback environment is unlikely to trigger perceptions of ability, benevolence, and integrity, and thus, less likely to be related to trust in supervisor.

Hypothesis 5: The feedback environment will be positively related to trust in leader.

Employee Engagement

Researchers note employee engagement may be a strategy that organizations can use to remain competitive in a globalized economy (Erikson, 2005). The definition of engagement has been debated by researchers for years. For example, some say engagement should be called job engagement (Rich et al., 2010), some say it should be called employee engagement, and others say engagement should be known as work engagement (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2011). Since this study is concerned with the dynamics between a leader and an employee, particularly how a leader can facilitate a

better environment for employees, engagement will be conceptualized as employee engagement.

Historically in the past, engagement researchers debated what is meant theoretically by this idea of an employee being engaged. Researchers discussed whether engagement should be considered a trait a person has, a psychological state, or a behavior (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Macey and Schneider (2008) address this concern by providing an integrative framework that considers all three definitions of engagement, and how each definition builds on the other. This framework views engagement as a trait, more specifically someone who looks at their life and work in an optimistic way, which then is reflected in the consequence of state engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008). The framework views state engagement as someone who often demonstrates large amounts of energy within their job role, which then can be thought of as what happens before the behavioral components of engagement are demonstrated (Macey & Schneider, 2008). The framework defines engagement behaviorally as someone who demonstrates extra-role behaviors when at work (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Towers-Perrin, 2003).

Kahn (1990)'s ethnographic study defined employee engagement as a state, such that the construct is seen as the extent an employee is able to take advantage of their resources (e.g., cognitive resources, emotional resources, and physical resources, etc.) in order to complete their job effectively (Kahn, 1990). Kahn suggested there are three work-related psychological conditions that drive employee engagement, which are (1) psychological safety, (2) psychological availability, and (3) psychological meaningfulness. First, psychological safety refers to the idea that the employee feels there are regular supportive interactions happening within their work environment (Bakker &

Demerouti, 2007; Kahn, 1990). Second, psychological availability refers to the resources

the employee has available psychologically to support their job (Hallberg & Schaufeli,

2006; Kahn, 1990). Third, psychological meaningfulness occurs when the employee

views the work they do as important (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Kahn, 1990). Kahn's

(1990) resulting definition of employee engagement is the extent employees can

completely devote their resources (e.g., cognitive, emotional, physical, etc.) to their job.

Another state definition of engagement was introduced simply as an employee

having "a high internal motivational state" (Colbert et al., 2004). An additional state

engagement definition views engagement as the opposite of job burnout, noting that

burnout can be thought of as the "erosion of engagement with one's job" (Maslach,

Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). According to this definitional stance, employee engagement is

defined as a lively sense of fulfillment when performing tasks necessary for one's job

(Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Maslach and Leiter (2008) state that employee engagement is comprised of three

dimensions, which are (1) energy, (2) involvement, and (3) efficacy. These three

dimensions of employee engagement are conceptually the exact opposite of the burnout

dimensions, which are (1) exhaustion, (2) cynicism, and (3) inefficacy (Maslach & Leiter,

2008). This stance is aligned with the statement that the emotional exhaustion and

cynicism dimensions of burnout are the exact opposite of the vigor and dedication

dimensions of employee engagement (Gonzalez-Roma et al., 2006).

As an extension of Maslach and Leiter's (2008) argument, some researchers note

engagement and burnout are two independent constructs, but are still opposites (Schaufeli

et al., 2002). Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) definition of engagement is used as support in this

research. These researchers note engagement is comprised of three main dimensions, which are (1) vigor, (2) dedication, and (3) absorption. Vigor refers to having high energy levels at work, dedication means the employee is enthusiastic and excited about their work, and absorption means the employee can focus on their work. This particular definition is used to support this research because it is in line with the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), developed by Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006), that is used to measure employee engagement in this research. Also, this study focuses on a state definition of engagement, as opposed to trait, because trait engagement is less likely to be positively influenced by a leader.

Theoretically, when trying to understand what organizations need to do to achieve engaged employees, the job demands resources model explains this well (Xu & Cooper, 2011; Saks & Gruman, 2014; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Bakker and Demerouti (2007) break the job demands resources model into two main parts, which are (1) job demands and (2) job resources. Job demands are components of the job that require the employee to exert effort, causing the employee to incur emotional or physical cost. The job resources component of the model, on the other hand, is concerned with components of the job that can help that employee to achieve their work goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to the job demands resources model, the desired consequence of engagement happens when there are less job demands than job resources, indicating the person has the necessary resources to meet all their job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). If demands exceed resources, low engagement is likely to result.

Despite the debate around what employee engagement is, organizations are known to spend considerable amounts of resources on the improvement of employee

engagement (Xu & Cooper, 2011). This is because, employees who are engaged at work

tend to have better well-being (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006), are more satisfied within

their jobs (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006), are more committed to their jobs (Saks,

2006), and are more likely to perform at a higher level (Bakker & Bal, 2010). Known

antecedents of the state perspective of engagement are the way in which the leader leads

(e.g., transformational leadership style) and components of the nature of the work (e.g.,

variety in the work, challenge of the work, etc.) (Hackman & Oldman, 1980).

Of relevance to this research study addressing feedback processes and the

outcome of employee engagement, scholars suggest future research should focus on the

relationship between trust and employee engagement, but in different contexts (Ugwu,

Onyishi, & Rodriguez-Sanchez, 2014). Dirks and Ferrin (2002) also mention trust should

be explored more often as a variable explaining relationships. This study aims to address

both statements by investigating the relationship between trust and employee engagement

in the context of the feedback process, with trust being a mediating mechanism

potentially explaining the relationship between the feedback environment a leader creates

and employee engagement.

Generally, employees who feel as if they can trust their leaders are noted to have

higher levels of engagement (Buckley, 2011; Wong et al., 2010). In other words, because

an employee's leader is perceived as trustworthy, the employee then feels obligated to

"return the favor" and being engaged in their job is one way to reciprocate that. A study

conducted by Wang and Hsieh (2013) looked at authentic leadership, trust, and employee

engagement, particularly how authentic leadership leads to employee engagement

through the explanatory variable of trust. Results indicated trust partially explained the

relationship between authentic leadership and employee engagement (Wang & Hsieh, 2013).

Hypothesis 6: Trust in the leader will mediate the relationship between feedback environment and employee engagement.

Feedback Seeking

The importance of feedback is clear, as feedback is a way for leaders to inform employees about areas in their jobs that need improvement (Ashford et al., 2003), with the desired long-term outcome being increased employee performance (Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2007). Feedback allows leaders to facilitate employee improvement, and therefore, professionally develop employees (Levy & Williams, 2004). Ashford and Cummings (1983) changed research in this area when they suggested that employees often proactively seek out more feedback information as a way to develop their professional careers, rather than waiting for the feedback to come to them. Feedback seeking helps employees with self-regulation, allowing them to understand what behaviors are positive within the organization and their job roles (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). Feedback seeking can be defined as an employee actively pursuing information regarding how to improve within their job role (Levy et al., 1995). Ashford and Cummings (1983) define feedback seeking as a proactive request for information for the purpose of improving their job performance. Specifically, researchers state feedback seeking can be viewed as a critical resource for employees (Ashford & Cummings, 1983), and through seeking feedback employees are looking to further understand what is expected of them within their job roles (Morrison, 1993)**.** Research confirmed the cost-value framework that guides whether someone will seek feedback in a given situation. This framework

suggests an employee weighs the costs of seeking the feedback against the value of

receiving the feedback to determine if the feedback is worth seeking (Anseel et al., 2015;

Ashford, 1986). Feedback seeking behavior offers the most utility to employees when the

feedback information can reduce uncertainties in the employee's role (Daft & Lengel,

1986). Leaders should encourage employees to seek feedback so the employee can

develop professionally, but also because feedback seeking is linked to several sought-

after organizational outcomes. Increased feedback seeking is linked to higher levels of

performance (Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2007; Morrison, 1993), employee goal attainment

(Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979), higher quality leader member exchange relationships

between a leader and their subordinate (Graen, 1976), increased employee perceptions of

control (Ashford & Black, 1996), and creative performance (de Stobbeleir et al., 2011).

In the interest of understanding the complexities of the feedback interaction,

Ashford and Cummings (1983) note researchers should understand the ways employees

seek and use performance feedback, rather than just focusing on what types of feedback

employees are receiving. When synthesizing the feedback seeking theories available,

Ashford and researchers (2003) discuss two main themes. First, the method employees

use when feedback seeking, and second, how often employees seek out performance

feedback. Regarding methods employees use to seek feedback, to date there are two main

types of feedback seeking, which are (1) direct feedback seeking, or inquiry, and (2)

indirect feedback seeking, or monitoring (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). Direct feedback

seeking, or inquiry, is when an employee directly requests information about their

performance from someone within the organization. Indirect feedback seeking, or

monitoring, is when an employee observes what is going on around them, and then makes

inferences regarding how they are performing (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). Regardless of the feedback seeking method, leaders are often viewed as the most important feedback source (Greller, 1992).

When trying to understand the second major theme of how often employees seek out feedback information, several contextual components should be considered (Ashford et al., 2003). To start, the timing of the feedback seeking attempt matters, for example, whether the employee is seeking feedback directly after a performance event or if they choose to wait. Research indicates employees make this decision in a strategic manner, dependent on how much information the employee needs at the given time (Larson, 1989). Another contextual factor influencing how often the person seeks feedback is concerned with the target they are seeking the feedback from (Ashford et al., 2003), specifically, what the feedback seeker's relationship is with that person (Morrison & Bies, 1991). Other additional contextual factors influence the feedback seeking process, for instance, research suggests an employee's likelihood of seeking feedback information is influenced by the group of people they are around at that moment (Northcraft & Ashford, 1990). The person, or source, the employee is seeking the feedback from provides insight into another important contextual factor influencing the feedback seeking process, such that employees are more likely to value feedback that comes from their leader over a coworker (Greller, 1992). VandeWalle et al. (2000) tested a theoretical model that looked partially at the influence of contextual factors on the perceived cost and value of feedback seeking, specifically the leader's consideration and the leader's initiation of organizational structure. Results indicated support for these relationships,

demonstrating a leader's consideration and structure initiation did impact how the employee perceived the value and cost of feedback seeking (VandeWalle et al., 2000).

An employee's motivation for seeking feedback is also important to understand. Herold and Fedor (1998) mention there are a variety of different reasons, or motives, for seeking feedback. Motivations can include (1) instrumental, (2) ego-protection, and (3) image enhancement (Herold & Fedor, 1998). An instrumental motive for feedback seeking means the employee views feedback seeking as a way to obtain valuable information, suggesting that as the informational value increases, the frequency of the feedback seeking will also increase (Ashford, 1986). People may also seek feedback because they feel they need to protect their ego against some type of threat (Baumeister, 1999). When employees believe feedback will damage their ego, or perception of their self-worth, they might be likely to not seek feedback at all (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). Like an ego defense motive, employees can have an image protection motive for seeking or not seeking feedback, which refers to an employee's concern with their public image (Herold & Fedor, 1998). Employees who engage in higher amounts of impression management may be less likely to seek out performance feedback (Tuckey et al., 2002).

It is clear why feedback seeking is critical to the success of both organizations and employees, but now the question becomes how organizations can facilitate more feedback seeking from their employees. Feedback seeking has many important antecedents, such as transformational leadership (Wang, 2011), high levels of self-esteem (Northcraft & Ashford, 1990; VandeWalle et al., 2000), personality (Krasman, 2010), and learning goal orientation (VandeWalle et al., 2000) to name a few. In addition to these, when an employee is new to the job or the organization, they are more likely to

seek out performance feedback (Anseel et al., 2015), suggesting job and organizational tenure are antecedents. Since employees face more uncertainty when they are new to a job, seeking more feedback allows them to reduce this uncertainty (Anseel et al., 2015).

The cultural intelligence of leaders may be important in understanding the frequency and way employees seek feedback in the work context. For example, understanding whether an employee's culture tends to be more individualistic or collectivistic has implications for employee feedback seeking. Both cultural values seek feedback, but the difference lies in the target of the feedback sought. Collectivistic employees are likely to seek feedback to advantage the group, while individualistic employees are likely to seek feedback related to themselves (Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000). Another example that pertains to feedback seeking behavior of employees is related to the tolerance for ambiguity cultural value. Employees who are high in tolerance for ambiguity may not seek as much feedback, as they are more tolerant of ambiguous work situations, while employees who possess a low tolerance for ambiguity may use feedback seeking to minimize ambiguity (Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000). The benefit of culturally intelligent leaders is they will be aware of these cultural nuances going into cultural feedback interactions. In the feedback seeking cost-benefit analysis, an employee could view a culturally intelligent leader as promoting a more favorable feedback environment, and being more trustworthy and thus less risky, which could lead to greater feedback seeking frequency.

Past research demonstrates a positive relationship between feedback environment and feedback seeking frequency, suggesting the feedback environment a leader creates will be linked to the frequency or amount of feedback employees seek (Williams et al.,

1999; Whitaker, Dahling, & Levy, 2007). If leaders can create a personalized and comfortable feedback environment for their employees, employees will be more likely and comfortable seeking feedback, translating to them seeking out feedback more often. It may be that trust is an explanatory mechanism in this relationship. To explain, trusting your leader involves taking a risk, like the risk and vulnerability involved with seeking feedback. As a result, having more trust in one's leader could translate to the employee being more comfortable being vulnerable and taking this risk to seek feedback. In other words, if the employee trusts their leader, because the leader created a quality feedback environment for the employee, the employee is likely to seek more feedback.

Hypothesis 7: Perceptions of leader cultural intelligence will be positively associated with employee feedback seeking.

Hypothesis 8: Trust in the leader will mediate the relationship between feedback environment and feedback seeking.

Employee Perceptions of Coaching Relationship

Coaching is a popular intervention used for the development of employees (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2006), with well-known organizations such as McKinsey and Company and KPMG expecting their managers to make time to coach their employees (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 2002; Heslin & Latham, 2004; Latham et al., 2005). Because of flatter organizational structures, a shift of emphasis to learning cultures, better-quality feedback environments, and the presence of more modernized leadership styles, coaching has become the norm for many organizations (Anand & Daft, 2007; Ellinger & Bostrom, 1999; Lord & Brown, 2004; Yukl, 2002). With smaller training budgets, organizations have moved away from traditional training interventions, and more towards

individualized approaches such as coaching, as coaching allows organizations a better

chance that the material will be transferred to the employee's job (Baldwin & Ford,

1988). Organizations execute coaching because, when used properly, coaching can aid in

the delivery of positive and negative feedback, and generate employee goal setting

behaviors (London, Mone, & Scott, 2004).

Gregory and Levy (2010, 2011) defined coaching as a relationship; specifically,

coaching is an interaction that happens between a coach and an employee, with the

purpose of this relationship being to develop the employee or address the employee's

performance (Gregory & Levy, 2010). Coaching typically involves two parties, which are

(1) the coach, who is conducting the coaching, and the (2) coachee, who is receiving the

coaching. When considering what is important in facilitating a high-quality coaching

relationship, the Perceived Quality of Coaching Relationship construct mentions four

dimensions, which are (1) genuineness of the relationship, (2) effective communication,

(3) comfort with the relationship, and (4) facilitating development (Gregory & Levy,

2010). The genuineness of the relationship dimension talks about the level of genuineness

the employee perceives the leader to have regarding their coaching relationship. The

effective communication dimension of the measure entails the effectiveness of the

communication between the leader and employee, as well as how available the employee

views the leader to be. The comfort with the relationship dimension discusses the level of

comfort the employee feels when talking about employee goals. The facilitating

development dimension entails the degree that the coaching relationship encourages

employee development (Gregory & Levy, 2010). Coaching is a process that can be short

term, involving only a few sessions, or long term, where the relationship persists over the

course of a longer period (Tobias, 1996).

Historically, many relevant theories have been introduced to inform coaching

interventions (e.g., Feedback Intervention Theory, Goal Setting Theory, Control Theory,

etc.) (Carver & Scheier, 1981; Carver & Scheier, 1982; Locke & Latham, 1990; Kluger

& DeNisi, 1996), but since the main purpose of coaching is to help leaders/coaches assist

coachees/employees in establishing better self-regulation strategies (Gregory, Beck, &

Carr, 2011), this section will focus on control theory in the context of coaches and

coachees. The main idea related to control theory is people try to control or regulate

certain aspects of their life, for example, how they perform on a work task. The process

starts with the person evaluating themselves in comparison to some sort of reference

point (Carver & Scheier, 1981, 1982). The person controls their performance on this

work task by regulating their behaviors in relation to a goal. When differences between

what the person is achieving and the goal are present, behavior is changed to reduce this

divergence (Carver, Scheier, 1998; Vancouver, 2005). This self-appraisal process

continues, particularly if the person realizes they are falling short of meeting their goal

for this work task. The person continues to regulate and change their behaviors to get

closer to the goal, suggesting the notion of a continuous feedback loop. In control theory,

there are several different hierarchies of feedback loops, with some being more important

to a person than others. As expected, when someone feels they are getting closer to

accomplishing their goals, they feel good, but when the person feels they are getting

further away from the accomplishment of their goals, they feel worse (Carver & Scheier,

1981, 1982). From a coaching perspective, leaders who focus on successes, as opposed to

failures, are likely to notice more employee effort. This suggests leaders should focus

employee attention on achieving success, rather than the prevention of failure (Smither &

Reilly, 2001).

      Organizations continue to use coaching as a developmental intervention for

employees, because research links coaching to desirable organizational outcomes.

Smither et al. (2003) found people who worked with a coach had a higher likelihood of

setting specific goals, seeking more feedback for improvement, and higher performance.

Coaching has been found to facilitate better quality relationships between employees

within an organization (McCarthy & Milner, 2013), facilitate feedback within

organizations, and increase goal setting for employees (London, Mone, & Scott, 2004;

London & Smither, 2002). More specifically, many authors emphasize the significance of

trust between a coach and coachee (Boyce et al., 2010; Freedman & Perry, 2010;

Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kerster, 1994; Gyllensten & Palmer, 2007; O'Broin &

Palmer, 2010), with some researchers even going as far as to say that a leader or coach's

ability to facilitate a trusting relationship with the coachee acts as the most important

contextual determinant in the success of the coaching intervention (Hunt & Weintraub,

2002). In fact, when conducting interviews, over 90% of people mentioned the

importance of a trusting coaching relationship (O'Broin & Palmer, 2010). Another

interview study found coaches and coachees cited trust frequently, particularly when

asked about successful coaching interventions (Jowett, Kanakoglou & Passmore, 2012).

In the context of a coaching relationship, trust acts as a facilitator allowing the coachee to

be open and honest and the coach to be understanding and supportive (Boyce et al.,

2010).

Research conducted by Gregory and Levy (2011) demonstrates that feedback environment and trust are determinants of the perceived quality of the coaching relationship, more specifically, that coaches can facilitate higher quality coaching relationships by having a positive feedback environment and trust with employees. Though in this study, these measures were administered at the same time, Gregory and Levy's (2011) research sets the theoretical foundation that suggests that both feedback environment and trust are antecedents of the perceived quality of the coaching relationship. Therefore, trust is hypothesized to explain the relationship happening between the feedback environment the leader creates for employees and the employee's perceptions of the coaching relationship.

Hypothesis 9: Trust in the leader will mediate the relationship between feedback environment and employee perceptions of coaching relationship.

Chapter 3

Method

Sample and Procedure

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of a leaders' cultural intelligence on the feedback process and to assess whether cultural intelligence is more important in loose cultures (i.e., United States) versus tight cultures (i.e., India). See Figure 1 for the full model.

The employees were obtained through Mechanical Turk, otherwise referenced as MTurk. All data was collected online to provide ease of completing the measures for participants. The original intention of the study was to use supervisor and employee dyads on MTurk, where employees would complete their surveys and then email the survey link to their supervisors for them to complete their portion of the surveys. This design posed several challenges (e.g., complaints from MTurk participants stating they did not feel comfortable emailing surveys to their supervisors, limited complete supervisor and employee dyads, MTurk participants completing both the employee and supervisor surveys, etc.). Therefore, researchers decided to make the study cross-sectional instead, and only collect data on employees, as opposed to both employees and supervisors. To accommodate this study design change, researchers modified measures that were on the supervisor survey to allow employees to now respond from their perspective (e.g., the cultural intelligence). Unfortunately, the leader feedback orientation measure was not able to be modified properly to allow employees to respond to it. As a result, leader's feedback orientation was not measured, and Hypothesis 2 was not tested. The employee's participation time was under twenty to twenty-five minutes to complete

the surveys from start to finish. After data cleaning, with data cleaning steps documented

in the Results section, there were 257 total participants, with 137 American participants

and 120 Indian participants.

First, employee participants received the online informed consent form, which

informed each participant the study was voluntary and there would be no penalty if the

participant chose to not proceed. Next, employees received their measures, which in

order were the employee rated supervisor cultural intelligence measure, the leader

member exchange measure (i.e., used to address and control for leader and employee

relationship dynamics), the feedback environment measure, the tightness and looseness of

culture measure, the trust measure, the employee engagement measure, the feedback

seeking measure, the perceptions of the coaching relationship measure, and lastly the

demographics measure. At the end of the employee's survey, employees were debriefed

on the purpose of the study. Regarding compensation, employees were paid $2.00

through MTurk after they completed their survey.

Measures

Cultural Intelligence. The cultural intelligence scale used in this study was Ang,

Van Dyne, and Koh's (2006) cultural intelligence (CQ) measure. The original measure

has a total of twenty items across four dimensions, which are (1) metacognitive CQ, (2)

cognitive CQ, (3) motivational CQ, and (4) behavioral CQ (Ang et al., 2006). This

measure was adapted to assess a supervisor's cultural intelligence from the perspective of

the employee. The adapted version resulted in a total of six items, two from the

metacognitive CQ dimension, two from the motivational CQ dimension, and two from

the behavioral CQ dimension. The cognitive CQ dimension did not translate well for this purpose, therefore, this dimension was not included.

An example of an item from the adapted metacognitive CQ dimension is "My supervisor seems to be knowledgeable of different cultures", the motivational CQ factor includes items such as "My supervisor enjoys interacting with people from different cultures", while an example item from the adapted behavioral CQ dimension is "My supervisor alters their behavior to have effective interactions with those of different cultures". This measure utilized a seven-point Likert-type scale, with a one indicating strongly disagree and a seven indicating strongly agree. The original version of this measure was chosen because research demonstrated the measure had construct validity, concurrent validity, and predictive validity, with alpha values for the four different dimensions of the measure ranging from .70 to .86 (Ang et al., 2006; Ang et al., 2007) (See Appendix D).

Feedback Environment. The thirty-two-item supervisor component of the Feedback Environment Scale (FES) developed by Steelman, Levy, and Snell (2004) was used in this study to measure supervisor feedback environment. The FES measures seven dimensions, which are (1) source credibility, (2) feedback quality, (3) feedback delivery, (4) favorable feedback, (5) unfavorable feedback, (6) source availability, and (7) the promotion of feedback seeking. An example item from the supervisor source credibility dimension of the FES is "My supervisor is generally familiar with my performance on the job" (Steelman et al., 2004). This measure used a seven-point Likert-type scale, with a one indicating strongly disagree and a seven indicating a strongly agree response. This

measure was chosen because it possesses excellent psychometric properties, with the

alpha values ranging from .82 to .92 (Steelman et al., 2004) (See Appendix E).

Tightness and Looseness of Culture. Gelfand, Raver, Nishii, and Leslie's (2011)

tightness and looseness of culture measure was used for this study to measure employee's

opinions on the tightness and looseness of their national culture. This measure has a total

of five items, with participants responding on a Likert scale that ranged from strongly

disagree to strongly agree. This measure was chosen because of the measure's

psychometric quality; the measure demonstrates an alpha value of .85 (Mandel & Realo,

2015). An example item from this measure is "People in this country always comply with

social norms" (See Appendix F).

Trust. The ability, benevolence, and integrity dimensions of Schoorman, Mayer,

and Davis' (1996a) measure of trust was used. Due to the original length of the survey,

the shortened version used in Mayer and Davis' (1999) study was used, with the ability

dimension being shortened down to six items, the benevolence dimension being

shortened to five items, and the integrity dimension being six items (Mayer & Davis,

1999). This measure used a five-point Likert scale ranging from one (i.e., strongly

disagree) to five (i.e., strongly agree). The measure used in Mayer and Davis' (1999)

study used the term "top management" in all questions, but this study is concerned with

only one leader or supervisor. Therefore, the term "top management" was changed to

"supervisor" to minimize confusion for participants taking the survey. An example item

from the ability dimension is "I feel very confident about my supervisor's skills" An

example item from the benevolence dimension is "My supervisor is very concerned about

my welfare" An example item from the integrity dimension is "My supervisor tries hard

to be fair in dealings with others" (Schoorman et al., 1996a). This measure was chosen

because the measure demonstrated reliability estimates ranging from .93 to .96 for all

dimensions (Mayer & Davis, 1999) (See Appendix G).

Employee Engagement. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was used

to measure employee engagement in this study (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006).

This measure is seventeen items long, with items coming from three dimensions, which

are (1) vigor, (2) dedication, and (3) absorption. An example item from the vigor

dimension is "At work, I feel bursting with energy", an example item from the dedication

dimension of the measure is "I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose", and

an example item from the absorption dimension is "Time flies when I am working"

(Schaufeli et al., 2006). Responses to these items range from a score of zero to a score of

six, with a zero representing never and a six representing always or every day. This

measure was chosen to measure engagement because the measure demonstrated adequate

psychometric (e.g., validity and reliability) properties (Mills and Culbertson, 2012;

Bakker et al., 2008) (See Appendix H).

Feedback Seeking Frequency. The feedback seeking frequency measure that

was used in this study was Williams and Johnson's (2000) measure. Employees self-

reported how much feedback they seek from their supervisor. Williams and Johnson's

(2000) original measure has eleven items, with questions addressing feedback seeking

from both leaders/supervisors and coworkers. Since this research is most concerned with

feedback seeking from leaders/supervisors, the three leader/supervisor seeking items

were used. The measure used a six-point Likert-type scale (i.e., 1 = never, 6 = always).

An example item from the measure is "How often do you ask your supervisor for

information about what is required of you to function successfully on the job?". This

measure was chosen for use in this study because research demonstrates this measure has

appropriate reliability values (i.e., alpha value of .78) (Williams & Johnson, 2000) (See

Appendix I).

Employee Perception of Coaching Relationship. Perceptions of the coaching

relationship was measured with Gregory and Levy's (2010) Perceived Quality of the

Coaching Relationship scale (PQCR). This measure is comprised of four dimensions,

which are (1) genuineness of the relationship, (2) effective communication, (3) comfort

with the relationship, and (4) facilitating development, and a total of twelve items

(Gregory & Levy, 2010). An example item from this measure is "I feel at ease when

talking to my supervisor about my job". This measure used a five-point Likert scale, with

the options ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. This measure was chosen

because it possesses adequate psychometric properties, with an alpha of .95 (Gregory &

Levy, 2010) (See Appendix J).

Leader Member Exchange (LMX). Leader member exchange, or LMX, was

measured to control for the supervisor-subordinate relationship. Graen and Ulh-Bien's

(1995) seven item measure was used (See Appendix K). This measure was rated on a

five-point Likert scale, with various anchors depending on the question. An example item

from this measure is "How well does your leader understand your job problems and

needs?" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) (See Appendix K).

Demographics. As a method of making all survey questions as simple as

possible, the word "leader" was changed to "supervisor" in all surveys. The

demographics questionnaire included thirteen total questions, including gender,

education, country they are living and working in, tenure, and job function. An example

item from the demographics questionnaire is "What country are you currently working

in?" (See Appendix L).

Chapter 4

Results

Data for this research was collected on MTurk, because using the MTurk data platform allowed researchers to specify the desired parameters of their data. To streamline data collection processes, multiple batches of data (i.e., requesting between 25 and 50 survey participants at a time) were launched on MTurk over the course of several months. Each batch included a link to Qualtrics, where the survey respondent completed their surveys. One parameter specified on batches launched on MTurk was that all respondents demonstrated a 95% accuracy rating, meaning the respondent had 95% of their survey responses approved on MTurk. Batches launched on MTurk also specified that respondents were working in specific countries (i.e., India or United States) and were of a particular working status (i.e., full time or part time). In conclusion, after all batches, this resulted in a total of 466 respondents from MTurk.

Data Cleaning and Preparation. To ensure quality of the MTurk data collected, a thorough data cleaning process was conducted. First, the completion rate on Qualtrics was analyzed. Any participants who did not complete 100% of the surveys were deleted. Second, to ensure duplicated MTurk data was not used, IP addresses (i.e., latitude and longitude coordinates) were analyzed. Any participants that had the same IP addresses were considered duplicates and were therefore removed. Third, five attention checks were added in random places in the surveys, with data only being included from participants who passed 80%, or 4 out of 5 of the attention checks. Fourth, the amount of time respondents took to complete the surveys was analyzed, with the idea being that if a respondent completed the survey in too little or too much time, it would likely not be

good quality data. Data from respondents that took less than 7 minutes or more than 45

minutes was deleted. Fifth, to ensure participants were English speaking and could

thoroughly understand the questions asked on the surveys, the demographics question

asking respondents how COVID-19 impacted their relationship with their supervisor was

analyzed. Respondents were deleted if their response to the question did not appear to be

a relevant answer to the question (an example of this is "the belief is called the gender

binary. Most societies also have expectations and stereotypes about gender based on

someone's assigned sex") or the response appeared to be in extremely poor English (an

example of this is "I feel is dull of the work"). Lastly, data from the "country working in"

and "supervisor country" questions were compared. Any cases where the participant's

country responses for these did not match, or the country listed did not say India or

United States, were deleted. This data cleaning process resulted in the deletion of 209

participants. After this data cleaning process, there were 257 total participants, with 137

being American participants and 120 being Indian participants.

      After data was cleaned, the remaining data was prepared for analyses. First,

measures that had reverse items were reverse coded. These items were in the feedback

environment measure (i.e., source credibility dimension item 3, quality dimension item 5,

delivery dimension items 3 and 4, favorable feedback dimension item 2, source

availability dimension items 2, 3, and 5, and the feedback seeking dimension items 2 and

3) and the trust measure (i.e., integrity dimension item 4). Next, composite variables were

created for all measures and dimensions of each measure, by calculating the mean of all

items in each measure (See Table 1).

Table 1

Measure Composite Names

Measure Name	Composite Name
Cultural Intelligence	CQ
Leader Member Exchange	LMX
Feedback Environment	FE
Tightness and Looseness of Culture	TightLoose
Trust in Leader	Trust
Employee Engagement	Engagement
Feedback Seeking	Measurefbseeking
Perceptions of Quality Coaching Relationship	Coaching

Note. This table outlines overall measure composites created for analysis use within this research.

Preliminary Analyses. After data was cleaned and prepared, preliminary analyses were conducted. The first portion of the preliminary analyses was to analyze several general assumptions. The first assumption analyzed was regarding any outliers that may need to be removed in the data. Histograms for all items in this study were analyzed, with no visible outliers present. The second assumption analyzed was regarding linearity, specifically to ensure independent variables were linearly related to dependent variables. To assess this assumption, scatterplots of all composite variables were analyzed, with there being no serious or visible violations. The third assumption analyzed was regarding the normality of the data, specifically, to ensure the data was normally distributed. This assumption entailed researchers analyzing histograms for all items, to ensure the data had the general bell curve shape. There did not appear to be any issues or violations when looking at the histograms, but when looking at the skewness values, there did appear to be violations (i.e., +/- 1) of this assumption on a few variables (e.g.,

cultural intelligence, trust, coaching). The fourth, and last assumption, analyzed was homogeneity of variance. A few variables (i.e., LMX, feedback environment, trust, and feedback seeking) have significant p values on the Levene's test, indicating the assumption is violated, but statistical tests are relatively robust to violations regarding the homogeneity of variance assumption with equal sample sizes, which is a feature of the current study (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

The second portion of the preliminary analyses was to analyze the descriptive statistics for all variables in this research. First, means and standard deviations were calculated collectively for all composite variables (See Table 2) and on all variables for Indian and American participants (See Table 3). Second, correlations were assessed between all composite variables (See Table 4). Since this research included several variables involving the dynamics between leaders and employees, leader member exchange (LMX) was assessed as a potential control variable. Due to the high correlations between LMX and two outcome variables (i.e., employee engagement and the perceptions of a quality coaching relationship), LMX was controlled for in all relevant analyses (See Table 4).

Analyses were conducted to determine if there were significant differences between Indian and American research participants on tightness and looseness of culture, if Indian and American participants differed on perceptions of leader cultural intelligence, and if Indian and American participants differed on feedback environment. First, an independent samples t-test was conducted to analyze differences in Indian and American participants on tightness and looseness of culture. Contrary to what past research indicated, results did not show significant mean differences between Indian ($M = 4.58$,

SD = 0.635) and American (*M* = 4.48, *SD* = 0.662) research participants; *t*(256) = 1.225,

p = .238 on the tightness and looseness of culture measure. Though this t-test was not

significant, the mean values did trend in the expected direction, with Indian respondents

reporting slightly higher tightness than American respondents. Second, an independent t-

test was conducted to analyze the differences in Indian and American participants on

perceptions of leader cultural intelligence. Results did not show significant mean

differences between Indian (*M* = 5.27, *SD* = 1.07) and American (*M* = 5.24, *SD* = 1.15)

research participants on the perceptions of their leader's cultural intelligence; *t*(256) =

.292, *p* = .770. Third, another independent t-test was conducted to analyze the differences

in Indian and American participants on feedback environment. Results showed

significant mean differences between Indian (*M* = 4.93, *SD* = 0.75) and American (*M* =

5.37, *SD* = 1.05) participants, *t*(256) = -3.80, *p* = <.001 with American respondents

reporting more favorable feedback environments than Indian respondents.

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Kurtosis, and Reliabilities of Variables

Variable	n	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Reliability
CQ	257	5.25	1.11	-1.43	2.28	.89
LMX	257	3.69	0.70	-.538	.648	.88
FE	257	5.16	0.95	-.379	.139	.93
Trust	257	3.94	0.70	-1.35	2.42	.95
TightLoose	257	4.52	0.65	-.542	.636	.64
Engagement	257	5.00	0.91	-.869	1.14	.92
Measurefbseeking	257	4.41	1.02	.317	-.294	.84
Coaching	257	3.95	0.75	-1.56	3.17	.95

Note. Table illustrates n size, means, standard deviations, skewness values, kurtosis

values, and reliabilities of variables overall.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities for Indian/American Samples

Variable	n	Mean	SD	Reliability
CQ	120/137	5.27/5.23	1.07/1.15	.89/.89
LMX	120/137	3.54/3.83	0.56/0.78	.79/.91
FE	120/137	4.93/5.37	0.75/1.05	.92/.95
Trust	120/137	3.82/4.04	0.60/0.77	.92/.96
TightLoose	120/137	4.58/4.48	0.64/0.66	.67/.66
Engagement	120/137	5.09/4.92	0.87/0.95	.92/.93
Measurefbseeking	120/137	4.76/4.11	1.02/0.91	.72/.89
Coaching	120/137	3.89/4.00	0.65/0.83	.92/.97

Note. Table illustrates n size, means, standard deviations, and reliabilities for Indian/American participants.

Table 4

Composite Variable Correlations

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. CQ	1							
2. LMX	.535**	1						
3. FE	.482**	.763**	1					
4. TightLoose	.302**	.260**	.215**	1				
5. Trust	.602**	.807**	.790**	.279**	1			
6. Engagement	.533**	.584**	.488**	.454**	.541**	1		
7. Measurefbseeking	.236**	.037	-.206**	.266**	.117	.260**	1	
8. Coaching	.643**	.778**	.753**	.299**	.909**	.631**	.228**	1

Note. ** indicates the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis Testing. To analyze Hypothesis 1, a hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to assess the nature of the relationship between employee rated leader cultural intelligence and feedback environment. This hypothesis was analyzed with a hierarchical regression analysis, controlling for LMX at the first step. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression showed perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence to be significantly associated with feedback environment, even after controlling for LMX. Controlling for LMX, the regression coefficient ($b = .103$, $p = .03$) associated with cultural intelligence suggests that with each additional unit increase, the feedback environment increases by .103. The R^2 change value associated with this regression model suggests that perceptions of leader cultural intelligence accounts for an additional 8% of the variation in feedback environment, above and beyond LMX. Therefore, results indicate support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the relationship between perceptions of leader cultural intelligence and feedback environment would be moderated by the leader's feedback orientation. As mentioned, originally this study was proposed to have a sample of leader and employee dyads, but because of challenges in achieving dyads on MTurk, the research sample was changed to cross-sectional employee data. Due to this change, leader feedback orientation was no longer able to be measured, therefore, this hypothesis was not tested.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that tightness and looseness of culture would moderate the relationship between perceptions of leader's cultural intelligence and the feedback environment; specifically, it was predicted that loose cultures (i.e., the employees in this study from the United States) would demonstrate a stronger positive relationship between

the leader's perceived cultural intelligence and the feedback environment created for

employees when compared to tighter cultures (i.e., the employees in this study from

India). This hypothesis was tested using two analytical methods, (1) PROCESS model 1

to determine if the measure of tightness and looseness of culture at the individual level

moderated the relationship between perceptions of leader cultural intelligence and

feedback environment, and (2) Fischer's Z transformation to compare the correlation

between perceptions of cultural intelligence and feedback environment for the Indian

sample and the American sample, a national level comparison. Starting with the first

analytical method, to determine if tightness and looseness of culture moderated the

relationship between perceptions of cultural intelligence and feedback environment, a

moderator analysis using PROCESS model 1 was used (Hayes, 2013). The interaction

between perceptions of cultural intelligence and tightness and looseness was significant,

$[b = -.1226$, 95% C.I. (-.2308, -.0143), $p = .03]$. The effect of the perceptions of leader

cultural intelligence on feedback environment was also significant, $[b = .9535$, 95% C.I.

(.4479, 1.46), $p = .0003]$. When this interaction was graphed, the expected relationship

was illustrated. Leaders who were perceived to have high cultural intelligence, and were

in loose cultures, scored the highest on feedback environment, while in loose cultures,

leaders perceived to have low cultural intelligence had the least favorable feedback

environment (See Figure 2).

Regarding the second method of investigating this hypothesis, to compare the

correlations between perceptions of leader cultural intelligence and feedback

environment for both samples, the Indian and American sample size information was

required (Indian sample n = 120, American sample n = 137), as well as the correlation

between perceptions of cultural intelligence and feedback environment for both the

Indian and American samples (Indian sample, $r = .478$, American sample $r = .519$). This

Fischer's Z transformation comparing the correlation for the Indian sample and the

American sample was not statistically significant ($z = .431$, $p = .333$) (See Table 5).

Therefore, there are mixed results for Hypothesis 3.

Table 5

Fischer's Z Transformation

	n	r
Indian Sample	120	.478
American Sample	137	.519
Z	.431	
p	0.333	

Note. Fischer's Z transformation comparing the correlation for perceptions of cultural

intelligence and feedback environment for the Indian sample and the American sample.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that there would be less variance in the feedback

environment created by leaders in tight cultures (i.e., the Indian sample in this study)

when compared to loose cultures (i.e., the American sample in this study). This

hypothesis was supported, there was less variance in the feedback environment for the

tight culture (i.e., Indian sample) ($SD = 0.75$) than the loose culture (i.e., American

sample) ($SD = 1.05$).

Hypothesis 5 predicted that feedback environment would be positively related to

trust in the leader. Similar to Hypothesis 1, a hierarchical multiple regression was used to

allow researchers to investigate the relationship between feedback environment and trust,

while controlling for LMX. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression showed

feedback environment to be significantly associated with trust, even after controlling for

LMX. Controlling for LMX, the regression coefficient ($b = .416$, $p < .001$) associated with feedback environment suggests that with each additional unit increase, trust increases by .416. The R^2 change value associated with this regression model suggests that feedback environment accounts for an additional 7.2% of the variation in trust above and beyond LMX. Consequently, results indicate support for Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that trust would mediate the relationship between feedback environment and employee engagement. PROCESS mediation model 4 was used to determine if this hypothesis was supported (Hayes, 2013). The outcome variable for this mediation analysis was employee engagement, the predictor variable was feedback environment, and the mediator was trust. The indirect effect of feedback environment on employee engagement was statistically significant [Effect = .3165, 95% C.I. (.1546, .4753)]. As a result, Hypothesis 6 was supported (See Table 6).

Hypothesis 7 predicted that perceptions of leader cultural intelligence would be positively associated with employee feedback seeking, more specifically, that employees with leaders that are perceived to have higher levels of cultural intelligence will seek more feedback compared to employees who do not have leaders who are perceived to be culturally intelligent. Similar to the analysis done for Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 5, a hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to determine if there was a relationship between perceptions of cultural intelligence and feedback seeking, after controlling for LMX. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression showed perceptions of cultural intelligence to be significantly associated with feedback seeking, even after controlling for LMX. Controlling for LMX, the regression coefficient ($b = .303$, $p < .001$) associated with perceptions of cultural intelligence suggests that with each additional unit increase,

feedback seeking increases by .303 The R^2 change value associated with this regression

model suggests that perceptions of leader cultural intelligence accounts for an additional

6.5% of the variation in trust above and beyond LMX. Consequently, results indicate

support for Hypothesis 7.

Hypothesis 8 predicted that trust would mediate the relationship between

feedback environment and feedback seeking. PROCESS mediation model 4 was used to

determine if this hypothesis was supported (Hayes, 2013). The outcome variable for this

mediation analysis was feedback seeking, the predictor variable was feedback

environment, and the mediator was trust. The indirect effect of feedback environment on

feedback seeking was significant [Effect =.6320, 95% C.I. (.4106, .8470)]. As a result,

this Hypothesis 8 was supported (See Table 6).

Hypothesis 9 predicted that trust would mediate the relationship between

feedback environment and employee perceptions of a quality coaching relationship.

PROCESS mediation model 4 was used to determine if this hypothesis was supported

(Hayes, 2013). The outcome variable for this mediation analysis was perceptions of a

quality coaching relationship, the predictor variable was feedback environment, and the

mediator was trust. The indirect effect of feedback environment on perceptions of a

quality coaching relationship was significant [Effect = .5224, 95% C.I. (.4250, .6105)].

As a result, Hypothesis 9 was supported (See Table 6).

Table 6

Trust Mediating Relationships Between Feedback Environment and Organizational Outcomes

Relationship	Indirect Effect	LLCI & ULCI

FE → Trust → Employee Engagement	.3165	.1546, .4753
FE → Trust → Employee Feedback Seeking	.6320	.4106, .8470
FE → Trust → Perceptions of a Quality Coaching Relationship	.5224	.4250, .6105

Note. Results from PROCESS mediation analyses investigating trust as a mediator between feedback environment and organizational outcomes (i.e., employee engagement, feedback seeking, and perceptions of a quality coaching relationship).

Supplementary Analyses. Several supplementary analyses were done, specifically, serial mediation analyses were conducted to test the majority of the research model, and correlational analyses between the dimensions of cultural intelligence and feedback environment were also examined. First, a mediation PROCESS model 6 was run to test the effect of perceptions of leader cultural intelligence on feedback environment, trust, and the outcome of employee engagement in a serial mediation model (Hayes, 2013). The outcome variable for this mediation analysis was employee engagement, the predictor variable was perceptions of leader cultural intelligence, mediator one was feedback environment, and mediator two was trust. The indirect effect

for the full model was not significant [Effect = .0705, 95% C.I. (-.0106, .1481)] (See

Table 7).

Second, a mediation PROCESS model 6 was run to test the effect of perceptions

of leader cultural intelligence on feedback environment, trust, and the outcome of

employee feedback seeking (Hayes, 2013). The outcome variable for this mediation

analysis was feedback seeking, the predictor variable was perceptions of leader cultural

intelligence, mediator one was feedback environment, and mediator two was trust. The

indirect effect for the full model was significant [Effect = .1843, 95% C.I. (.0820, .3109)]

(See Table 7).

Third, a mediation PROCESS model 6 was run to test the effect of perceptions of

leader cultural intelligence on feedback environment, trust, and the outcome of

perceptions of a quality coaching relationship (Hayes, 2013). The outcome variable for

this mediation analysis was perceptions of a quality coaching relationship, the predictor

variable was perceptions of leader cultural intelligence, mediator one was feedback

environment, and mediator two was trust. The indirect effect for the full model was

significant [Effect = .2345, 95% C.I. (.1586, .3067)] (See Table 7).

Table 7

Feedback Environment and Trust Mediating Relationships Between Perceptions of
Leader Cultural Intelligence and Organizational Outcomes

Relationship	Indirect Effect	LLCI & ULCI

CQ → FE → Trust → Employee Engagement	.0705	-.0106, .1481
CQ → FE → Trust → Employee Feedback Seeking	.1843	.0820, .3109
CQ → FE → Trust → Perceptions of a Quality Coaching Relationship	.2345	.1586, .3067

Note. Results from PROCESS serial mediation analyses investigating feedback environment and trust as mediators between perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence and organizational outcomes (i.e., employee engagement, feedback seeking, and perceptions of a quality coaching relationship).

Correlational analyses were conducted to analyze the associations among the dimensions of the perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence and dimensions of the feedback environment a leader creates (See Table 8). All seven dimensions of the feedback environment were significantly and positively correlated with the metacognitive dimension of cultural intelligence, suggesting that as the perceptions of metacognitive cultural intelligence increases, so does each specific dimension of the feedback environment (See Table 8). All seven dimensions of the feedback environment were also significantly and positively correlated with the motivational dimension of cultural intelligence, suggesting that as the perceptions of motivational cultural intelligence increases, so does each specific dimension of the feedback environment (See Table 8). Only the source credibility, quality, delivery, favorable feedback, and promotion of

feedback seeking dimensions of feedback environment were significantly correlated with the behavioral dimension of cultural intelligence (See Table 8).

Table 8

Correlations Between Cultural Intelligence Dimensions and Feedback Environment Dimensions

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. CQMetacognitive	1									
2. CQMotivational	.73**	1								
3. CQBehavioral	.62**	.59**	1							
4. SourceCred	.41**	.60**	.36**	1						
5. Quality	.48**	.64**	.40**	.83**	1					
6. Delivery	.28**	.52**	.22**	.84**	.78**	1				
7. Favfb	.43**	.53**	.32**	.73**	.74**	.71**	1			
8. Unfavfb	.15*	.22**	.10	.26**	.24**	.15*	.23**	1		
9. Sourceavail	.17**	.36**	.11	.66**	.63**	.71**	.62**	.28**	1	
10. FEfbseeking	.24**	.43**	.14*	.71**	.73**	.76**	.71**	.23**	.79**	1

Note. ** indicates the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* indicates the correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Chapter 5

Discussion

The world continues to change as globalization increases, translating to changing workplaces and the continuous need for leaders to adapt (House et al., 2014). With more diversity within the workforce (Hollifield, Martin, & Orrenius, 2014), there is a need for leaders to better understand cultural differences, and more specifically, how these cultural differences manifest in workplace processes such as informal feedback interactions. Organizations should prioritize the success of feedback interactions, as feedback has been linked to work performance (London, 2003), employee engagement (Mone & London, 2010), and also provides a way for organizations to ensure employees are continually striving to meet organizational goals (Hyland, 1998).

Intercultural competence theories suggest that cultural competence leads to adaptation and adjustment, which should be useful for leaders trying to foster a favorable feedback environment. Researchers, such as Ang et al. (2007), report that cultural competence is related to adjustment, suggesting that as people are more culturally competent, they tend to be able to adjust better. Successful intercultural adaptation and adjustment involves the adoption of behaviors that accomplish goals and tasks, while at the same time minimizing negative adjustment outcomes and maximizing positive adjustment outcomes. This includes having successful relationships with people from other cultures; more specifically, feeling that the interactions are favorable (i.e., warm, respectful, cooperative, etc.), accomplishing tasks in an effective and efficient manner, and managing psychological stress effectively in one's daily tasks, interpersonal situations, and work environment (Black & Stephens, 1989; Brislin, 1993; Gudykunst,

Hammer, & Wiseman, 1977). Previous cultural research models outline the specific

attitudes and behaviors that a leader must demonstrate in order to be effective in cultural

situations (Deardorff, 2006; Howard Hamilton et al., 1998). Both Deardorff (2006) and

Howard Hamilton et al.'s (1998) models discuss what skills, abilities, and knowledge is

necessary to enhance a person's ability to adapt to what is necessary in a cross-cultural

situation, with obvious implications on the manner in which a leader facilitates a positive

feedback environment for employees.

To explain, Deardorff's (2006) Intercultural Competence Model outlines what

happens within a person and then what happens within cultural interaction. Deardorff

(2006) discusses several important attitudes, such as respect, openness, and curiosity,

with implications on the feedback interaction; specifically, that a leader must listen and

learn to understand individual employee's feedback preferences. Another component of

Deardorff's (2006) model is knowledge, which includes being culturally self-aware, in

this case as a leader. This is relevant to the feedback interaction, because employees must

feel their leaders are culturally self-aware regarding their personal culture or individual

preferences to then listen to the feedback their leader provides and accept it. Lastly,

Deardorff's (2006) model discusses skills, which are the ability to listen and evaluate

cultural situations, in this case feedback situations.

Though it is clear culturally intelligent leaders are more necessary now than ever,

research notes it is not well-represented within the workforce (Chin & Gaynier, 2006).

The idea is if leaders can demonstrate effectiveness in cultural situations by adapting and

adjusting their behavior, they may be able to facilitate a better-quality feedback

environment for employees on an individual basis (Howard Hamilton et al., 1998,

Deardorff, 2006). Trust is critical in any leader and employee relationship (Mayer et al., 1995), and should result from a culturally intelligent leader who fosters a favorable feedback environment.

This study had several purposes. First, from a general point of view, the purpose of this research study was to integrate feedback and cultural psychology literatures to understand, and subsequently improve, feedback-related performance management processes within organizations. From a feedback literature perspective, this study investigated the feedback environment and its impact on important outcomes of feedback seeking frequency and perceived quality of the coaching relationship. From a cultural research perspective, this study investigated the cultural variables of perceptions of leader cultural intelligence and tightness and looseness of culture, and their impact on the feedback environment. The second purpose was to understand the role trust played in explaining the relationship between feedback environment and desired organizational outcomes (i.e., employee engagement, feedback seeking of employees, and employee perceptions of the coaching relationship).

Therefore, this study investigated perceptions of leader cultural intelligence as a method for organizations to facilitate better quality feedback environments for their employees. In support of Hypothesis 1, this research found that perceptions of leader cultural intelligence was positively related to the feedback environment over and above LMX. This suggests that the leaders who are perceived to be more culturally intelligent are the leaders who are most likely to be viewed as facilitating a favorable feedback environment for employees, beyond what is created through relationship quality (LMX). In other words, when leaders are perceived as possessing the components of cultural

intelligence that are associated with effective functioning in culturally diverse settings, they are more likely to be viewed as fostering a context that supports effective feedback processes.

For example, metacognitive cultural intelligence processes include tasks such as planning, monitoring, and modifying cultural norm thinking when interacting in different countries or among people from different countries. People who are perceived to have metacognitive cultural intelligence tend to anticipate other people's cultural preferences before an interaction even happens (Ang et al., 2007; Brislin, Worthley, & MacNab, 2006; Triandis, 2006). This is relevant to the feedback interaction, as leaders who are perceived to be metacognitively culturally intelligent may be able to observe and anticipate the general and cultural feedback environment that certain employees desire before the feedback interaction even happens.

Motivational cultural intelligence is concerned with a person's ability to direct attention towards adapting, and as a result successfully functioning, in cultural situations. People who are perceived to be motivationally culturally intelligent focus their effort on cultural situations and are confident in their ability to interact in these situations (Ang et al., 2007; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Bandura, 2002). Motivational cultural intelligence is relevant to the feedback interaction, as leaders who are perceived to be interested in culture, and confident in their ability to be effective during cultural feedback interactions, are likely to put forth the effort to foster the best quality feedback environments.

Lastly, behavioral cultural intelligence refers to someone's ability to demonstrate appropriate behaviors during cultural interactions, with those with high behavioral cultural intelligence being able to demonstrate the proper words, gestures, and facial

expressions during cultural interactions (Ang et al., 2007; Gundykunst et al., 1988). In summary, all of these behaviors mentioned above, resulting from perceptions of a leader's metacognitive, motivational, and behavioral cultural intelligence, help to facilitate more constructive feedback processes.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that tightness and looseness of culture would be a moderator between a leader's cultural intelligence and the feedback environment created, specifically, predicting that loose cultures (i.e., the employees in this study from the United States) would demonstrate a stronger positive relationship between the employee rated leader cultural intelligence and the feedback environment created for employees when compared to tighter cultures (i.e., the employees in this study from India). The hypothesis was tested in two ways and the results were mixed.

First, when testing the moderation using PROCESS model 1 (Hayes, 2013), the interaction between the perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence and feedback environment was significant, with the interaction graph suggesting what was expected; specifically, that leaders who were perceived as being more culturally intelligent, and in loose cultures, were the most likely to facilitate a positive feedback environment. These results suggest that the employee's rating of the tightness or looseness of their culture did impact the relationship between the perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence and the feedback environment the leader created, suggesting that leaders from looser cultures (i.e., United States) may facilitate better quality feedback environments because they would potentially be more flexible and able to shift their behaviors as needed by particular employees with different culturally bound needs regarding communication and feedback interactions, as opposed to leaders in tighter cultures (i.e., India) who may be

more constrained in their feedback behaviors. Research confirms this, precisely, that tight

cultures are narrow, and behavior tends to be more constrained, while loose cultures are

broad, with less constraints on behaviors (Gelfand et al., 2006; Gelfand et al., 2007;

Gelfand et al., 2011). Leaders who are in tight cultures may experience felt

accountability, in other words they may feel like they are expected to perform this narrow

range of behaviors, which could result in these leaders feeling as if they have to follow

prescribed processes for feedback within their organizations (i.e., lack of risk taking,

limited innovative behaviors, etc.), as opposed to having the ability to be flexible and

shift behaviors if their cultural intelligence indicates it to be necessary. Interestingly, in

loose cultures, it appears that not being perceived to have cultural intelligence is a bigger

detriment to feedback environment than in tight cultures, potentially because the situation

is not as strong as it is in tight cultures.

Second, Fischer's Z transformation was used to test Hypothesis 3 another way,

with country acting as a proxy for tightness and looseness of culture (i.e., India

representing tight cultures and United States representing loose cultures). Contrary to the

support received when using the individual-level tightness and looseness measure to

conduct analyses, when using country as a proxy to test Hypothesis 3, the results were

not significant. This coincides theoretically with the ecological fallacy, which suggests

that people cannot assume that everyone from a certain group, or culture in this case, has

the same characteristics (Piantadosi, Byar, & Green, 1988); more explicitly, one cannot

assume that everyone from India has the characteristics of someone from a tight culture

and everyone from the United States has the characteristics of someone from a loose

culture. This is also consistent with the t-test results suggesting that there may be more

within country variance in tightness and looseness than between country variance on tightness and looseness.

Hypothesis 4 investigated the variability in the feedback environment created by leaders in tight cultures (i.e., the Indian sample in this study) when compared to loose cultures (i.e., the American sample in this study); particularly, predicting that there would be less variability in the feedback environment created by the tight leaders (i.e., Indian leaders). This prediction was supported, suggesting that in tight cultures (i.e., Indian sample) there was less variability in the feedback environment leaders created, when compared to leaders in loose cultures (i.e., United States). Mean differences on feedback environment between leaders in loose cultures (i.e., the United States, $M = 5.37$) and leaders in tight cultures (i.e., India, $M = 4.93$), suggest that because the feedback environment is more positive in loose cultures, there may be more behavioral flexibility afforded to leaders in these cultures, when compared to leaders in tight cultures.

For leaders to be successful, it is critical that employees trust their leaders (Dirks & Sharlicki, 2004; Dirks, 1999). Hypothesis 5 analyzed the relationship between feedback environment and trust to determine whether a quality feedback environment was necessary for employees to then trust their leaders. Results supported this hypothesis and indicated that feedback environment was related to trust, suggesting that if leaders want employees to trust them, one method of achieving this trust is to facilitate positive and personalized feedback environments for their employees.

With the facilitation of a positive feedback environment, leaders hope their employees will be comfortable seeking feedback more frequently to ultimately improve their performance. Researchers suggest that the cultural intelligence of leaders may be

significant when trying to understand how often employees seek feedback (Moukarzel &

Steelman, 2015). For example, employees from individualistic and collectivistic cultures

both seek feedback, but in different ways. Employees shaped by an individualistic culture

typically seek feedback regarding themselves, while employees shaped by a collectivistic

culture typically seek feedback regarding the group (Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000).

Hypothesis 7 analyzed the relationship between employee perceptions of cultural

intelligence of the leader and the frequency of feedback seeking of the employee,

predicting that employees who perceived their leaders to have higher levels of cultural

intelligence would seek more feedback compared to employees who did not perceive

their leaders to be culturally intelligent. Results showed support for this hypothesis,

suggesting that employees who perceived their leaders to be more culturally intelligent

felt comfortable seeking feedback from them more frequently. This suggests that leaders

who are perceived to be more culturally intelligent may have been more aware of the

general and cultural individual differences among their employees, which then potentially

made employees feel more comfortable with seeking feedback. Leaders who are

perceived to be culturally intelligent focus their efforts towards cultural situations (Ang et

al., 2007), and could as a result put forth more energy when in cultural interactions, thus

promoting more favorable feedback interactions.

Subsequent hypotheses (Hypotheses 6, 8, and 9) analyzed trust as an explanatory

factor in the relationship between feedback environment and employee outcomes desired

by organizations (i.e., employee engagement, feedback seeking, and employee

perceptions of a quality coaching relationship). Results demonstrated that trust did

explain the relationship between the feedback environment created by leaders and these

desirable organizational outcomes. Regarding the outcome of engagement, past research

supports this. First, employees who feel they can trust their leaders demonstrate higher

levels of engagement (Buckley, 2011; Wong et al., 2010), suggesting that because the

employee feels they can trust their leader, they then feel obligated to "return the favor" by

being engaged. Second, Wang and Hsieh's (2013) research found that trust partially

explained the relationship between authentic leadership and employee engagement.

Regarding the outcome of feedback seeking, past research demonstrates a positive

relationship between the feedback environment a leader creates and the feedback seeking

of employees (Williams et al., 1999; Whitaker, Dahling, & Levy, 2007). This suggests

that if leaders can create a comfortable feedback environment for employees, employees

will feel more comfortable seeking feedback from leaders, with trust being an

explanatory variable. To explain, trusting your leader requires the employee to take a

risk, a risk similar to that of seeking feedback from their leader. If the employee has more

trust in their leader, this could then translate to the employee being more comfortable

taking the risk associated with seeking out performance feedback from their leader. If the

leader creates a quality feedback environment for the employee, the employee is more

likely to trust their leader, and seek more feedback.

Regarding the outcome of employee perceptions of a quality coaching

relationship, research by Gregory and Levy (2011) indicates that both feedback

environment and trust have a relationship with the perceived quality of the coaching

relationship. To explain, managerial coaches are more likely to be able to facilitate

quality relationships with employees if they facilitate a positive feedback environment

and have trust from the employee. See Appendix C for a summary table of hypotheses and results.

Limitations. This study contained some limitations. First, single source, cross sectional data was collected from MTurk, leading to common method bias and causality concerns. Common method bias is defined as the variability coming from the way the data was measured as opposed to the measures themselves (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This is a concern in this research because the data was collected using all self-reported survey measures, with employees indicating information about themselves and their leaders as well (e.g., perceptions of their leader's cultural intelligence). Another source of common method bias to consider is common scale formats, as all measures used in this study were Likert scales (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Concerns around common method bias are worth mentioning because it presents the potential for research results to be upwardly biased. However, Conway and Lance (2010) note that assuming that research with a self-report methodology will be upwardly biased is a common misconception, as this is not always the case, and the issue of upward bias is more complicated than whether or not self-report measures were used.

Second, because the data was collected at one point in time it is cross sectional. The limitation associated with cross-sectional research design is that researchers can no longer infer causality among research variables, as this data was only collected at one point in time and was not longitudinal in nature (Spector, 1994). Though researchers critique the use of cross-sectional data, Spector (1994) concludes that this type of study can say a lot about employees, how they feel about their work, and is an appropriate first step when conducting research.

Third, several variables used in this research had high intercorrelations, suggesting some redundancy when measuring these variables (See Table 4). Fourth, the measure of tightness and looseness had low internal consistency reliability (i.e., reliability of .64) suggesting results should be interpreted with caution (See Table 2). Fifth, this research looked at matching leader and employee countries only (i.e., leaders and employees both from India and leaders and employees both from the United States), therefore, this research did not investigate leaders and employees with "unmatching" countries or cultural diversity, and as a result, was not able to distinguish if cultural intelligence is more important when there is greater demographic diversity between the leader and employee. This is an area that should be examined in future research.

Lastly, although past research (e.g., Gelfand et al., 2006; Gelfand et al., 2011; Triandis, 1989; Carpenter, 2000) noted India is considered a tight culture and the United States is considered a loose culture, which informed the design of the current study, supplementary analyses (i.e., t-tests) investigating the differences in Indian and American participants did not yield the significant differences that were expected. These surprising results suggest that in this type of study, etic approaches that endorse cultural universality may be less appropriate than emic approaches that are more contextual and individual-based (Morris et al., 1999). This is something that should be further explored in future research. One contributing factor could also be the sample of MTurkers, regardless of nationality, as these people may be more technologically savvy or have a higher socioeconomic status (SES), making them more acculturated to the global business environment.

Contributions to Research. Generally, this study contributed to research and theory in several unique ways by further investigating, from a coaching perspective, how and why the perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence may influence desired organizational outcomes. First, this study addressed the concern that more research needs to investigate environmental, or contextual factors, in relation to feedback seeking processes (Ashford et al., 2003). This study addressed that gap by investigating the feedback environment created by a leader and how this contributes to desired organizational outcomes.

Second, researchers in the feedback field also discuss how research related to culture, such as a leader's cultural intelligence, has not been investigated enough in relation to feedback processes in general (Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000). This research addressed this concern; specifically, this research found that perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence is related to the feedback environment. This result makes sense because leaders who are perceived to have metacognitive cultural intelligence (i.e., are able to process cultural information), are perceived to have motivational cultural intelligence (i.e., have the motivation necessary to understand cultural information), and are perceived to have behavioral cultural intelligence (i.e., can behave in ways that are appropriate in cultural situations) (Ang, Koh, & Van Dyne, 2006) are likely to be the leaders who are able to interact effectively in cross-cultural situations and facilitate the best quality feedback environments. This study investigated how perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence may contribute to a better-quality feedback environment, and therefore, the quality of the coaching relationship between the leader and the employees. Third, this study addressed a previous sample limitation, as cultural research is typically

conducted on expatriate samples, and this study was conducted on a sample of employees from both India and the United States. Fourth, this study contributed to research in this area by further solidifying the importance of leader cultural intelligence in daily feedback interactions to ensure successful leader and employee interactions in today's increasingly globalized world.

Contributions to Practice. Practically speaking, this study increased the understanding of the dynamics between leaders and their employees during day-to-day informal feedback interactions and provides insight into how to increase the effectiveness of feedback interactions across organizations. To start, this research showed that perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence is associated with feedback environment, above and beyond LMX. This suggests the importance of cultural intelligence in general when trying to facilitate better quality feedback environments and the potential value of training leaders on cultural competence factors. This research also determined that tightness and looseness of culture moderated the relationship between perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence and feedback environment, suggesting that leaders who are perceived to be high in cultural intelligence, and are from loose cultures, are likely to create the best quality feedback environments. These results highlight the importance of leader cultural intelligence, suggesting that organizations should educate leaders on the importance of being culturally intelligent and focus on developing leaders to be more culturally intelligent in general and during feedback interactions.

Lastly, results indicate that trust explained the relationship between feedback environment and desired organizational outcomes (e.g., employee engagement, employee feedback seeking, and perceptions of a quality coaching relationship), suggesting how

important it is for leaders to be able to facilitate trusting relationships with their

employees. Organizations should create spaces for leaders to get to know their employees

and their individual preferences when working generally, and during feedback

interactions, so leaders are able to facilitate the most personalized feedback environments

possible and potentially build employee trust.

   Future Research. First, this research looked at leaders and employees that were

both from the same country (i.e., leaders and employees both from India and leaders and

employees both from the United States), but this research did not look specifically at

demographic diversity between leaders and employees. In the future, a follow up study

should investigate if perceptions of cultural intelligence are more important when there is

greater diversity between the leader and employee. Second, future research should

replicate the original intentions of this research, which were to collect data from both

leaders and employees in dyads, so that additional variables can be investigated (e.g.,

leader feedback orientation). Third, significant mean differences were not detected

between Indian and American samples, which was contrary to what was expected;

therefore, future research should investigate why this occurred. Fourth, results testing

Hypothesis 3 with the Fischer's Z transformation analysis were not significant.

Consequently, future research should investigate what it means for there to be variance in

in the perceptions of the norms regarding tightness and looseness for people within a

nation. For example, the tightness and looseness measure uses country as a referent,

raising the question if the between person (within country) variance has something to do

with the differences in perception and not differences in the reality of the context. Fifth,

perceptions of the diversity of the workplace were not measured, raising the question of if

leaders were actually working in multicultural settings. Future research should investigate this further to determine if these relationships are stronger in diverse settings.

Conclusion. Overall, if leaders can demonstrate their willingness to understand an employee's general and cultural individual differences, leaders may be able to adapt on an individual employee basis, allowing them to create more personalized, and therefore preferred, feedback interactions across individual employees. If employees notice their leaders putting forth the effort to provide more individualized feedback environments specific to their feedback preferences, the employee is more likely to be more trusting of their leader and accepting of the performance feedback their leader provides to them. With increased amounts of trust in the employee's leader, and employee acceptance of the feedback received, this could then influence changed work behaviors resulting from the performance feedback. This research highlights the importance of leader cultural intelligence as a leader characteristic that potentially fuels better feedback and coaching relationships within the workplace, with organizations potentially being able to train leaders to be more culturally intelligent.

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Figure 1

Research Model
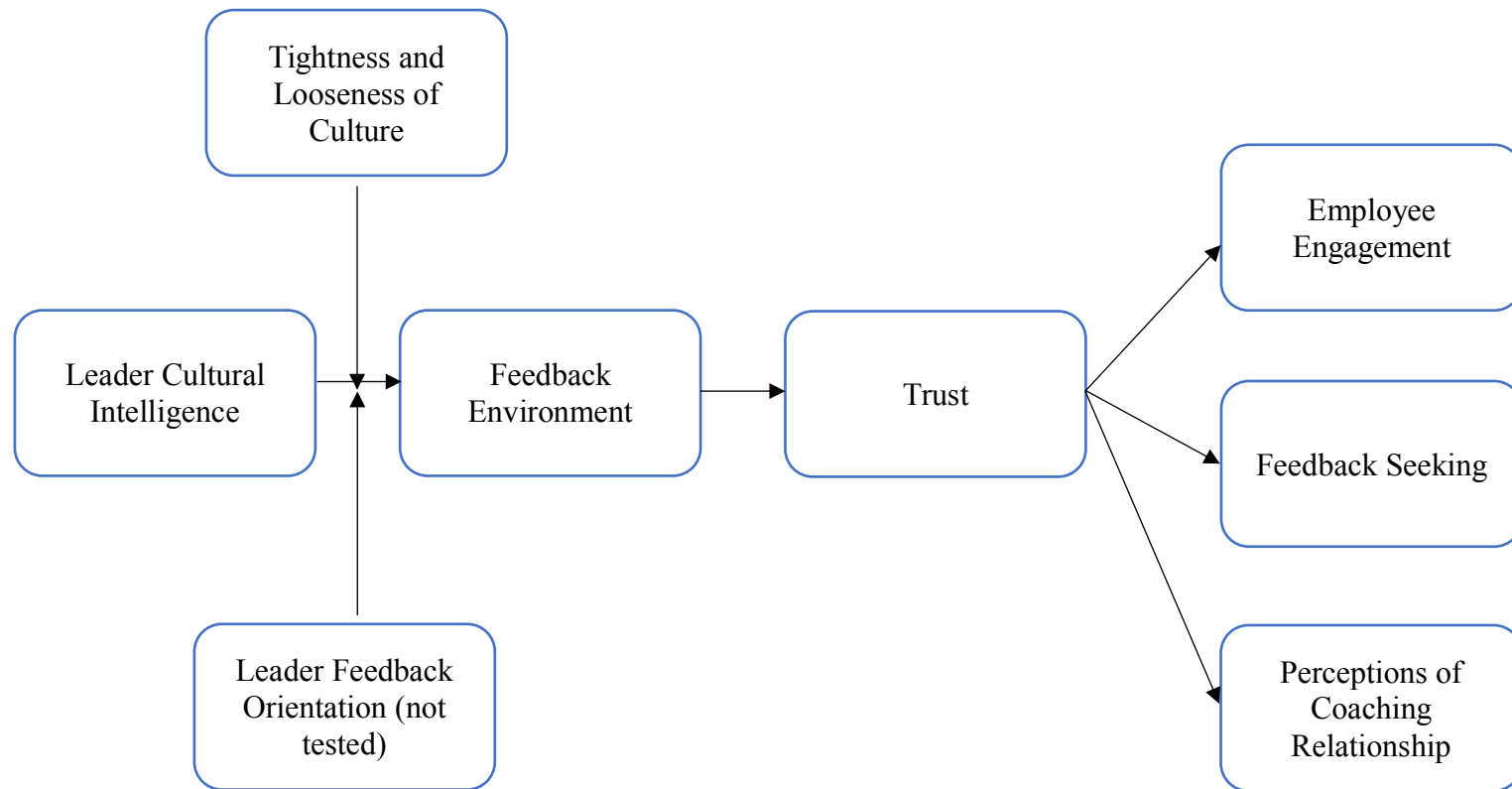
Figure 2

Tightness and Looseness of Culture Moderating the Relationship Between Perceptions of Leader Cultural Intelligence and Feedback Environment
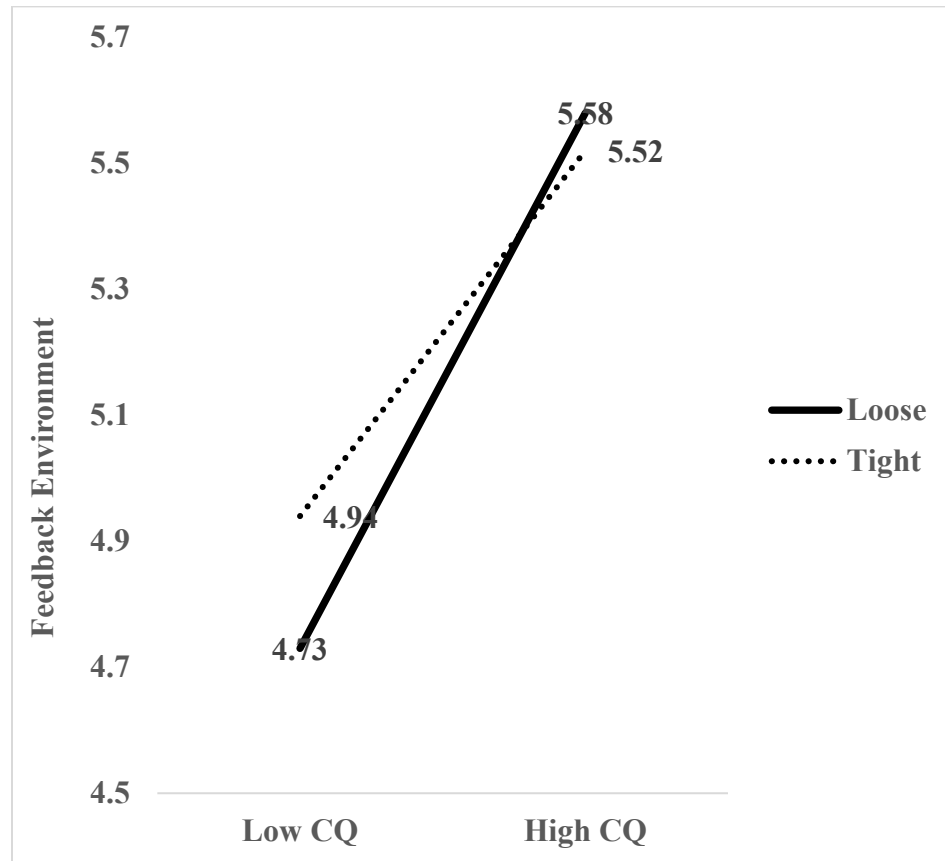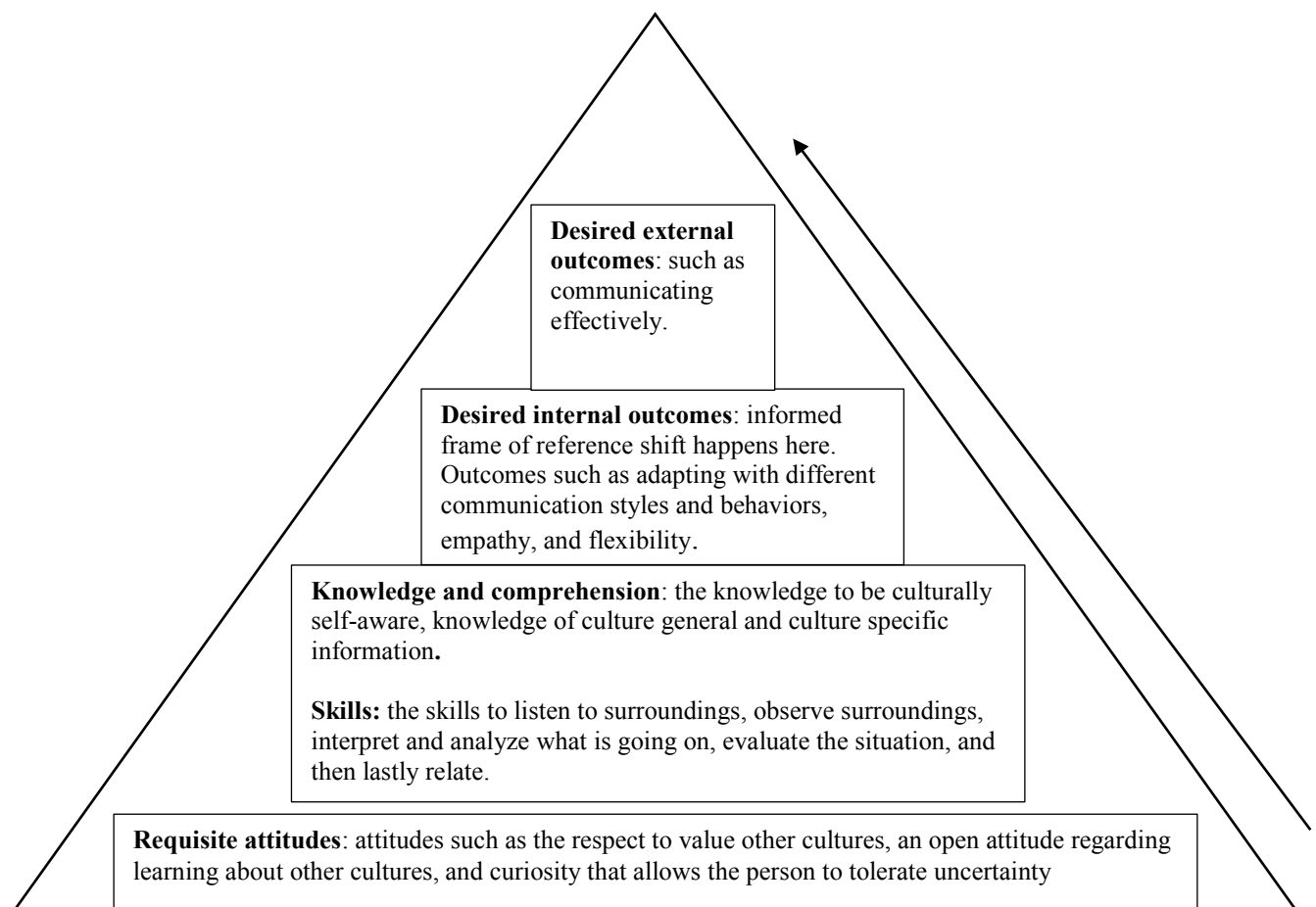
Appendix A: Comparison of Two Compositional Cultural Models Discussed in Literature Review

Model 1: Components of the Intercultural Competence Model by Howard Hamilton, Richardson, and Shuford (1998)

1. **Attitudes and values:** culturally competent or intelligent individuals value, or are motivated by, attitudes such as understanding their own group, equality of groups, and cultural interactions as contributing to quality of life.
2. **Knowledge**: the attitudes/values mentioned above will then inform or complement certain knowledge. For example, understanding people's different cultural identities and how cultural differences impact communication processes, something that is particularly relevant to the feedback process.
3. Skills: the attitudes, values, and knowledge mentioned above then inform or complement specific skills a person has, such as the skill to self-reflect, the skill to take the perspective of someone else in a cultural interaction, and the skill to communicate in cultural situations.

Model 2: This is a pyramid model where the lower levels complement the higher ones.

Desired external outcomes: such as communicating effectively.

Desired internal outcomes: informed frame of reference shift happens here. Outcomes such as adapting with different communication styles and behaviors, empathy, and flexibility.

Knowledge and comprehension: the knowledge to be culturally self-aware, knowledge of culture general and culture specific information.

Skills: the skills to listen to surroundings, observe surroundings, interpret and analyze what is going on, evaluate the situation, and then lastly relate.

Requisite attitudes: attitudes such as the respect to value other cultures, an open attitude regarding learning about other cultures, and curiosity that allows the person to tolerate uncertainty

Appendix B: How Feedback Environment Dimensions Map Onto Trust Dimensions

Trust Dimension #1: Ability	Trust Dimension #2: Benevolence	Trust Dimension #3: Integrity
FE #1: Source Credibility	FE #2: Feedback Delivery	FE #5: Feedback Quality
	FE #3: Source Availability	FE #6: Favorable Feedback
	FE #4: Promotes Feedback Seeking	FE #7: Unfavorable Feedback

Appendix C: Hypotheses and Results

Hypothesis Number	Hypothesis	Hypothesis Support
1	Perceptions of leader cultural intelligence will be positively associated with the feedback environment as rated by employees.	Supported
2	Feedback orientation will moderate the relationship between perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence and the feedback environment created, such that the relationship will be stronger for leaders with higher feedback orientation.	Not Tested
3	Tightness and looseness of culture will moderate the relationship between perceptions of a leader's cultural intelligence and the feedback environment created. Looser cultures (i.e., the employees in this study from the United States) will demonstrate a stronger positive relationship between the employee rated leader's cultural intelligence and the feedback environment created for employees when compared to tighter cultures (i.e., the employees in this study from India).	Partially Supported
4	There will be less variance in the feedback environment created by leaders in tight cultures (i.e., the Indian sample in this study) when compared to loose cultures (i.e., the American sample in this study).	Supported
5	The feedback environment will be positively related to trust in leader.	Supported
6	Trust in the leader will mediate the relationship between feedback environment and employee engagement.	Supported
7	Perceptions of leader cultural intelligence will be positively associated with employee feedback seeking.	Supported
8	Trust in the leader will mediate the relationship between feedback environment and feedback seeking.	Supported
9	Trust in the leader will mediate the relationship between feedback environment and employee perceptions of coaching relationship.	Supported

Appendix D: Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQ) (Adapted from Ang et al., 2006)

Metacognitive CQ:

1. My supervisor seems to be knowledgeable of different cultures.
2. My supervisor seems familiar with how behaviors and practices differ across cultures.

Motivational CQ:

3. My supervisor enjoys interacting with people from different cultures.
4. My supervisor is confident when interacting with people of different cultures.

Behavioral CQ:

5. My supervisor alters their behavior to have effective interactions with those of different cultures.
6. My supervisor can adjust their communication style when necessary.

Appendix E: Feedback Environment Scale (Steelman, et al., 2004)

Supervisor Feedback Source Credibility Dimension:

1. My supervisor is generally familiar with my performance on the job.
2. In general, I respect my supervisor's opinions about my job performance.
3. With respect to my job performance feedback, I usually do not trust my supervisor.
4. My supervisor is fair when evaluating my job performance.
5. I have confidence in the feedback my supervisor gives me.

Supervisor Feedback Quality Dimension:

6. My supervisor gives me useful feedback about my job performance.
7. The performance feedback I receive from my supervisor is helpful.
8. I value the feedback I receive from my supervisor.
9. The feedback I receive from my supervisor helps me do my job.
10. The performance information I receive from my supervisor is generally not very meaningful.

Supervisor Feedback Delivery Dimension:

11. My supervisor is supportive when giving me feedback about my job performance.
12. When my supervisor gives me performance feedback, he or she is considerate of my feelings.
13. My supervisor generally provides feedback in a thoughtless manner.
14. My supervisor does not treat people very well when providing performance feedback.
15. My supervisor is tactful when giving me performance feedback.

Supervisor Favorable Feedback Dimension:

16. When I do a good job at work, my supervisor praises my performance.
17. I seldom receive praise from my supervisor.
18. My supervisor generally lets me know when I do a good job at work.
19. I frequently receive positive feedback from my supervisor.

Supervisor Unfavorable Feedback Dimension:

20. When I do not meet deadlines, my supervisor lets me know.
21. My supervisor tells me when my work performance does not meet organizational standards.
22. On those occasions when my job performance falls below what is expected, my supervisor lets me know.
23. On those occasions when I make a mistake at work, my supervisor tells me.

Supervisor Source Availability Dimension:

24. My supervisor is usually available when I want performance information.
25. My supervisor is too busy to give me feedback.
26. I have little contact with my supervisor.
27. I interact with my supervisor on a daily basis.
28. The only time I receive performance feedback from my supervisor is during my performance review.

Supervisor Promoting Feedback Seeking Dimension:

29. My supervisor is often annoyed when I directly ask for performance feedback.
30. When I ask for performance feedback, my supervisor generally does not give me the information right away.
31. I feel comfortable asking my supervisor for feedback about my work performance.
32. My supervisor encourages me to ask for feedback whenever I am uncertain about my job performance.

Appendix F: Tightness and Looseness of Culture Scale (Gelfand et al., 2011)

1. There are many social norms that people are supposed to abide by in this country.
2. In this country, there are very clear expectations for how people should act in most situations.
3. People agree upon what behaviors are appropriate versus inappropriate in most situations in this country.
4. In this country, if someone acts in an inappropriate way, others will strongly disapprove.
5. People in this country always comply with social norms.

Appendix G: Trust Scale (Schoorman et al., 1996a)

Ability:

1. My supervisor is very capable of performing he/she's job.
2. My supervisor is known to be successful at the things he/she tries to do.
3. My supervisor has much knowledge about the work that needs done.
4. I feel very confident about my supervisor's skills.
5. My supervisor has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.
6. My supervisor is well qualified.

Benevolence:

7. My supervisor is very concerned about my welfare.
8. My needs and desires are very important to my supervisor.
9. My supervisor would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.
10. My supervisor really looks out for what is important to me.
11. My supervisor will go out of he/she's way to help me.

Integrity:

12. My supervisor has a strong sense of justice.
13. I never have to wonder whether my supervisor will stick to their word.
14. My supervisor tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.
15. My supervisor's actions and behaviors are not very consistent.
16. I like my supervisor's values.
17. Sound principles seem to guide my supervisor's behavior.

Appendix H: Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2006)

Vigor:

1. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
2. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.
3. At my work, I always persevere even when things do not go well.
4. I can continue working for very long periods at a time.
5. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.
6. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.

Dedication:

7. To me, my job is challenging.
8. My job inspires me.
9. I am enthusiastic about my job.
10. I am proud of the work that I do.
11. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.

Absorption:

12. When I am working, I forget everything else around me.
13. Time flies when I am working.
14. I get carried away when I am working.
15. It is difficult to detach myself from my job.
16. I am immersed in my work.
17. I feel happy when I am working intensely.

Appendix I: Feedback Seeking (Williams & Johnson, 2000)

1. How often do you ask your supervisor for information about what is required of you to function successfully on the job?
2. How often do you ask your supervisor how well you are performing on the job?
3. How often do you ask your supervisor for information about how well you are getting along with or fitting in with other workers?

Appendix J: Perceived Quality of Coaching Relationship Scale (Gregory & Levy, 2010)

Genuineness of the Relationship:

1. My supervisor and I have mutual respect for one another.
2. I believe that my supervisor truly cares about me.
3. I believe my supervisor feels a sense of commitment to me.

Effective Communication:

4. My supervisor is a good listener.
5. My supervisor is easy to talk to.
6. My supervisor is effective at communicating with me.

Comfort with the Relationship:

7. I feel at ease talking with my supervisor about my job performance.
8. I am content to discuss my concerns or troubles with my supervisor.
9. I feel safe being open and honest with my supervisor.

Facilitating Development:

10. My supervisor helps me to identify and build upon my strengths.
11. My supervisor enables me to develop as an employee of our organization.
12. My supervisor engages in activities that help me to unlock my potential.

Appendix K: Leader Member Exchange (LMX) (Graen & Uhl-Bein, 1995)

1. Do you know where you stand with your supervisor?
2. How well does your supervisor understand your job problems and needs?
3. How well does your supervisor recognize your potential?
4. Regardless of how much formal authority your supervisor has built into their position, what are the chances that your supervisor would use his/her power to help you solve problems?
5. Again, regardless of the amount of the formal authority your supervisor has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out" at his/her own expense?
6. I have enough confidence in my supervisor that I would defend/justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so?
7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your supervisor?

Appendix L: Demographics

1. What country are you from? _____

2. What country are you currently working in? _____

3. What is your highest level of completed education?
   High School
   Bachelors
   Masters
   PhD
   Other

4. What is your gender?
   Male
   Female
   Non-binary/third gender
   Prefer to self-describe
   Prefer not to say
   Transgender
   Cisgender
   Agender
   Genderqueer
   A gender not listed

5. Are you considered full time or part time at your current job? Full time is considered more than 35 hours per week.
   Full time
   Part time

6. How long have you worked at your company?
   Less than 6 months
   7 months to 1 year
   2 years to 3 years
   4 years to 5 years
   More than 6 years

7. What country is your supervisor from? _____

8. How long have you worked in your current job (in years)?
   Less than 6 months
   7 months to 1 year
   2 years to 3 years
   4 years to 5 years
   More than 6 years

9. How long have you worked with the same supervisor (in years)?
   Less than 6 months
   7 months to 1 year
   2 years to 3 years
   4 years to 5 years
   More than 6 years

10. How often do you interact with your supervisor?
    Once a day
    Once a week
    Once a month
    Less frequent than once per month

11. Which of the following best describes your job function?
    Administrative support
    Consulting
    Customer service
    Engineering
    Finance/accounting
    Human resources/training
    Manufacturing/assembly line
    Marketing/communications/advertising/public relations
    Professional (law, medical, etc.)
    Research and development
    Sales
    Service worker
    Skilled trade/craftsman
    Technical (IT/IS)
    Other

12. Which of the following best describes the organization you work for?
    Agriculture/forestry/fishing
    Business services (printing, shipping, etc.)
    Communications
    Computer and data processing services
    Construction
    Consulting and/or accounting firm
    Education
    Financial services/insurance
    Health services
    Hospitality/entertainment/recreation
    Manufacturing
    Non-profit/membership organization
    Personal services
    Public administration/government
    Real estate

Retail
Telecommunications
Transportation
Utilities
Other

13. Describe how the COVID-19 pandemic impacted your relationship with your supervisor.

_____