



# **Navigating Cultural Differences in the Workplace:**

## **The Impact of Abroad Experience on Overcoming Cultural Projection Bias in Global Leadership**

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## **Abstract**

**Title:** Navigating Cultural Differences in the Workplace: The Impact of Abroad Experience on Overcoming Cultural Projection Bias in Global Leadership

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A common problem in the workplace is the lack of behavioural flexibility of managers when dealing with international teams. This problem is often caused by cultural projection, a cognitive bias in which managers unconsciously transfer their own cultural perspective onto others. This leads to decisions that do not take sufficient account of cultural differences, which makes working in multicultural teams more difficult. The objective of this dissertation is to investigate whether experience abroad has an impact on the reduction of cultural projection and the improvement of decision-making in multicultural organisational contexts. To answer the research question, a quantitative study was conducted in the form of a survey among German participants. Two groups were analysed: participants with and without international experience. The results show that, on the one hand, people with international experience are less susceptible to cultural projection. On the other hand, this experience does not necessarily result in better cultural knowledge compared to those without international exposure. This suggests that, while international experience increases awareness of cultural differences, it does not automatically lead to more effective decision-making or better global leadership skills. Therefore, the study provides valuable implications for how organisations can leverage the international experience of their employees. At the same time, however, it shows that additional training is needed to further promote and develop intercultural competence and effective decision-making.

**Keywords:** Abroad Experience, Cultural Projection, Cultural Knowledge, Cultural Intelligence, Global Leadership

## **Sumário**

**Título:** Navegando as Diferenças Culturais no Ambiente de Trabalho: O Impacto da Experiência no Estrangeiro na Superação do Viés de Projeção Cultural na Liderança Global

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Um problema comum no ambiente de trabalho é a falta de flexibilidade comportamental dos gestores ao lidar com equipas internacionais. Esse problema é frequentemente causado pela projeção cultural, um viés cognitivo em que os gestores inconscientemente projectam a sua própria perspectiva cultural para os outros. Isso leva a decisões que não consideram suficientemente as diferenças culturais, dificultando o trabalho em equipas multiculturais. O objetivo desta dissertação é investigar se a experiência no estrangeiro tem impacto na redução da projeção cultural e na melhoria da tomada de decisões em contextos organizacionais multiculturais. Para responder à questão de investigação, foi realizado um estudo quantitativo na forma de um questionário a participantes alemães. Dois grupos foram analisados: participantes com e sem experiência internacional. Os resultados mostram que, por um lado, pessoas com experiência internacional são menos suscetíveis à projeção cultural. Por outro lado, essa experiência não resulta necessariamente em um conhecimento cultural superior em comparação com aqueles sem exposição internacional. Isso sugere que, embora a experiência internacional aumente a consciência sobre as diferenças culturais, ela não leva automaticamente a uma tomada de decisão mais eficaz ou a melhores habilidades de liderança global. Portanto, o estudo oferece implicações valiosas sobre como as organizações podem aproveitar a experiência internacional dos seus funcionários. Ao mesmo tempo, mostra que formações adicionais são necessárias para promover e desenvolver ainda mais a competência intercultural e a tomada de decisões eficaz.

**Palavras-chave:** Experiência no Exterior, Projeção Cultural, Conhecimento Cultural, Inteligência Cultural, Liderança Global

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## List of Abbreviations

&	And
AE	Abroad Experience
b	Regression coefficient
BIDR	Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding
CP	Culture Projection
CQ	Culture Intelligence
CQS	Culture Intelligence Scale
CK	Culture Knowledge
H	Hypothesis
HBPCL	Harvard Business Publishing Corporate Learning
IM	Impression management
KMO	Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin
M	Sample Mean
N	Total number
P	p-value
PCA	Principal components analysis
r	Pearson correlation coefficient
R <sup>2</sup>	Multiple correlation squared
SD	Standard Deviation
SDE	Self-deceptive enhancement
SE	Standard Error
CQS	Cultural Intelligence Scale.

# 1 Introduction

*“Being aware of your own culture and how it contrasts with others is a fundamental skill in international business.” (Meyer, 2014b)*

In today's globalized workplace, multicultural teams have become the norm (Yu et al., 2021). Such teams, made up of people from different cultural backgrounds, offer several advantages in the business world (Tasheva & Hillman, 2019). These include the potential for innovative problem-solving that is facilitated by the diversity of perspectives and experiences (Tasheva & Hillman, 2019). At the same time, these different perspectives can lead to misunderstandings and conflicts if interpreted incorrectly (Tasheva & Hillman, 2019). Global leadership, which describes the ability to lead effectively across different cultures (Mendenhall et al., 2012), is therefore not only a desirable skill, but an essential prerequisite for professional success. However, this effectiveness is highly dependent on the leader's decision-making process (Yunita et al., 2023). This can be explained by the fact that every action of the leader, whether it is giving feedback, expressing disapproval, or giving instructions, is based on the result of his or her decision-making process (Baker et al., 2001), which is rooted in cultural norms (Meyer, 2014b; Yates & de Oliveira, 2016).

According to a recent study by Harvard Business Publishing Corporate Learning (HBPCL, 2024), which involved interviews and a survey of more than 1,100 leadership and HR professionals, only 53% of participants rated their leaders as very effective. This indicates that nearly half of the leaders have difficulty adapting to the demands and complexities of their leadership roles. A key issue is a lack of behavioral flexibility: 62% of respondents perceived that their own leaders have problems in adapting their behavior (HBPCL, 2024). However, behavior flexibility is seen as one of the most critical skills for meeting the day-to-day challenges of business (Luo, 2021). The study further explains that leaders often make decisions through the unconscious lens of their own cultural perspective. In cognitive psychology, this phenomenon is known as cultural projection (Cho & Knowles, 2013; Yuan et al., 2022). In the context of global leadership, it means that leaders unconsciously project their cultural perspective onto others, rather than considering the specific cultural nuances of the team members (Yuan et al., 2022). This can lead to poor decisions or misunderstandings, especially

when cultural differences are significant. Avoiding this bias is therefore crucial to working more effectively in multicultural teams (Yuan et al., 2022).

Overcoming cultural projection requires leaders to recognize their cultural behavior patterns (Meyer, 2014, Zehnder 2012). In the academic literature, experience abroad is often seen as a solution for increasing cultural intelligence (CQ) and thereby developing a deeper understanding of other cultures (Chédru & Ostapchuk, 2023; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Iskhakova et al., 2022; Rivera-Mata, 2022). In the context of this, however, the bias of culture projection has not been addressed. My personal experience, resulting from six different experiences abroad, has shown me that I am, nevertheless, very susceptible to cultural misunderstandings. Against this background, the question arises as to what extent experiences abroad can help to minimize cultural projection or whether additional measures are required to effectively control these unconscious processes.

### **1.1 Problem Statement and Research Questions**

This dissertation aims to investigate whether abroad experiences reduce cultural projection and improve decision-making in cooperate multicultural contexts. More specifically, it seeks to examine the impact that international experience has on the tendency to see one's cultural norms as universal and to project them into intercultural interactions. Therefore, the main research question is:

Do experiences abroad contribute to the reduction of cultural projection and lead to more effective decision-making in multicultural corporate contexts?

To explore the research question, the following sub-questions are addressed:

**RQ1:** Is there a significant difference in the reduction of cultural projection between individuals with abroad experience compared to those without?

**RQ2:** Is there a significant difference in the enhancement of cultural knowledge between individuals with abroad experience compared to those without?

**RQ3:** Is a reduced cultural projection associated with improved cultural knowledge?

**RQ4:** To what extent does the nature of abroad experiences significantly influence the reduction of cultural projection?

**RQ5:** To what extent are individuals with abroad experience more self-aware of their competencies in functioning as global leaders compared to those without such experience?

A quantitative research design was used to answer these research questions. For this purpose, a survey was created and completed by German participants. CQ, as well as the tendency towards cultural projection and the application of cultural knowledge, was determined using a combination of self-report and objective tests.

## **1.2 Relevance of the Topic**

While many previous studies have already analyzed whether international experiences promote one's CQ (Chédru & Ostapchuk, 2023; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Iskhakova et al., 2022; Rivera-Mata, 2022), this paper takes one step further. Firstly, it examines if these experiences abroad are associated with any considerable reduction of their cultural projection and, secondly, if this reduction leads to more cultural adaptation in a multi-cultural business setting. Consequently, the study adds new insights by linking the reduction of cultural projection directly to abroad experience. Thirdly, the dissertation focuses on individuals with German nationality. Based on analyses conducted by the Federal Statistical Office (2024), 30% of all workers in Germany have a migration background and, as a result, have contact with at least two cultures. In light of the cultural diversity that characterizes the German labour market, the study provides valuable insights into the current state of cultural understanding in German business environments. Fourthly, this study uses more objective measurement tools than previous research to assess cultural knowledge and cultural projection. The combination of methods used in this study addresses a limitation already identified in the literature (Chédru & Ostapchuk, 2023). It has been noted that testing CQ with self-assessment scales may be prone to social desirability bias, which is why Chédru and Ostapchuk (2023) call for a combination of self-reporting and objective tests in future research. By adhering to it, the dissertation contributes to improved methodology in studying CQ and abroad experiences. Lastly, this study's findings could also have significant implications for managerial practice. For example, specific leadership development programs aimed at reducing cultural projection could potentially be designed based on the results. Furthermore, companies may use the findings to optimize the hiring process for global leadership positions, which might help make more accurate decisions. For a long time, abroad experience has been regarded as a valuable attribute for global leadership roles (Li et al., 2013). This study may offer new insights into the validity of this assumption.

### **1.3 Structure of the Dissertation**

The dissertation is subdivided into six chapters. The first, and current, chapter serves to introduce the topic and provide an initial impression into the subject matter. It presents the research objective, the research questions, the methodological approach, and the relevance of the topic. Chapter 2 reviews existing literature on the research topic. It explores key concepts such as global leadership, decision-making, and cultural impact on decisions. This chapter also shows the role of cultural projection in the decision-making process as a cognitive bias and the role of CQ in overcoming this bias. Additionally, the importance of experience abroad for developing CQ is discussed. The third chapter outlines the research methodology, divided into study design, participants, procedures, and variables. Following this, the fourth chapter presents the data analysis and the main study findings. The interpretation, along with the practical and theoretical implications of these findings, is provided in the fifth chapter. Furthermore, the fifth chapter addresses the limitations and offers suggestions for further research. Finally, Chapter 6 is the conclusion of the dissertation.

## **2 Literature Review**

### **2.1 Global Leadership**

Global leadership can be understood as the ability of an individual to lead teams across cultural boundaries and to act effectively in international environments (Mendenhall et al., 2012). Our current interconnected world is not only shaped by the disappearance of trade barriers, but the trend towards immigration also intensifies the formation of multicultural teams in companies, making global leaders crucially important (Radtke, 2022). Diversity within teams is a key element that significantly influences leaders' work. Research suggests that multicultural teams have an advantage in problem-solving due to various perspectives, knowledge, and skills (Rock & Grant, 2016). This ability to utilize diverse viewpoints is essential for addressing complex challenges in a global context (Y. Lee, 2012; Rock & Grant, 2016). However, leading and collaborating in multicultural teams presents specific challenges, such as understanding the complexity of cultural diversity (Y. Lee, 2012). A successful strategy involves adapting to these cultural differences and creating a work environment where all team members feel valued and understood (Y. Lee, 2012; Radtke, 2022). Thus, effective decision-making is central to global leadership. It significantly influences organizational efficiency and lies at the heart of management (Glover, 2014). Leaders enhance decision-making and team building by fostering fairness and reciprocal relationships and promoting teamwork (Yunita et al., 2023). In multicultural teams, leaders must skillfully integrate diverse perspectives to make effective decisions. Given the centrality of decision-making in leadership, it is crucial to understand how cultural differences influence this process. The following sections will explore the interaction between decision-making and culture, which is key to becoming an effective global leader.

### **2.2 Decision-Making**

#### ***2.2.1 The Concept of Decision-Making***

Daily, individuals are presented with a multitude of decisions, which they must either consciously or unconsciously choose between (Krajbich et al., 2015). In psychology, the decision-making process is described as a series of phases (Baker et al., 2001; Parkin, 1996). First, a problem or challenge must be identified (Baker et al., 2001). Subsequently, data is gathered to evaluate the viability of potential solutions (Baker et al., 2001). Ultimately, a decision is reached and implemented, resulting in an action (Baker et al., 2001). Moreover, as posited by Yates and de Oliveira (2016), there are various individual and environmental factors that can influence the decision-making process. Individual factors include personal

characteristics of the decision-maker, such as personality, while an example of environmental factors is the availability of information (Yates & de Oliveira, 2016). These internal and external factors affect conscious and unconscious cognitive processes that drive decision-making. The following section shows that actions can be the result of both conscious and unconscious decisions, with dual-process theories playing a central role.

### **2.2.2 System 1 and System**

For many years, researchers have studied how people make decisions in different situations (Gawronski et al., 2024). From this research, dual-process theories have emerged, suggesting that decisions are influenced by two distinct types of thinking processes: automatic and controlled (Gawronski et al., 2024; Gawronski & Creighton, 2013). Kahneman (2011) popularized these models in his book *Thinking, Fast and Slow*. He proposes that human thought processes can be divided into System 1 and System 2. His book explains that System 1 functions fast and automatically with minimal effort and without conscious control. Kahneman notes that System 1 makes decisions in seconds by relying on one's intuition and using mental shortcuts. This system constantly works in the background to interpret experiences, recognize patterns, and generate immediate reactions to familiar stimuli (Kahneman, 2011). In contrast, he describes System 2 as necessary for more complex and conscious decisions that require critical thinking. Kahneman explains that System 2 makes decisions by conducting complex analyses and making choices based on reason and evidence. Consequently, System 2 requires more energy. The interplay of both systems is summarized by Kahneman (2011) as follows: To save energy and work efficiently, the brain relies on System 1 as much as possible. If System 1 cannot solve a problem, System 2 kicks in. However, problems can arise because System 1's intuitive thinking is susceptible to cognitive biases (Kahneman, 2011; Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). As a result, if System 2 does not recognize and correct these biases, poor decisions will result.

### **2.2.3 Cognitive Bias in Global Leadership**

The term cognitive bias was introduced by Tversky and Kahneman (1974), who studied the systematic error of human judgment in connection with uncertainty in the early 1970s. According to them, cognitive biases are unconscious biases that arise through mental shortcuts, so-called heuristics. The brain uses these heuristics to speed up decision-making by drawing on past experiences, which enables information to be processed quickly (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). Although heuristics can be helpful in many contexts, there is a risk that they can lead to incorrect conclusions, mainly when applied in inappropriate situations (Kahneman, 2011;

Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). These wrong decisions can be especially fatal for leaders, as their decisions often have far-reaching effects on the organization and its stakeholders. Therefore, leaders need to understand the impact of cognitive biases and must actively work to mitigate their effects to promote effective decision-making processes (Knapp et al., 2021). This requires conscious efforts to overcome cognitive biases, such as gaining new experiences to expand their pool of mental shortcuts (Ng et al., 2009). Furthermore, awareness of one's own cognitive biases in decision-making situations can help stimulate the System 2 thought process, leading to more conscious and reflective decisions (Kahneman, 2011; Stanovich & West, 2008). It is important to understand that cognitive biases in decision-making can be influenced by many factors, including, for example, emotions (Lidén, 2020), social influences (Yates & de Oliveira, 2016), availability of information (Tversky & Kahneman, 1973), or cultural setting (Yingst, 2011). The latter is especially crucial to consider when working with multicultural teams.

## **2.3 Culture**

### ***2.3.1 The Concept of Culture***

In the academic discussion, the concept of culture is defined in a multitude of ways. Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1952) comprehensively analysed various definitions but failed to establish a unified one. Instead, they identified several commonalities that appear in many definitions. They concluded that culture is generally viewed as a societal construct characterized by sharing specific patterns manifesting in values, norms, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours. These elements allow people to be categorised into different groups (Black, 1990). The shared patterns are passed on within a social group or society and transmitted from generation to generation (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952). Given this multifaceted view of culture, various methodological approaches emerge in cultural research, aiming to categorize people according to their cultural affiliation. Some studies focus on classification based on countries or nations, while other researchers use ethnicity, origin, or religion as criteria for grouping (Hofstede, 2001; Inglehart & Baker, 2000; Meyer, 2014; Schwartz, 2008; Geertz, 2017). For the purposes of this dissertation, the concept of culture is defined based on nationality.

### ***2.3.2 Cultural Impact on Decision-Making***

Cultural influences appear in numerous aspects of the judgment and decision-making process, including how people pay attention to and interpret information, such as perceiving the need for decisions, handling uncertainties, evaluating options, and implementing decisions, to mention a few (Meyer, 2014b; Weber & Hsee, 2000; Weber & Morris, 2010; Yates & de

Oliveira, 2016). These influences manifest in people's actions and behaviors (Baker et al., 2001). In some cultures, people view almost every opportunity as a chance for decision-making, while in other cultures, people deem fewer situations as requiring decisions (Weber & Hsee, 2000; Yates & de Oliveira, 2016). Often, this difference comes down to varying thinking styles, such as holistic thinking in East Asian cultures versus analytical thinking in Western cultures (Na et al., 2010; Nisbett et al., 2001).

Profound cultural differences emerge when discussing who makes decisions and how they do it, as Meyer (2014b) and Hofstede (2001) have explored in their work. They have found that some cultures favor a consensual decision-making style, seeking comprehensive group agreement. According to Meyer and Hofstede, this style may delay the process but ensures rapid execution through existing consensus. Conversely, they observed that other cultures favor a top-down decision-making approach, where leaders often make decisions quickly and independently, allowing for more flexible adaptation to changing circumstances.

Additionally, when it comes to handling uncertainties and evaluating options, some cultures show a high tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity, adopting a more open approach to evaluating options (Weber & Hsee, 2000). In contrast, other cultures meticulously examine every aspect before deciding (Weber & Hsee, 2000). These cultural differences in decision-making significantly affect the efficiency and adaptability of decisions. They underscore leaders' crucial role in understanding and considering the cultural context to foster effective decision-making processes within a multicultural team environment (Yates & de Oliveira, 2016). However, it is not only crucial to comprehend the cultural nuances of others but also to acknowledge one's own cultural identity (Meyer, 2014b). Many decisions are influenced by biases that favor one's culture (American Psychological Association, 2018; Meyer, 2014b). Therefore, the impact of culture on decision-making also makes it susceptible to biases.

### ***2.3.3 Cultural Projection Bias***

Among the many biases identified in research, this study focuses primarily on cultural projection. In the literature, the term "projection" refers to two different cognitive biases. On the one hand, Loewenstein et al. (2003) use the term to describe an error in self-prediction in which individuals apply their current preferences to future events. On the other hand, the term is also utilized to delineate the tendency of individuals to project their own views and characteristics onto others (Cho & Knowles, 2013; Maner et al., 2005; Robbins & Krueger, 2005). In the context of this dissertation, the term projection is employed in this second sense. Specifically, projection becomes problematic when the similarity between oneself and others is

overestimated (Cho & Knowles, 2013), which is currently evident in the field of leadership when managers unconsciously make decisions based on their own perceptions (HBPCL, 2024). As this study examines the extent to which cultural factors influence the process of social projection, the term cultural projection is used (Gil, 2015; Johnson & Sink, 2015; Mason, 2004). Cultural projection occurs when an individual's cultural background influences their perceptions (Haddad et al., 2019), judgments (Yingst, 2011), and decisions (Lennon, 2012). Intercultural interactions can lead to misunderstandings and conflicts when individuals interpret the behavior of others based on the norms of their own culture (American Psychological Association, 2018.; Haddad et al., 2019; Yingst, 2011). Suppose a Western leader who values individual initiative and direct communication is leading a team that includes members from an East Asian culture, where collective decision-making and indirect communication are more common (Meyer, 2014b). The leader might unconsciously favor ideas and contributions from team members who exhibit Western communication styles, perceiving them as more assertive and innovative. Furthermore, in a globalized business environment, cultural projection can affect various areas, including workplace dynamics, social relationships, teamwork, and business negotiations (Ferraro & Briody, 2017; Thompson & Wildavsky, 1986). Thus, the awareness and understanding of this cognitive bias is crucial for promoting an inclusive and appreciative work environment in an increasingly interconnected world (Thompson & Wildavsky, 1986). In this context, various theoretical models and approaches provide valuable insights for systematically analyzing and managing cultural differences (Hofstede, 2001; Kaasa, 2021; Meyer, 2014b).

#### **2.3.4 *Erin Meyer's Cultural Dimensions***

In this study, Meyer's (2014b) cultural dimensions model is used to identify cultural projection and cultural adaptation. This model, known as the "Culture Map", aims to increase cultural sensitivity in the professional context by enabling the recognition and effective management of cultural differences (Meyer, 2014b). Meyer developed her model based on empirical research and numerous interviews with people of different nationalities (Meyer, 2014b). However, the idea of explaining cultural differences using dimensions is not new. Several other researchers, such as Hofstede, Trompenaars, and Hall, have also made significant contributions in this field and served as a foundation for Meyer's model (Di Benedetto & Song, 2008; Hall, 1976; Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 2012; Hofstede, 1980; Meyer, 2014b). But, unlike Hofstede's model (1980), for example, which examines broad national cultures, Meyer focuses more on specific behaviors and communication patterns relevant to everyday business

interactions (Hofstede, 1980; Meyer, 2014a, 2014b). The dimensions are designed to help managers and international teams avoid misunderstandings and foster better collaboration (Meyer, 2014b). Thus, the Culture Map contributes more effectively to the research goal, focusing on cultural projection and culture adaptation in the professional field.

Overall, Meyer (2014b) describes eight cultural dimensions: Communicating, Evaluating, Persuading, Leading, Deciding, Trusting, Disagreeing, and Scheduling. In the Communicating (low-context vs. high-context) dimension, low-context cultures prefer to communicate directly, precisely, and clearly, while high-context cultures communicate more indirectly, with the interpretation of the context of a message being crucial. When it comes to Evaluating (direct negative feedback vs. Indirect negative feedback) countries differ in how feedback and criticism are communicated. In some cultures, feedback is given directly and openly, while in others, it is expressed more indirectly. The Persuading (principles-first vs. applications-first) dimension varies across cultures in that some cultures support arguments with theoretical principles, while applications-oriented cultures prefer practical examples and applications. Furthermore, in the Leading dimension (egalitarian vs. hierarchical), an egalitarian leadership approach is characterized by flat hierarchies, whereas hierarchical approaches have clear rankings. In terms of Deciding (consensual vs. top-down), consensual cultures seek group agreement, while top-down cultures have decisions made by individual leaders. The approach to building trust also differs across cultures (task-based vs. relationship-based). In task-based cultures, trust is earned through the completion of tasks and responsibilities. In relationship-based cultures, building a personal bond is crucial for establishing trust. In the Disagreeing dimension (confrontational vs. avoids confrontation), differences are also revealed. Confrontational cultures value open disagreement, while other cultures consider this harmful to relationships and prefer to avoid conflict. Finally, the Scheduling dimension (linear-time vs. flexible-time) highlights the importance of understanding whether time is perceived linearly, with an emphasis on structured and strict planning, or more flexibly and reactively.

All these dimensions are indicated on scales to quantify the differences in cultural preferences (Meyer, 2014b). This implies that the cultural preferences of a country do not necessarily have to be assigned to an extreme end of the dimension but can rather be positioned along this scale (Meyer, 2014b). Furthermore, Meyer has also developed two tools. The "Country Mapping Tool" visualizes how different countries are positioned along the dimensions and is used to highlight cultural differences (Meyer, 2014c). With the "Personal Profile Tool," individuals can assess their cultural preferences and behaviors and compare them with other team members or

to the standardized preference of their nation and other countries by checking the Country Mapping Tool (Meyer, 2014a). This requires participants to complete a 24-question questionnaire in which they rate statements related to the dimensions on a scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". An example of how Germany is placed on the cultural map is shown in Appendix A.

While Meyer's model provides valuable insights into various cultural dimensions, developing strategies to manage these cultural differences effectively is crucial. One effective approach to reducing cultural bias is to develop CQ (Ang et al., 2007; Richard-Eaglin, 2021).

### ***2.3.5 Cultural Intelligence***

Cultural intelligence (CQ) is the ability to communicate and work effectively with individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds by adapting to the cultural preferences of the host nation (Earley & Ang, 2003). CQ involves the knowledge and understanding of how people from different cultures act and think (Cambridge University Press, 2024). This ability is critical in the globalized world, as the cultural influence on business and the cooperation of international teams is very important (S. Ang et al., 2015; Cambridge University Press, 2024.; Jyoti & Kour, 2017). Furthermore, CQ is defined by Ang et al. (2015) as culture-free, as it is based on general skills such as understanding, adaptability, and communicating that are useful in any cultural environment. This indicates that CQ facilitates flexibility and openness to new cultural experiences, as well as the capacity to make informed decisions that respect cultural differences. In addition, researchers understand CQ as a multidimensional construct (Earley & Ang, 2003; Greischel et al., 2020; Svetina et al., 2018; Van Dyne et al., 2015). In 2003, Earley and Ang developed the "Cultural Intelligence Model," which builds on Detterman and Sternberg's (1986) work and identifies four components that comprise CQ. The four components of CQ are as follows: motivational CQ indicates a person's motivational drive to act in intercultural situations; cognitive CQ is defined as the knowledge an individual possesses about the cultural practices and norms of other cultures; metacognitive CQ pertains to an individual's awareness and regulation of their cultural perspectives during intercultural interactions; lastly, behavioral CQ represents the capacity to engage in appropriate verbal and non-verbal conduct when interacting with individuals from other cultural backgrounds.

Moreover, a study by Ang et al. (2007) found that cognitive CQ and metacognitive CQ are particularly relevant for effective judgment and decision-making. They explain it due to the fact that an understanding of other cultures and an awareness of their similarities and differences impacts phase 1, problem identification, and phase 2, solution evaluation, of the decision-

making process. However, cultural knowledge alone is insufficient because, without metacognitive CQ, there can be no conscious awareness of cultural preferences before and during interactions (Ang et al., 2007). Based on their explanation, it can be predicted that these two dimensions contribute positively to cultural projection avoidance. According to Kahneman (2011), it can be explained that higher cognitive CQ serves to develop well-informed mental shortcuts. Thus, in line with the research by Ang et al. (2007), this dimension should contribute to the quality of quick judgments. Metacognitive CQ should support the activation of System 2 because it allows us to think more consciously about cultural differences before making a decision. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H1: Individuals with higher cognitive and metacognitive CQ are less susceptible to cultural projection bias.

To measure the dimensions of CQ, Ang et al. (2007) devised the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS). The CQS is a questionnaire covering different aspects of the four dimensions. In a self-assessment, candidates are asked to choose the items that best define them. Many researchers have used the CQS in their studies to measure CQ, making it a valuable tool (Ang et al., 2007; Greischel et al., 2020; Svetina et al., 2018; Van Dyne et al., 2015). However, the original CQS items showed high correlations between some dimensions, which raised concerns about their discriminant validity (Furrer et al., 2015). As a result, new scales with fewer items have been recommended to provide a more precise analysis of CQ (Furrer et al., 2015).

It can be argued that CQ is an essential skill for overcoming cultural projection. A review of the literature reveals that contact with diverse national cultures is a primary factor in the development of CQ (Engle & Crowne, 2014; Michailova & Ott, 2018; Rivera-Mata, 2022). For this reason, experience abroad can make a decisive contribution to breaking down cultural biases and enhancing intercultural competence.

## **2.4 Abroad Experience**

Abroad experiences are any experiences a person has gained abroad (McKay et al., 2022). Whether through vacation trips, study abroad, or working overseas, these experiences allow individuals to immerse themselves in new cultures (McKay et al., 2022). According to Kolb (1984), direct experiences and reflection on them are not just crucial, but the very essence of

learning. Therefore, people can learn new norms, values, and beliefs by actively immersing themselves in a new culture and reflecting on their experiences (Crowne, 2008a). This active engagement in the learning process is also supported by numerous studies that show that living abroad leads to higher CQ in all four dimensions (Fang et al., 2018; McKay et al., 2022; Remhof et al., 2013). Based on these results, it can be assumed that people who have been abroad will also show an increase in CQ. Hence the following hypothesis:

H2: Individuals with abroad experiences have a significantly higher metacognitive CQ (H2a), cognitive CQ (H2b), motivational CQ (H2c), and behavioral CQ (H2b) than Individuals without.

In the field of international career development, abroad experiences have been identified as a powerful tool for developing global leadership skills (Fey, 2020; Ng et al., 2009). This is due, mainly, to the fact that individuals who go abroad will be confronted with new cultural challenges (Ng et al., 2009). Some of these challenges concern the differentiation of cultural norms, as discussed by Meyer (2014b) in her cultural dimensions. Nevertheless, regardless of the professional context, for which Meyer has developed her dimensions, actions such as communicating, evaluating or disagreeing occur in everyday life (Meyer, 2014b). It can, therefore, be assumed that, by immersing themselves in a foreign culture, individuals gain insight into how different cultures shape and handle these dimensions, which would benefit them in a role as global leaders. For instance, knowing the difference between low-context and high-context communication, as described by Meyer (2014b), allows individuals to adapt their communication style effectively, which is a crucial skill for global leaders (Y. Lee, 2012; Radtke, 2022). Additionally, Ng et al. (2009) describe the acquisition of culture knowledge as an expansion and adaptation of mental models that serve to avoid biases in perception and judgment. It can thus be posited that biases that may arise during actions along the Meyers (2014b) cultural dimensions can be mitigated by abroad experiences. In this study only the following five dimensions are analysed: Communicating, Evaluating, Disagreeing, Deciding and Trusting. One reason for the reduced number of dimensions is that the study was to be kept as short as possible to make the study easy to carry out and to achieve the largest possible sample size. Including all dimensions would have made the survey longer. However, longer surveys run the risk of participants dropping out or answering the questions less carefully

(Hoerger, 2010). Another reason is that I assume that the activities that occur in the omitted dimensions of Scheduling, Leading, and Persuading are more likely to be learned in a professional context. As this study covers all international experiences and not just work-related experiences, these dimensions were not included. Based on the selection of these five dimensions, this dissertation analyses the influence of experiences abroad on the development of cultural knowledge and the reduction of cultural projection, as well as whether CQ mediates this relationship. Hypotheses 3, 4, 5 are as stated below:

H3: Individuals with abroad experience will exhibit lower cultural projection in the decision-making process across the dimensions of Communicating (H3a), Evaluating (H3b), Deciding (H3c), Trusting (H3d), and Disagreeing (H3e).

H4: The relationship between abroad experience and cultural projection is mediated by the CQ dimensions.

H5: Individuals with abroad experience will exhibit higher cultural knowledge across the dimensions of Communicating (H5a), Evaluating (H5b), Deciding (H5c), Trusting (H5d), and Disagreeing (H5e).

It is also important to note that abroad experiences can vary significantly. A variety of activities abroad have been examined as part of the investigation into the impact of living abroad on CQ. Such activities include, for example, international education (Chédru & Ostapchuk, 2023; Malay et al., 2022; McRae et al., 2016) or work assignments (Crowne, 2008b; Koo Moon et al., 2012). Previous research has discovered that the degree of impact of CQ differs according to the type (Pasztor, 2021). Additionally, studies were conducted to examine the impact of length of stay. It has been argued that a longer stay has a better effect on CQ than a short-term stay (Li et al., 2013; Pasztor, 2021; Tarique & Takeuchi, 2008; Tay et al., 2008). Another decisive factor is interaction with locals (Koo Moon et al., 2012). Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory suggests that more intensive experiences have a positive influence on the learning process. Accordingly, the learning of other perspectives is stronger with more frequent intercultural

contact (Koo Moon et al., 2012). Based on this, it can be hypothesized that the type, length, and level of contact with locals during international experience affect culture projection:

H6: The nature of activities during abroad experiences influences the degree of cultural bias reduction.

H7: Long-term abroad experiences lead to a greater reduction in cultural projection bias.

H8: Individuals who have more frequent contact with locals during their time abroad will exhibit lower levels of cultural projection.

Finally, abroad experience is found to increase people's interest in other cultures (Norris & Gillespie, 2009) and their self-efficacy (Mazur & Woodland, 2017), which is a person's confidence in their abilities (Bandura, 1997). Both of these factors are beneficial for leading intercultural teams, as people with international experience are more likely to be able to cope with cultural challenges (Ng et al., 2009). Accordingly, people with abroad experiences might be expected to make fewer mistakes when applying for a position as a global leader, as they already have a realistic picture of what to expect in this role. Therefore, they might be more confident in their ability to work as a global leader. Thus, the final hypothesis is:

H9: Individuals with higher CQ will exhibit higher confidence in their ability to work as global leaders.

### **3 Methodology**

#### **3.1 Study Design**

A quantitative, correlational research design was selected to examine the relationship between experience abroad and the reduction of cultural projection. The reason for choosing this quantitative approach is that the study builds on previous research and reproduces other studies investigating the influence of living abroad on CQ using the same research design (Adam et al., 2018; Deardorff, 2006). This not only ensures the comparability of the results with the existing literature but also strengthens the validity and reliability of the study itself (Almeida et al., 2017). By replicating and confirming previous research findings, the study can contribute to consolidating and expanding the current state of knowledge. However, instead of conducting long-term studies as many other researchers on the topic of experience abroad, this master's thesis employs a cross-sectional study design (Adam et al., 2018; Deardorff, 2006; Nguyen et al., 2018).

#### **3.2 Participants**

The survey participants were exclusively recruited through the Prolific platform which enabled a rapid collection of high-quality data. Participation required a Prolific account, and participants were compensated based on the survey duration. A prerequisite for participation was the German nationality. This decision facilitated the analysis of cultural biases, as the values only needed to be compared with a single home country. Therefore, Prolific was configured to allow only Germans to complete the questionnaire. Additionally, two groups were included for comparison to investigate the research questions: one with abroad experience and one without. Between August 14 and 17, 2024, 189 people participated in the survey. The average compensation was £8.29 per hour, and participants took an average of 7 minutes and 14 seconds to complete the survey. Participants were screened, excluding ten who either did not have German nationality or did not fully complete the questionnaire. Of the remaining 179 participants, 3 did not correctly answer the attention-check question, 6 had lived in countries abroad for which there was no data in the Culture Map, such as Congo or Kazakhstan, and one outlier was removed. The outlier was detected because the participant consistently selected "strongly agree" for all items in both CQS and the Personal Profile Tool. Ultimately, 169 participants were included in the final analysis, including 94 men, 72 women, and 3 non-binary individuals. The participants' age distribution showed that the largest age groups were under 35 – 44 (35.5 %) followed by 25 – 34 (34.3%). Regarding education level, 65.1% of participants

had higher education and had attended university: 27.8% had a bachelor's degree, 30.2% had a master's degree, and 7.1% had a doctorate. Aside from all participants holding German nationality, the majority (97.6%) also indicated having spent their childhood in Germany. Furthermore, 13% of participants reported being culturally influenced by another country. Overall, 87% of participants were primarily familiar with only German culture, which simplifies further analysis.

### **3.3 Procedure**

A survey was created in German and hosted on Qualtrics, ensuring easy access and data security for participants (Qualtrics, 2024.). Prior to data collection, participants were informed of the purpose of the study and informed consent was obtained. Following this, the main part of data collection began, divided into six sections: 1) a demographic section, 2) the self-reported CQS (Furrer et al., 2015), 3) a questionnaire on abroad experience, 4) a questionnaire to assess cultural awareness according to Meyer's Culture Map (2014b), 5) a scale to measure socially desirable responding, and 6) two questions about global leadership. A copy of the survey translated into English used can be found in Appendix B. In the following sections, the individual survey blocks will be explained in more detail.

### **3.4 Variables Measurement**

*Demographics.* At the beginning, participants were asked about their age, gender, employment status, and educational level. These variables help create a detailed profile of the participants, allowing for a nuanced analysis of how different backgrounds might influence cultural attitudes. In addition to the basic demographic questions, the cultural context that has shaped the individuals was also considered. This is because experiences with various cultures can significantly influence a person's behavior (Meyer, 2014b). Besides the country of origin, other factors, such as the culture of the parents, can also have a significant impact. To accurately capture the cultural background of each participant and utilize it for further analysis, three questions were included: 1) the nationality, 2) the country where the participant spent most of their childhood, and 3) any other countries with which the participants culturally identify (Leonhardt, 2022).

*Culture Intelligence.* The next step involved testing the participants' CQ. This test does not directly indicate the presence of cultural bias; rather, it allows individuals to self-assess their level of CQ. The CQS (Ang et al., 2007) was used for this purpose, as it remains a reliable tool for measuring CQ (Van Dyne et al., 2015). However, not all questions from the original version

were used. Instead, a revised version by Furrer et al. (2015) was implemented. These researchers found that some items in the original CQS had low factor loadings or loaded onto multiple dimensions, affecting measurement accuracy, and thus removed eight questions. In total 12 items were used for the scale that measure the four CQ dimensions on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 7. Although, in line with Ang et al. (2007), only metacognitive and cognitive CQ are associated with bias, all four CQ dimensions were selected in this study to provide a more comprehensive assessment of CQ and to test Ang et al. (2007) theory in a broader context, considering the potential impact of motivational and behavioral CQ.

*Abroad Experience.* In the next section, participants were asked if they had ever lived in a country other than their homeland. This question aimed to identify two groups: those with and those without abroad experiences, serving as a key variable for further analysis. Those with abroad experiences were also asked about the country where they felt most culturally immersed in and which influenced their personal growth. Participants without abroad experience were instead asked to select a country whose culture they were most familiar with. This allows for an examination, using Meyer's Culture Map (Meyer, 2014b), of whether participants have acquired cultural knowledge about the host country or if those without abroad experience have comparable cultural awareness. Additionally, for those who had experience abroad, the duration of the stay (less than 3 months, 3 to less than 6 months, 6 to less than 9 months, 9 to less than 12 months, or 12 months or more) and the nature of the activities (such as student exchange program, high school year, studies, internship, volunteer work, full-time employment, part-time employment, language course, work and travel, research, or au pair), with multiple responses allowed for the nature of the activities, were inquired.

*Cultural Projection.* Meyer's Personal Profile (Meyer, 2014b) was used to examine cultural projection. In this study, however, Meyer's tool was modified to investigate if individuals exhibit cultural projection bias. Instead of focusing only on themselves, participants with and without abroad experience were asked how they would behave knowing their counterpart was from another country—the country they have selected as the country with which they were more familiar or were more immersed in, as explained in the previous section. The modified questions were taken from Meyer's assessment test (Meyer, 2014c). But, instead of focusing on all dimensions, the following were selected: Communicating, Evaluating, Deciding, Trusting, and Disagreeing. Based on these dimensions, 15 items were captured using a 5-point

Likert scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 5, and were used in the analysis.

*Global Leadership.* Moreover, participants were asked two questions to explore the relationship between abroad experience and global leadership. All participants rated how competent they felt leading a multicultural team on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 "not competent at all" = 1 to "very competent" = 5. Those with abroad experience were additionally asked whether they believed this experience had increased their competence in working with multicultural teams. Participants without abroad experience were asked if they thought such an experience would positively impact their competence level. The responses to both questions were also collected using a 5-point scale, ranging from "definitely not" = 1 to "definitely yes" = 5, aiming to assess whether and how abroad experiences enhance confidence in working with diverse teams."

*Social Desirability.* Finally, to control for social desirability bias, the study used the BIDR Short Scale (Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding) (Winkler et al., 2006). This scale was selected because it has been validated with German participants, ensuring its appropriateness for this context. The BIDR Short Scale effectively measures two aspects of social desirability: self-deceptive enhancement (SDE) and impression management (IM) (Winkler et al., 2006). The BIDR Short Scale includes three questions for SDE and three questions for IM. Each of these questions was measured on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from "does not apply at all" = 1 to "fully applies" = 7.

## 4 Results

### 4.1 Data Preparation

IBM SPSS was used to analyze the collected data comprehensively. The first step involved data transformation and aggregation. For categorical demographic data, data aggregation was specifically performed on groups with fewer than 20 individuals. Gender was transformed into a binary variable by categorizing three participants, who had indicated being non-binary, as female. Thus, gender was coded as 1 for males and 0 for females and non-binary. Regarding the question about the country where participants spent most of their childhood, and that is not Germany, only four participants indicated a country. Due to this small number of responses, fewer than 20, this variable was excluded from further analysis. Additionally, 22 participants indicated that they were impacted by a country other than Germany. As each country had fewer than 20 participants, they were combined into a single group. A dummy variable was thus created: 0 for no impact and 1 for impact. This applies to all participants, regardless of whether they had an abroad experience or not. The duration of stays was categorized into two groups: 0 for less than 12 months and 1 for more than 12 months. For activities, categories such as "part-time," "full-time," "internship," "voluntary work," "work & travel", and "au pair" were combined into work, while "research," "exchange school," and "studies abroad" were grouped under study. Additionally, education levels were coded into a binary variable indicating whether participants had a university degree (0 = no, 1 = yes). Occupation was analyzed to determine which participants were employed (0 = no, 1 = yes). Age groups were aggregated and coded into two dummy variables: under 35, 35–44, with above 44 serving as baseline category. Similarly, the countries selected by participants for the CQS were grouped and coded into two dummy variables based on the frequency of selection: United Kingdom, USA, with other countries as baseline category. This grouping was applied consistently across both participants with and without abroad experience, without distinguishing between the two groups. Furthermore, responses from text fields related to education, occupation, and activities were carefully evaluated and assigned to the appropriate categories, enhancing the data's completeness and accuracy.

To analyze cultural projection bias, the deviation method was applied, specifically using the absolute deviation to ensure that all differences are treated as positive values (Khare et al., 2023). In this method, one measure of cultural projection is the difference between the participants' scores and the cultural truth of the country they have selected, referred to as culture knowledge (CK). Low scores in CK suggest good cultural adaptation, as participants are

accurately aligning their understanding with the cultural norms of the selected country. Another measure from this method, termed cultural projection (CP), represents the difference between the participants' scores and their original culture, indicating the extent to which participants project their original culture onto a new culture. In this context, low scores in CP indicate strong cultural projection, meaning that participants are heavily projecting their original culture onto a new culture. These absolute deviations were calculated for all five dimensions: Communicating, Evaluating, Disagreeing, Deciding, and Trusting.

## **4.2 Scale Assessment**

The second step prior to the actual data analysis involved assessing the scales used in the study. To ensure consistency, several items in the CQS and BIDR short-scale were reverse-coded so that all items aligned in the same direction. The assessment process included conducting a principal components analysis (PCA) with varimax orthogonal rotation, followed by the calculation of Cronbach's  $\alpha$ . PCA was employed to identify and filter the distinct constructs measured by the scales, ensuring that the items were grouped into their respective factors. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was employed to assess the reliability and the internal consistency of each identified factor (Tate, 2003; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

For the CQS, PCA was run on 12 items. The overall KMO measure was .83 indicating a meritorious level of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1974). All individual KMO values exceeded .75, well above the acceptable threshold of 0.5. In addition, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity confirmed that the data are suitable for factorization, with a p-value of less than .001 (Field, 2018). PCA yielded three components with eigenvalues exceeding one, collectively accounting for 62.02% of the variance. The scree plot was ambiguous, displaying inflections that suggested retaining either two or four factors, but based on literature indicating four components—metacognitive, cognitive, behavioral, and motivational CQ—a four-factor model was retained, explaining 70% of the variance. Varimax orthogonal rotation was applied for better interpretability, with variables loading onto their intended factors as expected. Although the items "I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures" and "I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations" loaded on two components, they each had a significant loading on their intended factor. The reliability of the scale was tested, and all constructs demonstrated high reliability, with an average Cronbach's  $\alpha$  of .77 (Bland & Altman, 1997). Subsequently, four new variables were created by averaging the items within each identified factor. For further details of the factor analysis see Appendix C.

The PCA for the BIDR short scale showed a KMO measure of .66, indicating a "mediocre" level of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1974). Furthermore, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity exhibited a statistically significant result ( $p < .001$ ), thereby confirming the suitability of the data for PCA. The correlation matrix further supported this, with all values at or above 0.3, and anti-image correlations exceeding .61 (Field, 2018). PCA identified two principal components with eigenvalues exceeding one. These components are responsible for explaining 55.77% of the total variance. The rotated factor matrix demonstrated that all items related to self-deceptive enhancement loaded onto the SDE factor, and all items related to impression management loaded onto the IM factor, consistent with Winkler's et al. (2006) model. The reliability of the factors was assessed using Cronbach's  $\alpha$ . The IM factor had a Cronbach's  $\alpha$  of .53, and the SDE factor had a Cronbach's  $\alpha$  of .59. While these values do not meet the generally recognised threshold of  $> 0.70$  for Cronbach's  $\alpha$  (Cortina, 1993), they are very close to the original values reported in Winkler's reliability testing (IM: .55, SDE: .60) and still higher than what is reported in the literature for other social desirability scales, such as the MC-Scale or the full BIDR (Winkler et al., 2006). Therefore, the consistency is sufficient for further analysis. For each factor, the average of the items within that factor was calculated.

### **4.3 Descriptive Statistics**

Of the 169 participants, 47.3% already had experience abroad, while 53.7% did not, providing a relatively balanced group for further analysis. The central destination countries for those with abroad experience were the United Kingdom (18.3%) and the USA (7.7%). Among these participants, 70% stayed abroad for more than 12 months. Multiple-choice responses about activities abroad revealed that 76.3% of participants who went abroad engaged in work activities, while 33.6% pursued study activities. Additionally, 22 participants combined both work and study during their time abroad. Participants reported having a lot to very much contact with locals ( $M = 4.31$ ,  $SD = 0.91$ ) on a scale ranging from 1 to 5. For answering the questions of the Personal Profile tool, across all participants, 24.9% chose the UK and 18.3% selected the USA as reference country. The remaining participants chose other countries. Moreover, the participants demonstrated an average CQ score of 4.82 across all four CQ factors, with a standard deviation of 0.822, on a scale ranging from 1 to 7.

When it comes to global leadership, participants with abroad experience expressed a somewhat stronger belief in their competence in leading a multicultural team ( $M = 3.35$ ,  $SD = 0.929$ )

compared to individuals without such experience ( $M = 3.18$ ,  $SD = 1.05$ ). An independent samples  $t$ -test was conducted, showing no significant difference between the groups,  $t(167) = 1.11$ ,  $p = .268$ . This result indicates that, while there is a slight descriptive difference in perceived competence, it is not statistically significant, suggesting that abroad experience may not be a strong factor in influencing participants' confidence in their global leadership abilities. Additionally, both groups believe that abroad experience can enhance leadership competence, with this belief being, descriptively, slightly stronger among those without abroad experience ( $M = 4.28$ ,  $SD = 0.657$ ) than among those with such experience ( $M = 4.24$ ,  $SD = 0.815$ ). However, another independent sample  $t$ -test demonstrated that this discrepancy was not statistically significant either,  $t(167) = -0.383$ ,  $p = .702$ .

Finally, an examination of the BIDR short scale revealed that participants generally tend to provide socially desirable responses. On the SDE dimension, the mean score was  $M = 4.85$  ( $SD = 0.89$ ), and on the IM dimension, the mean was  $M = 4.79$  ( $SD = 1.22$ ). With a scale ranging from 1 to 7 and a midpoint of 4, these scores indicate a moderate to high tendency toward socially desirable responses. Furthermore, a one-sample  $t$ -test confirmed that SDE,  $t(168) = 12.44$ ,  $p < .001$ , and IM,  $t(168) = 8.39$ ,  $p < .001$ , were significantly above the midpoint of 4, with mean differences of 0.85 (95% CI [0.72, 0.99]) and 0.79 (95% CI [0.60, 0.97]), respectively. A bivariate correlation matrix, detailing the relationships between the study's variables, can be found in Appendix D.

#### **4.4 Hypotheses Testing**

The following section presents the results of the hypothesis testing. To examine the reduction of cultural projection and the development of cultural knowledge, the variables CP and CK are analyzed, both measured as absolute difference values. These values indicate the degree to which an individual's behavior aligns with the cultural norms of the reference country (CK) or their home country, Germany (CP). Smaller CK values suggest a closer alignment with the reference country's cultural norms, making lower values preferable. In contrast, smaller CP values are problematic, as they indicate a stronger tendency to follow one's own cultural norms rather than adapting to those of the reference culture. Furthermore, for all models related to H1 to H8, when covariates are added, they are the following: gender, age (under 35 and 35-44), university degree, employment status, cultural impact, SDE, IM and the reference countries UK and USA.

H1 to H4 were tested together using mediation analysis. In this dissertation, Hayes' PROCESS macro for SPSS was employed to examine the direct linear relationships for H1, H2, and H3, as well as to analyze mediation for H4. Hayes' Model 4 (see Figure 1) was used, with a 5% significance level and 5,000 bootstrap samples.

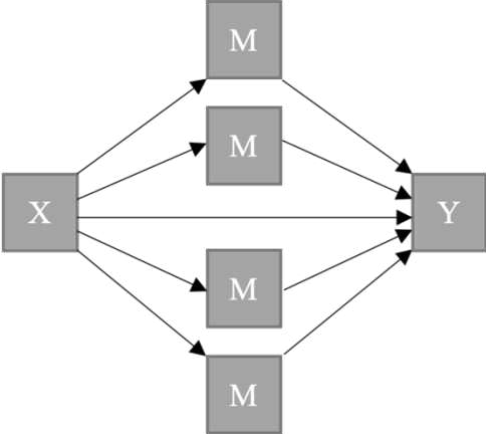


Figure 1: Conceptual Model 4 of Hayes PROCESS

Five models were developed for the purpose of analyzing the five dimensions of cultural projection: Communicating, Evaluating, Deciding, Trusting, and Disagreeing. Each of these dimensions served as a dependent variable (Y). For the independent variable (X) abroad experience was selected, while all four CQ dimensions were included in the analysis as mediators (M). Furthermore, five additional models were created to account for covariates. The results of this analysis are presented below. Excerpts from Hayes PROCESS output for all mediation analyses can be found in Appendix F.

Firstly, H1 proposed that individuals with higher cognitive, metacognitive, motivational, and behavioral CQ are less susceptible to cultural projection bias across the dimensions of Communicating, Evaluating, Deciding, Trusting, and Disagreeing. In the models, H1 describes the effect of M on Y. However, the results did not support H1, as neither cognitive nor metacognitive CQ showed a significant effect. Instead, only the overall model for cultural projection in Communicating was significant,  $R^2 = .16, p = .000$ , with behavioral CQ being the only predictor,  $b = -0.55, SE = 0.16, p = .008$ . After controlling for covariates, it became evident that adding SDE,  $b = -0.70, SE = 0.25, p = .006$ , led to motivational CQ now showing a positive effect on reducing cultural projection in Communicating,  $b = 0.38, SE = 0.18, p = .039$ . This

suggests that individuals who tend to behave in a socially desirable way might downplay or hide their cultural projections in communication situations.

Secondly, to test H2 which stated that individuals with abroad experiences have a significantly higher CQ, the effect from X to M was investigated. The results show that abroad experience significantly affected all four CQ dimensions. For metacognitive CQ, the results were  $p < .001$ ,  $b = 0.45$ ,  $SE = 0.13$ ,  $R^2 = .07$ . Cognitive CQ had an,  $p < .001$ ,  $SE = 0.17$   $b = 0.65$ ,  $R^2 = .08$ . Motivational CQ showed an,  $p < .001$ ,  $b = 0.56$ ,  $SE = 0.16$ ,  $R^2 = .07$ . Finally, behavioral CQ had,  $p < .001$ ,  $b = 0.60$ ,  $SE = 0.16$ ,  $R^2 = .08$ . Therefore, H2 is supported. Additionally, the inclusion of control variables indicates that both abroad experience (all  $p < .004$ ) and SDE (all  $p < .008$ ) are significant predictors of all CQ dimensions, even after accounting for the impact of each other variable. Moreover, the extent to which participants grew up with two or more cultures also plays a role significant role in predicting metacognitive CQ,  $b = 0.034$ ,  $p = .034$ . For more detailed information, refer to Appendix E.

Thirdly, for H3, it was predicted that individuals with abroad experience would demonstrate lower cultural projection across the dimensions of Communicating, Evaluating, Deciding, Trusting, and Disagreeing. In the mediation models, H3 represents the relationship between X and Y. The results show a significant total effect (all  $p < .019$ ) in the relationship between abroad experience in the dimensions of Communicating, Evaluating, Deciding and Disagreeing, ranging from ( $b = 0.80$  to  $b = 1.22$ ). Therefore H3a, H3b, H3c, and H3e were supported, indicating that individuals with international experience were less likely to exhibit German cultural habits in scenarios related to disagreement, decision-making, evaluation, and communication compared to those without such experience, though no significant difference was found in the dimension of Trusting.

Fourthly, H4 explored whether CQ potentially mediates the relationship between abroad experience and cultural projection. The results of the indirect effects of X on Y in all five analyses indicated that the CQ dimensions did not mediate the relationship between abroad experience and cultural projection. Thus, there is no evidence to suggest that CQ explains or enhances the effect of abroad experience on cultural projection, and H4 is not supported.

Additionally, to address H5, which proposed that individuals with abroad experience will exhibit higher cultural knowledge across the five dimensions of Communicating, Evaluating, Deciding, Trusting, and Disagreeing, five linear regressions were conducted with abroad experience as the independent variable and cultural knowledge of communicating, evaluating,

disagreeing, trusting, and deciding as the dependent variables. Moreover, another five multiple regressions were performed using a stepwise approach to control for covariates. The detailed results of these analyses can be found in Appendix G. The result showed that only H5c, related to the Deciding dimension, was supported, suggesting that individuals who have lived abroad possess better knowledge of how to adapt to cultural norms in terms of decision-making,  $p < .001$ ,  $b = -1.00$ ,  $SE = 0.30$ . However, they do not have better knowledge in communicating, evaluating, disagreeing and trusting. Moreover, while experiences abroad largely remained non-significant, the inclusion of covariates—particularly the reference country variables for the UK, USA,—revealed significant effects, offering new insights into the factors influencing the outcomes. As shown in Appendix G, participants who completed the culture knowledge test for the USA demonstrated a better understanding of how people from the USA make decisions,  $b = -1.10$ ,  $p = .004$ , and handle disagreements,  $b = -0.75$ ,  $p = 0.46$ , compared to those who focused on other countries. However, these participants struggled to accurately assess the communication style,  $b = 3.70$ ,  $p < .001$ , and trust-building approach,  $b = 4.28$ ,  $p < .001$  typical of the USA, especially in comparison to participants who chose other countries for the culture knowledge test. Similarly, participants who chose the UK as a reference had a better grasp of the decision-making and disagreement norms of people in the UK compared to those from other countries,  $b = -1.16$ ,  $p < .001$ .

For analyzing the impact of the nature of activities during abroad experience (H6), the duration of stay (H7), and the level of contact (H8) on cultural projection and cultural adaptation, ten multiple regressions were run. This analysis was conducted only on individuals with international experience ( $n = 80$ ). The independent variables included the type of activity (work and study), length of stay, and level of contact, while CP and CK across all five dimensions were used as the dependent variables. In addition, ten more multiple regressions were run using a stepwise method to account for covariates. A summary of the results of these multiple regressions, both with and without covariates, can be found in Appendix H. The results indicate that all three hypotheses were statistically not significant, meaning that these factors did not have a significant impact on reducing cultural projection or increasing cultural adaptation. However, for H6, work activities abroad became significant for cultural knowledge in the Evaluating dimension,  $b = -1.73$ ,  $p < .023$ , and study activity for cultural projection in the Trusting dimension,  $b = -1.58$ ,  $p < .001$ , especially when combined with having a university degree. The findings suggest that the effect of work and study activities may have been obscured

by differences in educational levels, indicating that education could be a key factor influencing how individuals benefit from abroad experiences.

Finally, to test H8, which posited that higher CQ is associated with greater confidence in global leadership abilities, a multiple regression analysis was conducted. The dependent variable was competence level in global leadership, with all CQ dimensions as predictors. The results showed that 21.6% ( $R^2$ ) of the variance in confidence in global leadership was explained by the model, with motivational CQ having a positive and significant influence on confidence levels,  $b = 0.284$ ,  $SE = .08$   $p < .001$ . Therefore, H8 is only partially supported, as only motivational CQ had a significant impact on confidence in global leadership skills. Furthermore, a stepwise regression model was performed by adding demographic variables (age, gender, employment status, university degree, and cultural impact), along with SDE and IM. This expanded model provided slightly more explanatory power, with 23.6% of the variance in confidence explained. The final model identified three key variables: motivational CQ ( $b = .328$ ,  $p < .001$ ), SDE ( $b = .003$ ,  $p = .003$ ), and being under 35 ( $b = .282$ ,  $p = .044$ ). Higher levels of motivational CQ, SDE, and being under 35 (compared to those over 44) were associated with increased confidence in global leadership abilities

## 5 Discussion

### 5.1 Summary of Findings

A current issue in the business world is the lack of behavioral flexibility of managers when dealing with cultural differences (HBPCL, 2024). This often manifests itself in managers unconsciously making decisions based on their cultural perspectives (HBPCL, 2024). As a result, their decisions are distorted by cultural projection, and the effectiveness of their decisions suffers (Ng et al., 2009). In light of these considerations, this dissertation aims to examine the extent to which international experience can help reduce cultural projection and improve decision-making in multicultural organizational contexts. Despite extensive research on the effect of international experience on CQ, this study is the first to examine the potential bias associated with cultural projection in the domain of global leadership skills.

Looking at the results, the study confirms that experience abroad has a significant positive effect on all four dimensions of CQ (H2), providing similar results to previous research (Fang et al., 2018; McKay et al., 2022; Remhof et al., 2013). However, the overall contribution of these experiences to explaining the variation in CQ is relatively small. Therefore, many other factors might influence CQ. One of these factors, analyzed by the control variables, is cultural influence, which in the context of this dissertation is understood as growing up with another culture beyond German. This plays an essential role in the prediction of metacognitive CQ. The relationship could be explained by the fact that the imprinting of at least two cultures requires a continuous change of perspective at an early age (Adams & Vijver, 2015). When these individuals now go abroad, the process of self-reflection may be easier for them, which strengthens their metacognitive ability. Nevertheless, it must be emphasized that the results of these linear regressions should be interpreted with caution. Because statistical analyses showed that individuals with a high tendency to SDE tended to have higher CQ scores. This may have led some individuals to overestimate their CQ (Winkler et al., 2006).

Moreover, contrary to expectations, higher cognitive and metacognitive CQ did not significantly reduce cultural projection (H1). Therefore, the results do not fit with the theory that cognitive CQ and metacognitive CQ enhance reflective observation during international assignments (Ng et al., 2009). One might posit that the lack of significance in H1 can be explained by the presence of shared variance between CQ and abroad experience. However, the analysis of indirect effects (H4) demonstrated that the four dimensions of CQ do not serve as a connecting factor between these abroad experiences and cultural projection. It is also possible

that both CQ dimensions alone are not sufficient to reduce cultural projection. Hence, researchers suggest factors that could play a role, for example, personality traits (Ang, et al., 2006; Presbitero, 2016), emotional intelligence (Furrer et al., 2015), or self-efficiency (Remhof et al., 2014). In addition, the findings demonstrated that one should not rely exclusively on the results of the CQ self-assessment when measuring cultural projection and adaptation. Rather, it is important to use an objective knowledge instrument, such as Meyer's Personal Profile Tool, used here, to obtain more accurate data.

Overall, the research provides solid empirical evidence that people with international experience are less prone to cultural projection (H3). This was found in the following four dimensions: Communicating, Evaluating, Deciding, and Disagreeing. However, contrary to expectations, the participants who had been abroad showed higher cultural knowledge only in the behavior of the Deciding dimension (H5). In other words, Germans with experience abroad are more aware of their direct way of communicating in intercultural encounters (Communicating), their willingness to confront (Evaluating), their direct way of giving feedback (Disagreeing), and their consensus-oriented approach to decision-making (Disagreeing) than people without this experience, and they behave less strictly according to the German norm toward their intercultural partners. Statistically, however, they do not adapt to the cultural norms of the host country any better than people without this experience. In short, the results show two main findings: first, reducing cultural projection does not automatically lead to better cultural adjustment for people with abroad experience; second, international experience tends to lower cultural projection more effectively than it increases cultural knowledge. One possible explanation is that living abroad increases awareness of cultural differences and enhances self-reflection (Ng et al., 2009). However, active learning is required to build cultural knowledge about the host country (Kolb, 1984). Nevertheless, active learning does not necessarily require a stay in a country, as individuals can also gain cultural knowledge through indirect exposure, such as books, movies, or social networks (Kadam et al., 2020). This conclusion is further strengthened when the results are analyzed in conjunction with control variables, such as demographic data and reference country. The following findings are particularly noteworthy:

For example, the fact that participants have a deeper understanding of decision-making processes in the US and UK than in other countries may be because decision-making processes are often formally communicated in corporate governance guidelines (Pham et al., 2020). Given that around 80% of the participants are employed, it is likely that many have worked with US

or UK companies and are familiar with their decision-making processes. Political systems may also have mediated the decision-making processes. For instance, participants may have been taught at school or through the media that Americans tend to make top-down decisions because of their presidential system (Lowi, 1994). Also in the dimensions Communicating, Disagreeing and Trusting, cultural knowledge depends on the country, which indicates that some countries clarify their cultural dimensions better than others. This makes country of reference an essential factor in the acquisition of cultural knowledge. Additionally, regarding demographic data, educational level also exerts an influence on the reduction of cultural bias. The results show that participants with a university degree are less likely to see their cultural perspectives as universal and project them onto others. This can be explained by the fact that university education requires critical thinking (Zanden et al., 2020) and thereby strengthens the ability to look at problems from different perspectives.

Furthermore, the analysis of hypotheses H6, H7, and H8 examined how certain characteristics of abroad experience promote cultural knowledge and counteract cultural projection. These hypotheses are based on existing literature which suggests that longer stays abroad (Li et al., 2013), more intensive contact with locals (Koo Moon et al., 2012, Crowford-Mathis, 2009), and the nature of the stay, for example, work or study (Crown, 2009), have a positive effect on CQ. Contrary to expectations, none of these factors showed a significant impact on cultural projection and cultural knowledge. Three possible explanations could account for the non-significant appearance of the hypotheses. The first relates to the possibility of result biases in previous studies. As the majority of these studies utilized self-report instruments and did not examine social desirability, it is plausible that such bias may have influenced the results (Greischel et al., 2020; McRae et al., 2016; Michailova & Ott, 2018). The second explanatory approach relates to the unique nature of experiences. Geeraert et al. (2019) posited that the way people live abroad cannot be generalized. Each person processes and interprets events in a different way. Therefore, it does not depend on the length of stay, as even a short immersion in another culture has been shown to have a positive effect on cultural adaptation (Robert 2014). International contexts are experienced in unique ways that influence the outcomes of these experiences (Geeraert et al., 2019). Although Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory suggests that cultural adaptation is enhanced with longer stays abroad and more contact with locals through a cyclical learning process, factors such as the depth, quality, and enjoyment of these interactions also play a role (Crowne, 2008b, 2013). In other words, even if an individual has resided in a foreign country for an extended period and has had numerous interactions with

locals, it is still possible that these interactions remain superficial or functional in nature. Superficial contacts that do not go beyond everyday conversations may be less likely to deepen cultural knowledge or promote adaptation to other cultures. Finally, Lee's and Sukoco's (2010) findings on the negative influence of abroad experience on cultural adaptation should be emphasized. They discovered that experience abroad also fosters overconfidence in decision-making. This overconfidence can hinder the learning process and make people believe that they know how to behave towards others.

Furthermore, the analysis revealed that the study participants believe that international experience contributes to the development of global leadership competencies. These findings support the existing evidence on international career development, which shows that international experience has been identified as an effective tool for fostering global leadership competencies (Fey, 2020; Ng et al., 2009). However, this finding contradicts their own self-assessment, as no significant difference in global leadership competencies was found between those with and without international experience. Rather, younger individuals (under 35 years) with higher motivational CQ and SDE rated their global leadership competencies more highly (H9). These findings suggest a potential risk of overestimating one's own competencies. Young people like to travel, which reflects their interest in other cultures (motivational CQ). This high level of curiosity and openness to new cultural experiences may make them more optimistic about their global leadership abilities, despite a potential lack of metacognitive, cognitive, and behavioral CQ skills essential for effective global leadership (Ng et al., 2009). At the same time, this group of participants in the study tended to have a high SDE, which reinforces the effect of an inflated self-report and impairs the validity of the results of this self-assessment.

## **5.2 Theoretical and Managerial Implications**

Based on the results of this study, several important implications can be drawn that are relevant to both research and organizations in the areas of intercultural effectiveness and global leadership. Theoretically, two aspects emerge. First, there is a need for research to develop more differentiated and robust measures of CQ. On the one hand, these instruments should be designed to capture not only the dimensions of CQ, but also the complex relationships between CQ, cultural projection, and cultural adaptation; on the other hand, distortions such as social desirability should be minimized as much as possible. As recommended in the literature, this study also supports the use of multiple tests (Chédru & Ostapchuk, 2023; Deardorff, 2006). Thus, future research should not rely on self-assessments alone but should use a combination of self-reports, external ratings, observational studies, and objective knowledge tests. Second,

an extension of the model to uncover culture projection and culture adaptation is recommended. This could be done by including factors such as multiculturalism, self-efficacy, personal characteristics, and host country. These additional factors should provide a more comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms that are critical to minimizing cultural bias and enhancing effective cultural adaptation.

With regard to the practical application of the study results, there are also important managerial implications that are central to the design and implementation of intercultural strategies in global organizations. One such aspect relates to the hiring process. When selecting new managers, previous international experience can be considered a valuable criterion. This is based on improved self-reflection, which makes it less susceptible to cultural bias. However, it is important that recruiters do not favor candidates over others based solely on their international experience as these candidates do not necessarily have a better understanding of effective cultural adaptation. Targeted training is therefore required. An important aspect of this is the design of these development programs. Many global leadership programs focus primarily on providing cognitive training (Earley & Peterson, 2004). However, this alone is not enough to avoid cultural projection. Therefore, training programs should integrate all dimensions of CQ into their programs (Ng et al., 2009). This could be done through practical exercises such as simulations or role-playing. Given the tendency of young people to overestimate their global competencies, it is also important that programs emphasize the promotion of self-awareness. Continuous external feedback and self-reflection tasks are essential in this regard (Δημητρίου & Vukman, 2009). It should be noted, of course, that individual training courses may not be able to simultaneously address cognitive knowledge about all the cultures with which a manager is associated. Therefore, one suggestion is to hold a team workshop each time a new team is formed, where team members can get to know each other's internal cultural preferences better. For example, all team members can take Meyer's Personal Profile Test (2024) to identify individual behaviors. The results should be discussed in a subsequent workshop. This should not only help managers learn how decisions are made within the team, but also help each individual team member better understand how to work together within the team (Meyer, 2014b).

In closing, since demographic factors such as age and gender do not have a significant impact on cultural projection and adaptation, everyone has the potential to become a global leader, regardless of these characteristics.

### **5.3 Limitation and Future Research**

Despite the findings, there are some limitations to the results of this study. A key point is that the correlation analysis cannot clearly determine causal relationships. This (Liang, 2014) is because, although control variables were used, it is possible that the elementary confounding variables were not taken into account, which limits the significance of the results. To better understand causal relationships, it is therefore recommended that future studies use a (quasi)experimental design. Participants could be studied over a longer period of time in order to test their cultural projection before and after the experience abroad. In addition, further relevant influencing factors should be identified and known factors from previous analyses related to CQ such as self-efficacy (MacNab & Worthley, 2012) and personality traits (Ang et al., 2006; Presbitero, 2016) should be added.

Another limiting factor is the sample of this study. On the one hand, the results of this study are only applicable to individuals with German citizenship. On the other hand, the sample size is relatively small. Therefore, some cohorts were merged for analysis to achieve a minimum size of 20 individuals per group. This pooling may have influenced the statistical power, especially when it comes to detecting small effect sizes (Little, 2013). In addition, for H6 through H8, only data from participants who went abroad were considered. This group consisted of only 80 people, which is not sufficient to represent the entire German population with international experience. In summary, the sample used may have limited the validity and generalizability of the results. Therefore, future studies should not only include larger samples, but also participants from different countries to analyze cultural differences more comprehensively and increase the generalizability of the results.

The use of Meyer's Personal Profile Tool (2024) also represents a potential methodological limitation, as this tool was not originally designed to identify cultural projection. As a result, it is possible that culture projection was inadequately or unspecifically captured. Future research could also focus on developing improved scales that include the CQ dimensions as well as culture projection and culture adaptation to better measure the effectiveness of intercultural interactions.

Regarding the slightly low reliability of the BIDR-Short-Scale, a lack of accuracy and reliability of the results is also suspected. Therefore, it may be necessary to request the development of more suitable tools.

Finally, this study was limited to the analysis of five of the eight cultural dimensions identified by Meyer (2024b). Future research could focus on comprehensively examining all eight dimensions or even identifying additional cultural differences relevant to global leadership. This could help paint a more nuanced picture of intercultural competencies and further enhance the effectiveness of leaders in global contexts.

## **6 Conclusion**

This dissertation examined whether international experience reduces cultural projection and improves decision-making in multicultural business contexts. The results indicate that, while international experience fosters self-reflection and mitigates cultural projection, effective decision-making necessitates the acquisition of additional cultural knowledge, which must be actively learned regardless of international experience. Therefore, individuals with abroad experience demonstrate only a modest advantage in functioning as global leaders due to their reduced cultural projection. However, the study also reveals that these individuals may overestimate their global leadership competencies, particularly younger participants with high motivational CQ. To truly reap the benefits of international experience, it is critical for organizations to implement targeted training and development programs that focus on building both cultural knowledge and self-awareness. These programs should incorporate continuous feedback mechanisms and self-reflection practices to mitigate the risks of overconfidence and ensure that global leaders can accurately assess their competencies.

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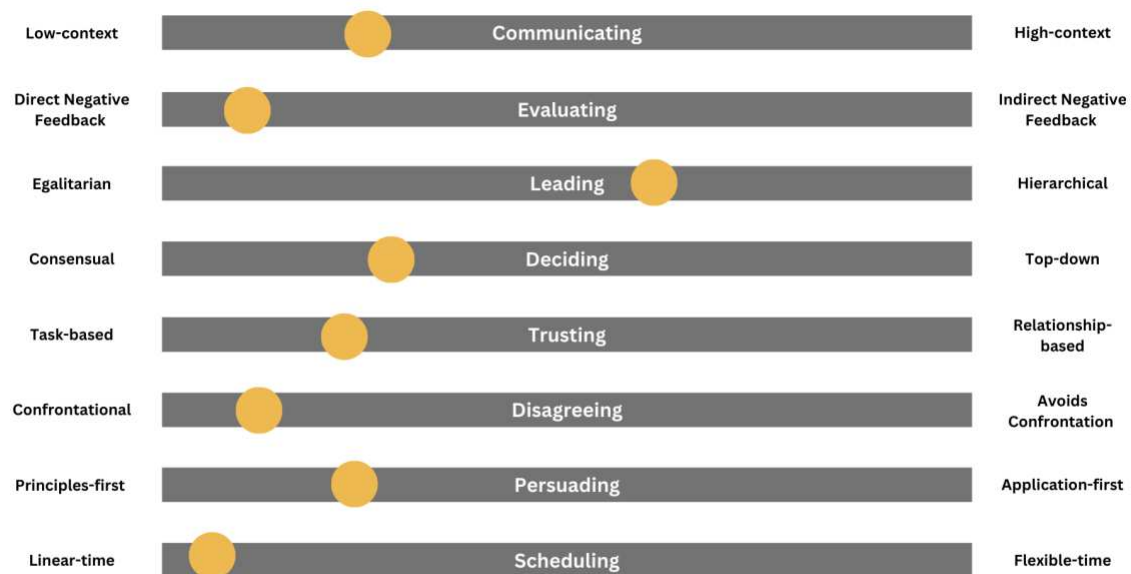
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## Appendix

### Appendix A: German Cultural Positioning on Erin Meyer's Culture Map



Note: Own illustration based on Meyer's Cultural Map (2014b)

### Appendix B: English Version of the Survey

Welcome and thank you for considering participating in this survey on decision-making and culture. I, Lena Berlin, am conducting this experiment as part of my Master Thesis at Católica Lisbon School of Business and Economics, under the supervision of Prof. Cristina Mendonça. The study will take about 10 minutes to complete and is open to german participants who are 18 years of age or older. Please answer as honestly as possible.

All responses will be kept strictly confidentially and are anonymous. This means that it will not be possible to link your responses to your identity. The data collected will be used for research purposes only and may be presented in my thesis or disseminated in academic journals, always in an aggregated form, never about any individual response.

I ask you to take the study in one go, without interruptions. There are no expected side effects of participating in this study beyond those associated with looking at a computer screen for circa 10 minutes. You may change your mind and drop out at any point of the study during its

completion.

If you have any questions about this study, please email Lena Berlin (*s-lberlin@ucp.pt*). You may also contact *cmendonca@ucp.pt*.

Do you wish to participate?

- No
- Yes

---

### Demographic

Are you German?

- No
  - Yes
- 

Where did you spend the majority of your childhood? Only answer this question if it was not Germany.

▼ Afghanistan ... Zimbabwe

---

Is there another country, apart from Germany or the country where you spent most of your childhood, that has significantly influenced you (e.g., due to your parents' origin or frequent family visits)? If yes, please specify the country:

▼ Afghanistan ... Zimbabwe

How old are you?

- Under 18
  - 18 - 24
  - 25 – 34
  - 35 – 44.
  - 45 - 54
  - 55 – 64
  - 65 or older
- 

What is your gender?

- Male
  - Female
  - Other \_\_\_\_\_
  - Prefer not to say
- 

What is your current employment status?

- Employed full time
  - Employed part time
  - Unemployed looking for work
  - Unemployed not looking for work
  - Retired
  - Student
  - Disabled
  - Other: \_
- 

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- No high school diploma
  - Secondary modern
  - Intermediate modern secondary school
  - Abitur (higher education entrance qualification)
  - Vocational education
  - Bachelor's degree
  - Master's degree
  - Doctorate
  - Prefer not to specify
  - Other, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_
- 

### Culture Intelligence

Read each statement and select the response that best describes your capabilities. Select the answer that best describes you as you really are (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree)\*

---

1. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.
2. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.
3. I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.
4. know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.  
Strongly agree
5. I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.
6. I know the marriage systems of other cultures.
7. I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.
8. I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
9. I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.
10. I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.
11. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
12. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
13. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.

14. I change my nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it

\* strongly disagree (1) disagree (2) somewhat disagree (3) neither agree nor disagree (4) somewhat agree (5) agree (6), strongly agree (7)

---

### Abroad Experience

Have you ever lived in a country other than Germany?

- No • Yes
- 

*If Have you ever lived in a country other than Germany? = Yes*

Please select the country where you spent time abroad. If you had multiple experiences in different countries, please choose the one where you believe you immersed yourself the most in the culture and which had the greatest impact on your personal growth.

▼ Afghanistan ... Zimbabwe

---

*If Have you ever lived in a country other than Germany? = Yes*

Indicate how long you stayed in this country

- Less than 3 months • 3 to less than 6 months • 6 to less than 9 months  
• 9 to less than 12 months • 12 months or more

*If Have you ever lived in a country other than Germany? = Yes*

What type of activity did you engage in during your time abroad? (Select all that apply):

- Student exchange program • High school year • Studies • Internship  
• Volunteer work • Full-time employment • Part-time employment •  
Language course

- Work and Travel • Research • Au Pair • Other: \_\_\_\_\_

*If Have you ever lived in a country other than Germany? = Yes*

During your abroad experience, how much contact did you have with local people?

- None at all
- A little
- A moderate amount
- A lot
- A great deal

*If Have you ever lived in a country other than Germany? = No*

Please select a country (other than Germany) whose culture and behavior of its people you are most familiar with. This could be a country you have visited on vacation, one you read about frequently, or one you see often on television. It might also be a country from which a person at your university, workplace, or family comes from, and where you feel you have learned something about the culture.

▼ Afghanistan ... Zimbabwe

Please reflect on your experiences with the selected country. For each statement below, indicate how strongly you agree or disagree based on your observations of how people from that country typically communicate, make decisions, and interact. Even if you have not encountered some of the situations described, please try to answer based on how you imagine they would occur in this country. (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)

1. People in this country strive to communicate simply, clearly, and explicitly. They avoid reading (and speaking) between the lines.
2. In this country, effective presenters are seen as those who spell out what they're going to tell you, then tell you, and then summarize what they've told you, to ensure that the communication is crystal clear.
3. After a meeting or a phone call in this country, it is important for people to recap in writing exactly what was said, to prevent misunderstanding or confusion.
4. If people in this country have done poor work, they prefer to be told bluntly rather than gently or diplomatically.
5. People in this country prefer to give negative feedback immediately and all at once rather than little by little, building up the picture over time.
6. Consensus-building in decision-making is seen in this country as mediocre decisions and wastes time

7. Involving everyone in decision-making processes is valued in this country, even if it takes longer
8. If the boss makes a unilateral decision that people in this country disagree with, they still comply with the decision. When giving negative feedback in this country, people pay more attention to how the person receiving the message feels than to how clearly they expressed their criticism.
9. When giving negative feedback in this country, people pay more attention to how the person receiving the message feels than to how clearly they expressed their criticism.
10. People in this country often invest time in sharing coffee, meals, or drinks with colleagues, suppliers, and clients—without discussing work much, just getting to know one another.
11. People in this country can't really trust a colleague, supplier, or client until they spend time getting to know them personally.
12. I have never used a computer
13. People in this country think that frequently expressing open disagreement with other team members is likely to positively affect a team's chances of success.
14. People in this country think that open debate, where team members challenge one another's ideas and opinions, is likely to engender bad feelings and ruin relationships.
15. When people in this country disagree strongly with a point made by a colleague during a presentation, they express that disagreement.

---

### Global Leadership

Imagine you receive a job offer to lead a multicultural team. How competent do you feel in making decisions for the team and managing a team with diverse cultural backgrounds? If you are already in such a position, how competent do you currently feel in this role?

• Not competent at all • Slightly competent • Neutral • Competent • Very competent

*If Haben Sie jemals in einem anderen Land als Deutschland gelebt? = Ja*

Do you believe that your experience abroad has made you more competent in managing a multicultural team?

• Definitely not • Probably not • Neither yes nor no • Probably yes • Definitely yes

*If Haben Sie jemals in einem anderen Land als Deutschland gelebt? = Nein*

Do you believe that an experience abroad would positively improve your competence in managing a multicultural team?

- Definitely not
  - Probably not
  - Neither yes nor no
  - Probably yes
  - Definitely yes
- 

**Social Desirability Scale - SDE**

Please respond to the following statements about human behaviors. To what extent do you feel that each statement applies to you personally?

---

. My first impression of people usually turns out to be correct.

- Does not apply at all
  - Applies very little
  - Applies little
  - Neither nor
  - Applies somewhat
  - Applies
  - Fully applies
- 

I am often unsure about my judgment.

- Does not apply at all
  - Applies very little
  - Applies little
  - Neither nor
  - Applies somewhat
  - Applies
  - Fully applies
- 

I always know exactly why I like something.

- Does not apply at all
  - Applies very little
  - Applies little
  - Neither nor
  - Applies somewhat
  - Applies
  - Fully applies
- 

**Social Desirability Scale - IM**

Please respond to the following statements about human behaviors. To what extent do you feel that each statement applies to you personally?

---

I have received too much change and not said anything.

- Does not apply at all • Applies very little • Applies little • Neither nor
  - Applies somewhat • Applies • Fully applies
- 

I am always honest with others.

- Does not apply at all • Applies very little • Applies little • Neither nor
  - Applies somewhat • Applies • Fully applies
- 

I have occasionally taken advantage of someone.

- Does not apply at all • Applies very little • Applies little • Neither nor
- Applies somewhat • Applies • Fully applies

## Appendix C: Reliability Analysis

### *Rotated Factor Loadings with Four Components*

Items	Cognitive CQ	Motivational CQ	Behaviour CQ	Metacognitive CQ
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.	.178	.164	.091	.866
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.	.210	.176	.196	.825
I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.	.536	.398	-.090	.243
I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.	.779	.140	.128	.077
I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.	.847	.190	.080	.085
I know the marriage systems of other cultures.	.772	.201	.105	.089
I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.	.798	.028	.118	.266
I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	.218	.780	.126	.182
I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.	.200	.816	.171	.090
I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.	.112	.538	.456	.163
I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.	.111	.137	.842	.091
I change my nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it.	.094	.146	.839	.125
Eigenvalue	4.75	1.63	1.07	0.96
% of variance	39.59	13.55	8.89	7.97
$\alpha$	0.85	0.74	0.71	0.77

## Appendix D: Bivariate Correlation Matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. abroad experience	--																
2. gender	.322**	--															
3. cultural impact	.232**	-.044	--														
4. university degree	.172*	-.020	-.062	--													
5. employed	.104	-.102	.024	.208**	--												
6. age under 35	-.077	.077	.041	.019	-.206**	--											
7. age 35 – 44	.015	.016	-.067	.050	.257**	-.609**	--										
8. age above 44	.072	-.106	.027	-.078	-.051	-.464**	-.420**	--									
9. work	. <sup>c</sup>	-.219	.003	.001	-.007	-.373**	.115	.278*	--								
10. study	-.434**	.110	.135	-.070	.153	-.088	.019	.077	.042	--							
11. USA	-.051	.023	-.138	.026	-.022	.016	.096	-.126	-.152	-.095	--						
12. UK	.277**	-.286**	.266**	.048	-.010	-.081	-.026	.122	.250*	.022	-.273**	--					
13. other countries	-.202**	.231**	-.124	-.062	.026	.058	-.052	-.008	-.130	.052	-.544**	-.659**	--				
14. longterm stay	. <sup>c</sup>	-.207	-.060	-.019	-.067	-.244*	-.017	.281*	.468**	.105	-.081	.169	-.104	--			
15. level of contact	. <sup>c</sup>	-.076	-.011	.018	.228*	-.146	-.031	.190	.161	-.024	.035	.104	-.127	.468**	--		
16. metacognitive CQ	.258**	-.034	.238**	.037	.105	.014	-.105	.101	.098	.085	-.119	.118	-.010	.236*	.336**	--	
17. cognitive CQ	.284**	-.095	.109	.150	.082	-.051	.020	.036	-.074	-.158	-.030	.173*	-.128	.081	.302**	.438**	--
18. motivational CQ	.262**	.056	.116	.101	.169*	-.117	.014	.118	.177	-.057	-.246**	.083	.120	.309**	.432**	.404**	.460**
19. behavioral CQ	.279**	-.055	.152*	-.013	-.021	-.082	-.089	.192*	-.058	-.155	.002	.099	-.089	.196	.352**	.376**	.330**

20.CP:Communicating	.266**	-.172*	.019	.169*	.013	-.042	.131	-.098	-.020	-.122	.002	.197*	-.173*	.080	-.154	-.081	.053
21. CP: Evaluating	.216**	-.326**	-.008	.290**	.014	-.181*	.141	.051	.072	-.094	.009	.219**	-.198**	.138	.123	.083	.125
22. CP: Deciding	.182*	.034	-.052	-.102	.069	.116	.000	-.133	-.124	-.045	.258**	-.110	-.106	-.006	.004	.027	-.012
23. CP: Trusting	-.108	.050	-.017	.071	.100	-.095	.094	.004	.016	-.095	.031	-.121	.081	-.145	.033	-.125	-.065
24. CP: Disagreeing	.247**	-.148	.000	.102	-.001	.014	.027	-.047	-.087	-.027	-.164*	.167*	-.017	.048	-.058	.106	.082
25.CK:Communicating	.034	-.118	-.032	.108	-.059	.060	.104	-.185*	-.006	-.078	.522**	-.086	-.332**	.007	-.051	-.114	.026
26. CK: Evaluating	.012	-.094	-.021	.100	-.057	.090	-.041	-.057	-.308**	.018	-.132	-.129	.216**	-.016	-.036	-.040	.022
27. CK: Deciding	-.250**	.047	-.081	-.139	-.059	.069	-.047	-.026	-.098	.124	-.115	-.316**	.366**	.080	.169	-.001	-.141
28. CK: Trusting	.005	.039	-.063	.016	.027	.006	-.011	.006	-.107	-.077	.494**	-.212**	-.201**	-.176	-.027	-.124	-.046
29. CK: Disagreeing	-.086	.065	-.051	-.071	-.026	.123	-.021	-.118	-.114	.088	-.083	-.228**	.263**	.033	-.147	.041	-.047
30. GL Competency	.086	.150	.076	.130	.119	.101	-.058	-.051	.052	-.008	-.032	.042	-.012	.189	.064	.324**	.336**
31. GL Believe AE	. <sup>c</sup>	-.107	.149	.070	.045	.004	-.061	.061	.055	.057	.038	.124	-.148	.226*	.275*	.377**	.252*
32. GL Believe	. <sup>c</sup>	.352**	.119	.023	.127	.071	-.098	.028	. <sup>c</sup>	-.012	-.088	.082	.016	. <sup>c</sup>	. <sup>c</sup>	.198	.197
33. SDE	.000	.059	.072	-.040	.150	.012	-.033	.023	.005	.012	-.121	-.011	.104	.108	.157	.298**	.333**
34. IM	.062	-.127	.203**	-.142	.043	-.184*	.062	.141	-.129	.189*	-.106	.127	-.028	-.074	-.105	.043	.007

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

Variable	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
18. motivational CQ	--																
19. behavioral CQ	.460**	--															
20.CP: Communicating	.037	-.176*	--														
21. CP: Evaluating	.115	.031	.312**	--													
22. CP: Deciding	-.099	-.022	.075	-.033	--												
23. CP: Trusting	.020	.000	-.041	.001	-.178*	--											
24. CP: Disagreeing	.026	-.057	.300**	.439**	.215**	-.223**	--										
25.CK:Communicating	-.093	-.136	.427**	.212**	.182*	.035	.128	--									
26. CK: Evaluating	.076	.032	.079	.339**	.049	.019	.093	.044	--								
27. CK: Deciding	-.052	-.062	-.232**	-.021	-.154*	.088	-.089	-.010	.194*	--							
28. CK: Trusting	-.029	-.011	.015	-.025	.030	.455**	-.183*	.377**	.171*	-.024	--						
29. CK: Disagreeing	-.039	-.114	.052	-.109	.124	-.097	.012	.057	.246**	.152*	-.031	--					
30. GL Competency	.415**	.199**	.004	-.049	.002	-.021	.031	.061	-.040	.003	.060	.004	--				
31. GL Believe AE	.344**	.265*	-.091	.288**	.092	-.032	.060	.015	.074	.037	.173	.037	.407**	--			
32. GL Believe	.249*	.247*	-.033	.047	.033	-.096	.079	-.138	.061	-.068	-.097	.072	.321**	. <sup>c</sup>	--		
33. SDE	.365**	.195*	-.214**	-.189*	-.115	-.109	-.032	-.164*	-.034	.060	-.003	-.020	.349**	.153	.090	--	
34. IM	.066	-.021	-.052	-.015	-.114	.067	-.049	-.042	-.008	.012	.057	.028	-.031	-.093	-.105	.191*	--

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

**Appendix E:** Summary of H2 Analysis (Y → M) Analysis with Covariate from Hayes  
PROCESS Macro Output

DV	R <sup>2</sup>	IV	Regression Coefficients	Standard Error	p-Value
Metacognitive	0.201	SDE	<i>b</i> = .28	<i>SE</i> = .07	<i>p</i> < .001
		AE	<i>b</i> = .39	<i>SE</i> = .14	<i>p</i> = .007
		CI	<i>b</i> = .43	<i>SE</i> = .20	<i>p</i> = .034
Cognitive	0.226	SDE	<i>b</i> = .47	<i>SE</i> = .09	<i>p</i> = .001
		AE	<i>b</i> = .53	<i>SE</i> = .18	<i>p</i> = .004
Motivational	0.276	SDE	<i>b</i> = .40	<i>SE</i> = .09	<i>p</i> < .001
		AE	<i>b</i> = .58	<i>SE</i> = .16	<i>p</i> < .001
Behavioral	0.176	SDE	<i>b</i> = .27	<i>SE</i> = .27	<i>p</i> = .004
		AE	<i>b</i> = .59	<i>SE</i> = .17	<i>p</i> < .001

\*AE: abroad experience; CI: cultural impact

\*\* Note: Only the significant predictors from the Hayes PROCESS macro output are included in the table.

**Appendix F:** Excerpt from Hayes PROCESS Macro Output for H1 (M→Y), H3 (Y→X) & H4 (Y|M→Y)

- Y: cultural projection in cultural dimensions
- X: abroad experience
- M1: metacognitive CQ
- M2: cognitive CQ
- M3: motivational CQ
- M4: behavioral CQ

*Cultural Projection in Communicating*

```
*****
OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP_Communicating
Model Summary
      R      R-sq      MSE      F      df1      df2      p
    .3969    .1575    3.6476    6.0944    5.0000   163.0000    .0000
```

```
Model
      coeff      se      t      p      LLCI      ULCI
constant    6.1455    1.0342    5.9420    .0000    4.1032    8.1877
abroad_e    1.3686    .3160    4.3308    .0000    .7446    1.9927
MC_CQ      -.2972    .1965   -1.5123    .1324   -.6852    .0909
COG_CQ      .1090    .1538    .7088    .4794   -.1947    .4127
MOT_CQ      .2050    .1702    1.2043    .2302   -.1312    .5412
BEH_CQ     -.5526    .1609   -3.4343    .0008   -.8704   -.2349
```

```
***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL *****
OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP_Communicating
Model Summary
      R      R-sq      MSE      F      df1      df2      p
    .2660    .0708    3.9268   12.7168    1.0000   167.0000    .0005
```

```
Model
      coeff      se      t      p      LLCI      ULCI
constant    3.5663    .2101   16.9782    .0000    3.1516    3.9810
abroad_e    1.0887    .3053    3.5661    .0005    .4860    1.6914
```

```
***** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****
Total effect of X on Y
      Effect      se      t      p      LLCI      ULCI      c_ps
    1.0887    .3053    3.5661    .0005    .4860    1.6914    .5312
```

```
Direct effect of X on Y
      Effect      se      t      p      LLCI      ULCI      c'_ps
    1.3686    .3160    4.3308    .0000    .7446    1.9927    .6678
```

```
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
      Effect      BootSE      BootLLCI      BootULCI
TOTAL      -.2799      .1537      -.6104      .0004
MC_CQ      -.1351      .0973      -.3603      .0194
COG_CQ      .0711      .0946      -.1050      .2721
```

MOT_CQ	.1147	.1164	-.0910	.3753
BEH_CQ	-.3306	.1403	-.6408	-.0922

*Cultural Projection in Communicating with Covariate*

\*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Communicating

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4915	.2415	3.4984	3.2485	15.0000	153.0000	.0001

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	6.9630	1.3729	5.0718	.0000	4.2507	9.6752
abroad_e	.9589	.3448	2.7810	.0061	.2777	1.6401
MC_CQ	-.1690	.1992	-.8481	.3977	-.5626	.2247
COG_CQ	.0823	.1579	.5213	.6029	-.2296	.3943
MOT_CQ	.3803	.1824	2.0850	.0387	.0200	.7407
BEH_CQ	-.5439	.1644	-3.3081	.0012	-.8686	-.2191
under_35	.2422	.3901	.6210	.5355	-.5284	1.0128
age_rang	.5562	.3975	1.3993	.1637	-.2291	1.3415
gender_a	-.3300	.3246	-1.0168	.3108	-.9713	.3112
universi	.3481	.3228	1.0782	.2827	-.2897	.9859
employed	-.2206	.3904	-.5652	.5728	-.9919	.5506
cultural	-.0726	.4723	-.1537	.8781	-1.0057	.8606
UK	.6954	.3824	1.8185	.0709	-.0601	1.4508
USA	.2724	.4121	.6610	.5096	-.5418	1.0866
SDE	-.4333	.1889	-2.2933	.0232	-.8065	-.0600
IM	-.0873	.1296	-.6738	.5015	-.3433	.1687

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Communicating

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4167	.1736	3.7145	2.9991	11.0000	157.0000	.0012

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5.3382	1.0923	4.8870	.0000	3.1807	7.4958
abroad_e	.8361	.3338	2.5047	.0133	.1767	1.4954
under_35	.3975	.3942	1.0084	.3148	-.3811	1.1760
age_rang	.7801	.4023	1.9388	.0543	-.0146	1.5748
gender_a	-.2887	.3309	-.8726	.3842	-.9422	.3648
universi	.4893	.3282	1.4905	.1381	-.1591	1.1376
employed	-.1015	.3982	-.2549	.7991	-.8881	.6851
cultural	-.2994	.4779	-.6265	.5319	-1.2433	.6445
UK	.6629	.3901	1.6990	.0913	-.1077	1.4334
USA	-.0115	.4060	-.0283	.9775	-.8134	.7905
SDE	-.4353	.1747	-2.4922	.0137	-.7803	-.0903
IM	-.0374	.1321	-.2831	.7775	-.2983	.2235

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y \*\*\*\*\*

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
.8361	.3338	2.5047	.0133	.1767	1.4954	.4079

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps
.9589	.3448	2.7810	.0061	.2777	1.6401	.4679

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
--------	--------	----------	----------

TOTAL	-.1228	.1635	-.4605	.1825
MC_CQ	-.0653	.0736	-.2354	.0580
COG_CQ	.0433	.0807	-.1181	.2137
MOT_CQ	.2196	.1489	-.0200	.5539
BEH_CQ	-.3204	.1537	-.6638	-.0665

### Cultural Projection in Evaluating

\*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Evaluating

#### Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2385	.0569	7.7400	1.9668	5.0000	163.0000	.0862

#### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5.8891	1.5066	3.9089	.0001	2.9141	8.8640
abroad_e	1.1360	.4603	2.4678	.0146	.2270	2.0450
MC_CQ	.0253	.2862	.0886	.9295	-.5399	.5905
COG_CQ	.1444	.2240	.6448	.5200	-.2979	.5868
MOT_CQ	.1792	.2480	.7225	.4710	-.3105	.6689
BEH_CQ	-.2077	.2344	-.8859	.3770	-.6705	.2552

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Evaluating

#### Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2161	.0467	7.6363	8.1806	1.0000	167.0000	.0048

#### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	6.5573	.2929	22.3861	.0000	5.9790	7.1356
abroad_e	1.2177	.4257	2.8602	.0048	.3772	2.0582

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y \*\*\*\*\*

#### Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
1.2177	.4257	2.8602	.0048	.3772	2.0582	.4315

#### Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps
1.1360	.4603	2.4678	.0146	.2270	2.0450	.4026

#### Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TOTAL	.0817	.1817	-.2600	.4628
MC_CQ	.0115	.1386	-.2619	.3031
COG_CQ	.0942	.1426	-.1704	.4038
MOT_CQ	.1002	.1646	-.2186	.4461
BEH_CQ	-.1242	.1455	-.4250	.1507

## Cultural Projection in Evaluating with Covariate

\*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Evaluating

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.5456	.2976	6.1410	4.3225	15.0000	153.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	7.2128	1.8189	3.9654	.0001	3.6193	10.8062
abroad_e	.0213	.4568	.0466	.9629	-.8812	.9238
MC_CQ	.3256	.2640	1.2336	.2193	-.1959	.8472
COG_CQ	.0295	.2092	.1410	.8880	-.3838	.4428
MOT_CQ	.4653	.2417	1.9254	.0560	-.0121	.9428
BEH_CQ	-.1794	.2178	-.8238	.4113	-.6098	.2509
under_35	-.6039	.5168	-1.1685	.2444	-1.6249	.4171
age_rang	.4154	.5267	.7887	.4315	-.6251	1.4558
gender_a	-1.5943	.4300	-3.7072	.0003	-2.4439	-.7447
universi	1.5864	.4277	3.7087	.0003	.7413	2.4314
employed	-.4088	.5172	-.7905	.4305	-1.4306	.6130
cultural	-.6109	.6258	-.9762	.3305	-1.8473	.6255
UK	.8358	.5066	1.6498	.1010	-.1650	1.8367
USA	.4071	.5460	.7456	.4570	-.6716	1.4859
SDE	-.6993	.2503	-2.7939	.0059	-1.1938	-.2048
IM	-.0106	.1717	-.0619	.9507	-.3498	.3285

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Evaluating

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.5145	.2647	6.2654	5.1373	11.0000	157.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	9.2622	1.4187	6.5288	.0000	6.4601	12.0643
abroad_e	.3255	.4335	.7509	.4538	-.5308	1.1819
under_35	-.6999	.5119	-1.3673	.1735	-1.7111	.3112
age_rang	.3490	.5226	.6679	.5051	-.6831	1.3812
gender_a	-1.4739	.4297	-3.4300	.0008	-2.3227	-.6251
universi	1.6696	.4263	3.9164	.0001	.8275	2.5116
employed	-.2760	.5172	-.5336	.5944	-1.2975	.7456
cultural	-.5005	.6206	-.8065	.4212	-1.7264	.7254
UK	.8181	.5067	1.6147	.1084	-.1827	1.8189
USA	.0981	.5273	.1861	.8526	-.9434	1.1397
SDE	-.4566	.2269	-2.0127	.0459	-.9047	-.0085
IM	-.0239	.1716	-.1396	.8892	-.3628	.3149

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y \*\*\*\*\*

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
.3255	.4335	.7509	.4538	-.5308	1.1819	.1154

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps
.0213	.4568	.0466	.9629	-.8812	.9238	.0075

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TOTAL	.3043	.1919	-.0326	.7053
MC_CQ	.1258	.1229	-.0571	.4254
COG_CQ	.0155	.1164	-.2335	.2391

MOT_CQ	.2687	.1677	-.0183	.6271
BEH_CQ	-.1057	.1319	-.3947	.1320

### Cultural Projection in Deciding

\*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Deciding

#### Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.2416	.0584	4.7278	2.0212	5.0000	163.0000	.0783

#### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.4431	1.1775	3.7734	.0002	2.1180	6.7681
abroad_e	.9803	.3598	2.7247	.0071	.2699	1.6907
MC_CQ	.1260	.2237	.5631	.5741	-.3158	.5677
COG_CQ	-.0309	.1751	-.1768	.8599	-.3767	.3148
MOT_CQ	-.3289	.1938	-1.6968	.0916	-.7116	.0539
BEH_CQ	-.0507	.1832	-.2767	.7824	-.4124	.3111

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Deciding

#### Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1822	.0332	4.7379	5.7358	1.0000	167.0000	.0177

#### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.1169	.2307	13.5088	.0000	2.6613	3.5724
abroad_e	.8031	.3353	2.3950	.0177	.1411	1.4652

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y \*\*\*\*\*

#### Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
.8031	.3353	2.3950	.0177	.1411	1.4652	.3639

#### Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps
.9803	.3598	2.7247	.0071	.2699	1.6907	.4442

#### Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TOTAL	-.1772	.1424	-.4768	.0826
MC_CQ	.0573	.1132	-.1451	.3127
COG_CQ	-.0202	.1149	-.2626	.2041
MOT_CQ	-.1839	.1205	-.4500	.0284
BEH_CQ	-.0303	.1064	-.2619	.1732

#### Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TOTAL	-.0803	.0651	-.2171	.0377
MC_CQ	.0259	.0511	-.0675	.1392
COG_CQ	-.0091	.0522	-.1182	.0920
MOT_CQ	-.0833	.0546	-.2016	.0131
BEH_CQ	-.0137	.0485	-.1159	.0795

## Cultural Projection in Evaluating with Covariate

\*\*\*\*\*  
 OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Deciding

### Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.4455	.1985	4.2874	2.5259	15.0000	153.0000	.0023

### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.2258	1.5198	2.7805	.0061	1.2233	7.2284
abroad_e	1.3159	.3817	3.4474	.0007	.5618	2.0700
MC_CQ	.1732	.2206	.7851	.4336	-.2626	.6089
COG_CQ	.0201	.1748	.1150	.9086	-.3252	.3654
MOT_CQ	-.1449	.2019	-.7176	.4741	-.5439	.2541
BEH_CQ	-.1065	.1820	-.5849	.5595	-.4660	.2531
under_35	.7141	.4318	1.6537	.1002	-.1390	1.5672
age_rang	.2323	.4401	.5279	.5984	-.6371	1.1016
gender_a	.3781	.3593	1.0523	.2943	-.3318	1.0880
universi	-.9036	.3574	-2.5284	.0125	-1.6097	-.1976
employed	.6197	.4322	1.4340	.1536	-.2340	1.4735
cultural	-.2961	.5229	-.5663	.5720	-1.3292	.7369
UK	-.3179	.4233	-.7510	.4538	-1.1542	.5184
USA	1.2608	.4562	2.7635	.0064	.3595	2.1622
SDE	-.2265	.2091	-1.0830	.2805	-.6397	.1867
IM	-.1264	.1434	-.8812	.3796	-.4098	.1570

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*  
 OUTCOME VARIABLE:  
 D\_DEC\_DI

### Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.4362	.1903	4.2209	3.3540	11.0000	157.0000	.0004

### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.0792	1.1644	3.5032	.0006	1.7792	6.3791
abroad_e	1.2470	.3558	3.5042	.0006	.5441	1.9498
under_35	.7916	.4202	1.8839	.0614	-.0384	1.6215
age_rang	.2577	.4289	.6008	.5488	-.5895	1.1049
gender_a	.3367	.3527	.9547	.3412	-.3599	1.0334
universi	-.9101	.3499	-2.6011	.0102	-1.6013	-.2190
employed	.6419	.4245	1.5122	.1325	-.1966	1.4804
cultural	-.2632	.5094	-.5166	.6061	-1.2694	.7430
UK	-.3050	.4159	-.7334	.4644	-1.1265	.5164
USA	1.3038	.4328	3.0125	.0030	.4489	2.1587
SDE	-.2556	.1862	-1.3728	.1718	-.6234	.1122
IM	-.1202	.1408	-.8540	.3944	-.3984	.1579

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y \*\*\*\*\*

### Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
1.2470	.3558	3.5042	.0006	.5441	1.9498	.5650

### Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps
1.3159	.3817	3.4474	.0007	.5618	2.0700	.5962

### Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TOTAL	-.0690	.1468	-.3491	.2408

MC_CQ	.0669	.1041	-.1049	.3197
COG_CQ	.0106	.1054	-.2056	.2305
MOT_CQ	-.0837	.1163	-.3250	.1496
BEH_CQ	-.0627	.1097	-.2970	.1420

### *Cultural Projection in Trusting*

\*\*\*\*\*  
 OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Trusting

#### Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1812	.0328	6.2739	1.1065	5.0000	163.0000	.3590

#### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	6.8424	1.3564	5.0445	.0000	4.1640	9.5207
abroad_e	-.5027	.4145	-1.2130	.2269	-1.3211	.3157
MC_CQ	-.4026	.2577	-1.5624	.1201	-.9115	.1062
COG_CQ	-.0758	.2017	-.3760	.7074	-.4741	.3224
MOT_CQ	.2300	.2233	1.0302	.3044	-.2109	.6709
BEH_CQ	.1114	.2110	.5279	.5983	-.3053	.5281

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*  
 OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Trusting

#### Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1078	.0116	6.2580	1.9623	1.0000	167.0000	.1631

#### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	6.0899	.2652	22.9661	.0000	5.5664	6.6134
abroad_e	-.5399	.3854	-1.4008	.1631	-1.3008	.2210

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y \*\*\*\*\*

#### Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
-.5399	.3854	-1.4008	.1631	-1.3008	.2210	-.2152

#### Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps
-.5027	.4145	-1.2130	.2269	-1.3211	.3157	-.2004

#### Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TOTAL	-.0372	.1912	-.4101	.3411
MC_CQ	-.1830	.1574	-.5129	.1010
COG_CQ	-.0494	.1354	-.3306	.2280
MOT_CQ	.1286	.1178	-.0878	.3803
BEH_CQ	.0666	.1481	-.2038	.3916

## Cultural Projection in Trusting with Covariate

\*\*\*\*\*  
 OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Trusting

### Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.3031	.0919	6.2759	1.0319	15.0000	153.0000	.4258

### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	6.5086	1.8388	3.5396	.0005	2.8759	10.1414
abroad_e	-.7034	.4618	-1.5230	.1298	-1.6158	.2090
MC_CQ	-.3493	.2669	-1.3087	.1926	-.8765	.1780
COG_CQ	.0066	.2115	.0311	.9753	-.4113	.4244
MOT_CQ	.2194	.2443	.8982	.3705	-.2632	.7021
BEH_CQ	.1905	.2202	.8653	.3882	-.2445	.6255
under_35	-.2171	.5225	-.4155	.6783	-1.2492	.8151
age_rang	.1072	.5324	.2013	.8407	-.9447	1.1590
gender_a	-.0902	.4347	-.2074	.8360	-.9491	.7687
universi	.4333	.4324	1.0021	.3179	-.4209	1.2876
employed	.6244	.5229	1.1943	.2342	-.4085	1.6574
cultural	.2771	.6327	.4380	.6620	-.9728	1.5270
UK	-.7014	.5122	-1.3696	.1728	-1.7132	.3104
USA	-.0254	.5520	-.0461	.9633	-1.1160	1.0651
SDE	-.4478	.2530	-1.7698	.0788	-.9478	.0521
IM	.2267	.1736	1.3064	.1934	-.1161	.5696

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

D\_TRU\_DI

### Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.2688	.0723	6.2481	1.1118	11.0000	157.0000	.3554

### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	6.5807	1.4167	4.6451	.0000	3.7825	9.3790
abroad_e	-.5958	.4329	-1.3762	.1707	-1.4510	.2593
under_35	-.3437	.5112	-.6723	.5024	-1.3534	.6661
age_rang	.0774	.5218	.1482	.8824	-.9534	1.1081
gender_a	-.0300	.4291	-.0698	.9444	-.8776	.8176
universi	.4520	.4257	1.0617	.2900	-.3889	1.2928
employed	.5717	.5165	1.1068	.2701	-.4485	1.5918
cultural	.2012	.6198	.3247	.7459	-1.0230	1.4254
UK	-.7099	.5060	-1.4030	.1626	-1.7093	.2895
USA	-.0713	.5266	-.1354	.8925	-1.1114	.9688
SDE	-.4026	.2265	-1.7772	.0775	-.8501	.0448
IM	.2155	.1713	1.2580	.2102	-.1229	.5539

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y \*\*\*\*\*

### Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
-.5958	.4329	-1.3762	.1707	-1.4510	.2593	-.2375

### Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps
-.7034	.4618	-1.5230	.1298	-1.6158	.2090	-.2804

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TOTAL	.1075	.1981	-.2841	.5010
MC_CQ	-.1349	.1351	-.4325	.1080
COG_CQ	.0035	.1315	-.2745	.2635
MOT_CQ	.1267	.1294	-.1369	.3770
BEH_CQ	.1123	.1615	-.1645	.4743

### *Cultural Projection in Disagreeing*

\*\*\*\*\*  
 OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP\_Disagreeing

#### Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2947	.0868	5.1582	3.1002	5.0000	163.0000	.0106

#### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5.0961	1.2299	4.1435	.0001	2.6675	7.5247
abroad_e	1.2407	.3758	3.3015	.0012	.4987	1.9828
MC_CQ	.2530	.2337	1.0825	.2806	-.2085	.7144
COG_CQ	.0577	.1829	.3155	.7528	-.3034	.4188
MOT_CQ	-.0412	.2025	-.2034	.8391	-.4409	.3586
BEH_CQ	-.3638	.1914	-1.9012	.0590	-.7417	.0140

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*  
 OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP Disagreeing

#### Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2466	.0608	5.1783	10.8098	1.0000	167.0000	.0012

#### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.7848	.2412	19.8367	.0000	4.3086	5.2610
abroad_e	1.1527	.3506	3.2878	.0012	.4605	1.8448

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y \*\*\*\*\*

#### Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
1.1527	.3506	3.2878	.0012	.4605	1.8448	.4924

#### Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps
1.2407	.3758	3.3015	.0012	.4987	1.9828	.5300

#### Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TOTAL	-.0881	.1551	-.4123	.2051
MC_CQ	.1150	.1233	-.0898	.3947
COG_CQ	.0376	.1230	-.2096	.2963
MOT_CQ	-.0230	.1234	-.2822	.2097
BEH_CQ	-.2176	.1340	-.5356	-.0109

## Cultural Projection in Disagreeing with Covariate

\*\*\*\*\*  
 OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP Disagreeing

### Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.3724	.1387	5.1834	1.6421	15.0000	153.0000	.0688

### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5.7652	1.6711	3.4499	.0007	2.4638	9.0667
abroad_e	1.0972	.4197	2.6142	.0098	.2680	1.9264
MC_CQ	.3042	.2425	1.2541	.2117	-.1750	.7833
COG_CQ	.0321	.1922	.1671	.8675	-.3476	.4118
MOT_CQ	-.0922	.2220	-.4152	.6786	-.5309	.3465
BEH_CQ	-.2919	.2001	-1.4588	.1467	-.6873	.1034
under_35	.3031	.4748	.6384	.5241	-.6349	1.2412
age_rang	.4287	.4839	.8861	.3770	-.5272	1.3846
gender_a	-.2832	.3951	-.7167	.4747	-1.0637	.4974
universi	.2857	.3930	.7271	.4683	-.4906	1.0621
employed	-.2638	.4752	-.5552	.5796	-1.2026	.6750
cultural	-.6109	.5750	-1.0626	.2896	-1.7468	.5249
UK	.4188	.4654	.8997	.3697	-.5007	1.3383
USA	-.9557	.5017	-1.9050	.0587	-1.9467	.0354
SDE	-.0375	.2300	-.1630	.8707	-.4918	.4168
IM	-.1264	.1577	-.8015	.4241	-.4380	.1852

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*  
 OUTCOME VARIABLE: CP Disagreeing

### Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.3423	.1172	5.1774	1.8946	11.0000	157.0000	.0437

### Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5.5572	1.2896	4.3092	.0000	3.0100	8.1044
abroad_e	1.0063	.3941	2.5534	.0116	.2279	1.7848
under_35	.4398	.4654	.9450	.3461	-.4794	1.3589
age_rang	.4958	.4750	1.0438	.2982	-.4424	1.4341
gender_a	-.3222	.3906	-.8248	.4107	-1.0937	.4494
universi	.3077	.3875	.7939	.4284	-.4578	1.0731
employed	-.1849	.4702	-.3933	.6946	-1.1136	.7437
cultural	-.5787	.5642	-1.0257	.3066	-1.6931	.5357
UK	.4251	.4606	.9230	.3574	-.4846	1.3349
USA	-.9881	.4793	-2.0613	.0409	-1.9349	-.0413
SDE	-.0533	.2062	-.2584	.7964	-.4606	.3540
IM	-.1089	.1559	-.6980	.4862	-.4169	.1992

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y \*\*\*\*\*

### Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
1.0063	.3941	2.5534	.0116	.2279	1.7848	.4299

### Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps
1.0972	.4197	2.6142	.0098	.2680	1.9264	.4687

### Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
--------	--------	----------	----------

TOTAL	-.0909	.1656	-.4385	.2230
MC_CQ	.1175	.1103	-.0563	.3801
COG_CQ	.0169	.1075	-.1996	.2447
MOT_CQ	-.0532	.1401	-.3458	.2187
BEH_CQ	-.1720	.1327	-.4881	.0302

## Appendix G: Multiple Regression for H5, H6 & H7

### Multiple Regressions to Test Cultural Projection and Cultural Knowledge

DV	R <sup>2</sup>	ANOVA	Sig. Regression Coefficients	b
CK Communicating	.008	F(3, 76) = .114; p = .989		
CK Evaluating	.129	F(3, 76) = 2.194; p = .064		
CK Deciding	.051	F(3, 76) = .799; p = .554		
CK Trusting	.048	F(3, 76) = .749; p = .589		
CK Disagreeing	.064	F(3, 76) = 1.012; p = .417		
CP Communicating	.063	F(3, 76) = .993; p = .428		
CP Evaluating	.043	F(3, 76) = .669; p = .648		
CP Deciding	.041	F(3, 76) = .631; p = .676		
CP Trusting	.092	F(3, 76) = 41.495; p = .202		
CP Disagreeing	.069	F(3, 76) = 1.099; p = .369		

\*p < 0.1, \*\*p < 0.05, \*\*\*p < 0.01

Predictors: (Constant), level of contact with locals, Study, Work, longterm stay,

Note: Only significant predictors are included in the table.

### Multiple Regression Results for Culture Dimensions with Covariates (Stepwise)

DV	R <sup>2</sup>	ANOVA	Sig. Regression Coefficients	b	p-value	SE
CK Communicating	.220	p < .001	USA	3.37	< .001	0.72
CK Evaluating	.152	p = .002	work	-1.74	.004	0.59
			university degree	-1.30	.026	0.57
CK Deciding	.171	p < .001	UK	-1.74	< .001	0.35
			USA	-1.13	.004	0.39
CK Trusting	.317	p < .001	USA	4.53	< .001	0.82
			SDE	0.80*	.027	0.35

CK Disagreeing	.159	p = .001	UK	-1.74	< .001	0.39
			USA	-1.61	.014	0.64
CP Communicating	.08	p = .013	SDE	-.65	.013	0.26
CP Evaluating	.213	p < .001	university degree	2.30	< .001	0.61
			UK	1.44	.006	0.55
CP Deciding	.06	p = .036	IM	-0.46	.036	0.21
CP Trusting	.056	p = .034	Study	-1.58	.034	0.73
			university degree	1.22	.012	0.24
CP Disagreeing	.066	p = .022	USA	1.54	.022	.66

Predictors in stepwise method: (Constant), level of contact with locals, Study, Work, longterm stay, USA, United Kingdom, Under 35, Age 35 – 44, employed, university degree, cultural impact, gender (1=male), SDE, IM

Note: Only the significant predictors from the Hayes PROCESS macro output are included in the table.