Empirical Investigation of Select Personality, Attitudinal, and Experience-Based Antecedents of Cultural Intelligence in Undergraduate Business Students

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ABSTRACT

Fostering cultural intelligence development in undergraduate business students should be one of the goals of diversity education in undergraduate business programs due to the demands of the increasingly global workplace of today. A number of personality-based (e.g., self-monitoring personality trait), attitudinal (e.g., preference for jobs involving a lot of intercultural interaction), or experience-based (e.g., the experience of studying/living abroad) individual characteristics have been hypothesized to be potential antecedents of cultural intelligence. This study contributes to cultural intelligence research by proposing a few new potential antecedents and performing an empirical investigation of these and a few previously proposed but not yet empirically tested antecedents of cultural intelligence. Consistently with the hypotheses of the study, self-monitoring personality trait, belief in importance of global-content business courses for future careers, prior experience of living/studying abroad, and preference for jobs involving intercultural interaction were positively related to cultural intelligence. Most of the hypothesized relationships between the antecedents and the specific components of cultural intelligence were supported by the data. Contrary to the expectations, however, preference for consistency personality trait was not related to cultural intelligence and its components. The implications of the study findings for developing students' cultural intelligence are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The globalized business world of today experiences a growing need for the professionals who are capable of collaborating and managing across cultures. As the managers are searching for the ways to recognize and develop such talent, they are increasingly relying on the insights delivered by the cultural intelligence research. Despite its fairly brief history (the conceptual model of cultural intelligence has been introduced by Earley and Ang as recently as in 2003), it has been rapidly gaining recognition among researchers and business practitioners alike.

Cultural intelligence is defined as the capability of an individual to function effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity (Earley and Ang, 2003). The utility of the cultural intelligence research for business community lies primarily in its capability to help in selecting the most promising candidates for the jobs requiring frequent intercultural contacts and in improving employees' ability to deal with intercultural situations through training. Cultural IQ can be measured and, what is more important, can be improved in properly motivated and professionally competent adults (Earley and Mosakowski, 2004).

Since the potential employers are more and more interested in hiring business school graduates possessing the capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings, business educators are called upon to prepare students for

careers in a globalized business world (Misra and McMahon, 2006).

This research explores the use of the 20-item version of the Cultural Intelligence Scale (Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh, 2008) for measuring the level of cultural intelligence in undergraduate business students. This study also tests the relationship between cultural intelligence and a few individual (e.g., experience of living or studying abroad, self-monitoring personality trait) characteristics of American undergraduate business students. This paper contributes to the cultural intelligence research by establishing the relationship between some of the previously untested individual characteristics and cultural intelligence. The practical implications of these findings for facilitating cultural intelligence growth are discussed.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Cultural intelligence is an individual capability to grasp, reason, and function effectively in culturally diverse settings (Earley and Ang, 2003). This definition is consistent with the conceptualization of intelligence as a multidimensional capability (Sternberg and Detterman, 1986) which allows for individual's differing levels of ability in specific domains, such as social intelligence (Thorndike and Stein, 1937), emotional intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1993), and practical intelligence (Sternberg et al., 2000).

According to the Earley and Ang's (2003) conceptualization, cultural intelligence is comprrised of four dimensions: metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral. Metacognitive component of cultural intelligence "refers to an individual's level of conscious cultural awareness during cross-cultural interactions" (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008, p. 5). The metacognitive ("thinking about thinking") aspect of CQ reflects one's mental processes and strategies for acquiring cultural knowledge and for dealing with the accumulated cultural information. Metacognitive component allows individuals to reflect upon their interactions with other cultures and continuously adjust their cultural knowledge. Metacognitive CQ is crucially important because it is metacognition that allows an individual to recognize cultural patterns in the multitude of relevant cross-cul-

tural experiences. Cognitive component reflects "knowledge of the norms, practices, and conventions in different cultures that has been acquired from educational and personal experiences " (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008, p. 5). Motivational component "reflects the capability to direct attention and energy toward learning about and functioning in situations characterized by cultural differences" (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008, p. 6). This component is important because cultural knowledge is not sufficient for successful adaptation to a new culture: an individual should be adequately motivated to apply this knowledge and accept the risk of committing cultural gaffes in the process of learning. Erez and Earley (1993) found that cross-cultural self-efficacy (the belief in one's ability to understand people from other cultures) plays an important role in enhancing motivational CQ for two reasons. First, greater self-efficacy enables people to set more ambitious cultural interaction goals, and second, it helps to sustain a high level of motivation for cultural adaptation in the face of possible setbacks and disappointments. Behavioral component reflects "the capability to exhibit appropriate verbal and nonverbal actions when interacting with people from different cultures" (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008, p. 6). An individual with high behavioral intelligence has a wide range of behaviors and the ability to correctly judge the appropriateness of such behaviors in intercultural situations (Earley, Ang, Tan, 2006).

Several versions of a scale measuring cultural intelligence and its four components have been developed to date (e.g., Earley, Ang, Tan, 2006; Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh 2008). This present study utilizes the 20-item self-report version of the cultural intelligence scale which has been successfully validated across cultures and shown to possess discriminant and predictive validity (Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh 2008). The cultural intelligence scale (Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh 2008) is not the only cultural competency scale available (e.g., Paige's (2004) review identified 10 such scales), but it is the only one based on the comprehensive theoretical foundation of the four-factor model of cultural intelligence developed by Earley and Ang (2003).

As it was mentioned earlier, the potential practical applications of cultural intelligence theory

are numerous. For instance, a notable stream of research hypothesizes a cause-and-effect relationship between cultural intelligence and expatriate success (e.g., Kim, Kirkman, and Chen, 2008; Shaffer and Miller, 2008). Expatriate managers' early returns and failure to perform in overseas assignments are extremely costly to their employers (e.g., Tung, 1987). Undoubtedly, research focused on predicting potential expatriates' success based on their cultural intelligence will have practical implications.

However, it might be impractical to limit the pool of potential expatriate managers only to those candidates who can possess high levels of cultural intelligence. These job candidates might have high ability to manage in intercultural settings but happen to lack other kinds of professional skills or experience. The companies willing to invest in developing cultural intelligence in their employees might be interested in identifying the set of personality traits, attitudes, and experiences that are positively associated with cultural intelligence. Although personality characteristics are not malleable by definition, attitudes and experiences are the kind of antecedents of cultural intelligence that can be subject to cultural training interventions. This study focuses on empirical testing of a few potential antecedents of cultural intelligence. There is a wide range of personality (trait-like characteristics) and individual (e.g., experience- or attitude-based) characteristic that might be predictive of cultural intelligence (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008). Because of the relative newness of the cultural intelligence research, a large portion of the antecedents proposed in the literature have not yet been empirically tested. This study contributes to cultural intelligence research by proposing a few new potential antecedents and performing an empirical investigation of these and a few previously proposed but not yet empirically tested antecedents of cultural intelligence.

Self-Monitoring

Much of cultural intelligence development in an individual occurs through introspection (e.g. through observing one's way of thinking about cultural thinking - metacognition), observation of one's own reactions to cross-cultural situations (e.g., self-monitoring of one's emotions), or obser-

vation of other people's actions (e.g., learning the appropriate social interaction norms in a new culture). This gives a reason to propose that the personality trait of self-monitoring, defined by Lennox and Wolfe (1984) as the ability to modify self-presentation and sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others increases an individual's chances to observe and understand cultures and to apply appropriate behaviors in intercultural settings. Lennox and Wolfe (1984) self-monitoring scale consists of two sub-scales: (1) the ability to modify self-presentation (SELFMODIF) and (2) sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others (SENSOTHERS).

Ang and Van Dyne (2008) proposed but have not tested self-monitoring personality trait as an antecedent of CQ. Earley, Ang, and Tan (2006) point out that people with high CQ are "very good at observing others and mimicking their actions (p. 34)." A circumstantial empirical support to this proposition comes from the work of Kealey (1989) who found that self-monitoring was positively related to an expatriate's job performance. While testing for the relationship between self monitoring personality trait and the behavioral CQ, Kurpis (2009) found that the ability to modify self-presentation (SELFMODIF) sub-scale was significant but the sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others (SENSOTHERS) was not significant as a predictor of behavioral CQ. Only the relationship between self-monitoring and behavioral CQ was tested in Kurpis (2009). Re-examining the results of Kurpis' (2009) study, it seems plausible that the self-monitoring trait might be related to more than one dimension of CQ.

For instance, since the ability to modify self-presentation has been shown to predict higher behavioral CQ (Kurpis 2009), it is reasonable to conclude that a person who has access to a large "wardrobe" of intercultural behaviors and has the ability to employ the most appropriate behaviors for each intercultural situation (as implied by the very definition of behavioral CQ) will generally be a successful cross-cultural communicator. Prior success in intercultural communications will sustain this person's sense of efficacy in novel cultural settings. A strong sense of efficacy contributes to higher motivational CQ (Earley and Peterson, 2004). Therefore, it is possible to con-

clude that the ability to modify self-presentation might be predictive not only of the higher behavioral CQ, but of the higher motivational CQ and of the overall CQ:

> H1a: Respondents' ability to modify self-presentation (SELFMODIF) will be positively related to cultural intelligence, including its motivational and behavioral components.

Although it seems logical that keen social observational skills are conducive to higher behavioral CQ, the sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others (SENSOTHERS) was not related to higher behavioral CQ in the study by Kurpis (2009). The explanation to this lack of relationship between SENSEOTHERS and behavioral CQ might be that sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others might translate into the cultural knowledge of the norms and traditions (cognitive CQ) or into the knowledge of one's own mental strategies for learning about and dealing with new cultures (metacognitive CQ) instead of directly affecting behavioral CQ:

> H1b: Respondents' sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others (SENSOTHERS) will be positively related to cultural intelligence, including its metacognitive and cognitive components.

Preference for Consistency

Preference for consistency (PFC) is another personality characteristic that should be explored in conjunction with cultural intelligence. Chialdini, Trost, and Newsom (1995) define preference for consistency as a "tendency to base one's responses to incoming stimuli on the implications of existing (prior entry) variables, such as previous expectancies, commitments, and choices (p. 318)." Earley, Ang, and Tan (2006) point out that a manager's motive to act consistently with his/her values, beliefs, and norms is negatively related to cultural CQ. The reasoning behind this hypothesis is that a strong motive for consistency runs counter to the manager's need to adjust to novel cultural settings, to view intercultural situations from the new point of view and to incorporate new perspectives. Trying to keep the

things as familiar as possible will lead to ignoring and rejecting the information that is inconsistent with the familiar practices even to the detriment of one's ability to make sense of the new managerial situation and to find a solution. Earley, Ang, and Tan (2006) note that high-consistency individuals tend to isolate themselves from the local culture as much as possible (e.g., by living in an expatriate neighborhood) when on an overseas assignment thus forgoing the additional opportunities for networking and for understanding the local culture. Such chronic disposition is likely to result in lower levels of cultural intelligence and all of its components. These considerations lead to the following formal hypothesis:

> H2: Respondents' preference for consistency (PFC) will be negatively related to the overall cultural intelligence, as well as to its motivational component.

Perceived Importance of International Business Courses

In the context of a business school students' learning, it is important to understand which attitudinal dispositions correspond to higher levels of students' CQ. Students who perceive international business-focused courses (e.g. International Marketing, Global Finance) to be important for their future professional careers were found to have higher motivational CQ (Kurpis, 2009). Kurpis (2009) used an earlier version of the cultural intelligence scale (Earley, Ang, and Tan, 2006). The findings pertaining to perceived importance of international business courses has been re-examined in this study using a new version of the scale for measuring cultural intelligence and its components (Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh, 2008):

> H3: Respondents' perceived importance of international business courses for future professional careers will be positively related to the overall cultural intelligence, as well as to its motivational component.

Experience of Studying/Living Abroad

Stemming from the very definition of cultural intelligence and its components, it appears that prior exposure to cultures other than one's own is likely to enrich a student's cultural knowledge (cognitive CQ), contribute to building mental strategies for understanding of novel cultures (metacognitive CQ), enhance student's cross-cultural efficacy beliefs (motivational CQ), and provide a student with a chance to acquire a set of behaviors for interacting with the representatives of other cultures (behavioral CQ). Participation in study abroad programs is one of the proven ways of increasing students' exposure to different cultures. This study tests the hypothesis about a positive relationship between prior experience of study/living abroad and students' cultural intelligence scores:

> H4: Respondents' prior experience of studying/living abroad will be positively related to cultural intelligence as well as to its metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral components.

Preference for Jobs Involving Intercultural Interaction

Even though business students understand that today's workplace places value on an ability to manage competently in intercultural situations, they differ in their motivation to pursue jobs involving a lot of intercultural interactions. Some students are excited about the prospects of a job involving overseas assignments, frequent overseas travel, or a lot of interaction with overseas suppliers or customers, while others are indifferent about such jobs or prefer to avoid them in their job search. It is possible that the high CQ-students are seeking out the work environments where they are more likely to succeed because of their high intercultural abilities while low-CQ students are trying to avoid these environments because they are more likely to fail in positions requiring intercultural skills. This leads to the following hypothesis:

> H5: Those respondents who prefer jobs involving intercultural interactions will have higher cultural intelligence

than those who prefer the jobs requiring no intercultural interactions or those who are indifferent about the intercultural component of their jobs.

Consumer Ethnocentrism

Shimp and Sharma (1987) introduced the concept of consumer ethnocentrism, defined as a "unique economic form of ethnocentrism that captures the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness and indeed morality of purchasing foreign-made products (p. 280)." Highly ethnocentric consumers are trying to avoid purchasing imported products irrespective of their price and quality due to nationalism (Shankarmahesh, 2004). A number of studies found that education was negatively related to consumer ethnocentrism with the explanation being that more educated people are less likely to have ethnic prejudices and are less likely to be conservative (c.f. Shankarmahesh, 2004). Business courses with significant global content are likely to broaden students' perspectives on global markets, on interdependency of global economics, and on importance of global trade, thus diminishing their consumer ethnocentrism:

> H6: Greater exposure to courses with the global content will be negatively related to consumer ethnocentrism.

METHOD

Subjects

Undergraduate students (N=61) from a small private Northwestern university enrolled in an International Marketing course participated in an on-line survey in exchange for a partial course credit. The students taking this class typically major in business or accounting and they take it during their junior or senior year. The mean age of the respondents was 21.4 (range from 20 to 26). Female respondents comprised 59 % of the sample.

Procedure and measures

The survey was presented to the respondents as a study of "cross-cultural skills and attitudes." First, the respondents answered completed the self-report 20-item Cultural Intelligence Scale (Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh, 2008) consisting of the metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral subscales, with response options ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (7) *strongly agree.* Then they completed the short version of the Lennox and Wolfe (1984) Self-Monitoring Scale consisting of the Ability to Modify Self-Presentation (SELFMODIF) and the Sensitivity to the Expressive Behaviors of Others (SENSO-THERS) subscales. The next section of the survey consisted of the 10-item version of the Shimp and Sharma (1987) Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale (CETSCALE) and the 9-item short form of the Preference for Consistency (PFC) Scale (Chialdini, Trost, and Newsom, 1995).

Finally, the respondents answered the three questions pertaining to the importance of International Marketing course for their future professional careers (example of an item: "*I expect to interact a lot with the overseas clients and suppliers over the time of my professional career*"). In a separate one-item measure of job preference respondents stated whether they prefer a job that requires a lot of overseas travel/assignments and involves interaction with people from other cultures. Another question from this portion of the survey utilized the response scale from (1) *does not apply to me* to (7) *describes my experience* to assess if the respondents studied/lived abroad for extended periods of time (for a month or more at a time).

In the concluding portion of the survey, respondents provided an answer to a subjective measure of the number of college-level courses with significant global content that each of them had taken. For the purposes of this survey, the global content course was defined as either a designated "global" or "international" course (e.g., International Finance) or a course where a lot of theoretical perspectives/examples were drawn from around the world. The response categories for the Number of Global Courses measure were: 1 *course*, 2-3 *courses*, 4-5 *courses*, 6-10 *courses*, and over 10 *courses*. The last two measures of the survey pertained to respondents' age and gender.

RESULTS

Sample

Overall, 61 undergraduate business student completed the survey in exchange for a partial credit in an International Marketing course. Of these respondents, 59 % were female. The age range was from 20 to 26, with the mean of 21.41 years of age.

Variables

The metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ scores were calculated by averaging the scores in each of the respective sub-scales of the Cultural Intelligence scale (CQS). The overall cultural intelligence score (CQS) has also been computed by averaging the scores across the four sub-scales. Reliabilities of all Cultural Intelligence measures were at a satisfactory level (metacognitive $\alpha=.80$, cognitive $\alpha=.85$, motivational $\alpha=.79$, behavioral $\alpha=.84$, and the overall CQS $\alpha=.89$) and consistent with the four-factor model of cultural intelligence (Earley and Ang, 2003). The Ability to Modify Self-Presentation (SELFMODIF) and the Sensitivity to the Expressive Behaviors of Others (SENSOTHERS) variables were created by calculating the mean of the appropriate items of the Self-Monitoring Scale, as indicated by Lennox and Wolfe (1984). Cronbach's alpha was .79 for the SELFMODIF sub-scale and .83 - for the SENSOTHERS sub-scale of the Self-Monitoring Scale. The Consumer Ethnocentrism (Cronbach's alpha .88) and the Preference for Consistency (Cronbach's alpha .89) mean scores were computed in a similar manner. The answers to three questions pertaining to the perceived importance of the International Marketing course for respondents' future careers were averaged to form a three-item International Marketing Importance for Job (IMJOB) scale (Cronbach's alpha .87). Thus, all scales used in this study reached or exceeded conventional levels of reliability.

Hypotheses Testing

To test for H1-H4, a series of regressions were run. Each regression used the same set of predic-

tor variables (SELFMODIF, SENSEOTHERS, IMJOB, preference for consistency, and prior experience with work/study abroad) and one of the following dependent variables: the overall cultural intelligence score (CQS), metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ. Beta coefficients with the corresponding t- and p-values for all regressions are reported below.

All models used to test for H1-H4 were significant. The model predicting overall cultural intelligence score (CQS) from the above set of independent variables was significant (F(5, 55)=9.78, p<.001), accounting for 47.1% of the variation in the data. The independent variables were significant as predictors of metacognitive CQ (F(5, 55)=4.68, p<.01), explaining 29.8% of variance. The independent variables were also significant predicting cognitive CQ (F(5, 55)=3.89, p<.01), explaining 26.1% of variance. The model predicting motivational CQ from the set of independent variables was significant as well (F(5, 55)=4.37, p<.01), explaining 28.5% of variance. Finally,

the model predicting behavioral CQ from the set of independent variables was significant (F(5, 55)=4.75, p<.01), explaining 30.2% of variance.

Recall that H1a predicted that respondents' ability to modify self-presentation (SELFMODIF) will be positively related to cultural intelligence, including its motivational and behavioral components. As can be seen from Table 1, SELF-MODIF was significant as a predictor of the overall cultural intelligence score (t(55)=2.4, p<.05) and marginally significant as a predictor of motivational CQ (t(55)=1.93, p=.06) and of behavioral CQ (t(55)=1.99, p=.05). Thus, H1a was mostly supported.

H1b predicted that sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others (SENSOTHERS) will be positively related to cultural intelligence, including its metacognitive and cognitive components. This hypothesis was only partly supported as SENSOTHERS was a significant predictor only of cognitive CQ (t(55)=2.06, p<.05), but not of metacognitive CQ (t(55)=1.03, n.s.) or of the overall CQS (t(55)=1.55, n.s.).

	Cultural Intelligence scale (CQS)		Meta-cognitive CQ		Cognitive CQ		Motivational CQ		Behavioral CQ	
TABLE 1 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE VARIABLES AS PREDICTORS OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE AND ITS COMPONENTS (DF=55)										
Independent Variables	β	t (p)	β	t (p)	β	t (p)	β	t (p)	β	t (p)
Ability to modify self-presentation (SELFMODIF)	.29	2.4* (.02)	.25	1.53 (.13)	.21	.90 (.37)	.29	1.93 (.06)	.44	1.99 (.05)
Sensitivity to expressive behaviors (SENSOTHERS)	.16	1.55 (.13)	.14	1.03 (.31)	.41	2.06* (.04)	-.03	-.22 (.83)	.13	.69 (.49)
Preference for consistency (PFC)	.04	.57 (.57)	.07	.79 (.43)	-.02	-.17 (.86)	-.02	-.24 (.82)	.12	1.05 (.29)
International business importance (IMJOB)	.13	2.31* (.02)	.05	.67 (.50)	.15	1.45 (.15)	.16	2.28* (.03)	.16	1.59 (.12)
Live or study abroad	.09	3.76** (.00)	.11	3.31** (.00)	.10	2.14* (.04)	.06	2.00 (.05)	.11	2.36* (.02)
* p<.05, **p<.01										

According to H2, preference for consistency (PFC) was expected to be negatively related to the overall cultural intelligence, as well as to its motivational component. This hypothesis was not supported by the data. PFC was not a significant predictor of CQS scores (t(55)=.57, n.s.), of motivational CQ (t(55)=-.24, n.s.), or of any other component of cultural intelligence.

H3 proposed that perceived importance of international business courses (measured as perceived importance of an International Marketing course) for respondents' future careers will be positively related to the overall cultural intelligence, as well as to its motivational component. The data provided full support to H3. The IM-JOB scale was a significant predictor of the CQS score (t(55)=2.31, p<.05) and of motivational CQ (t(55)=2.28, p<.05).

Consistently with H4, respondents' prior experience of studying/living abroad was positively related to the overall cultural intelligence score (t(55)=3.76, p<.01), including metacognitive CQ (t(55)=3.31, p<.01), cognitive CQ (t(55)=2.14, p<.05), and behavioral CQ (t(55)=2.36, p<.05). It was marginally significant as a predictor of motivational CQ (t(55)=2.00, p=.05). Overall, H4 was mostly supported.

To test for H5, the hypothesis predicting that those respondents who expressed preference for the jobs involving intercultural interaction (e.g., overseas assignments) have higher cultural intelligence, the job preference variable was transformed. This transformation separated all respondents into two groups: those who prefer jobs with intercultural component versus those who are either indifferent or prefer jobs that do not require a lot of intercultural interaction. The cultural intelligence scores of the two Job Preference groups were then compared using an independent-sample t-test. Consistently with H5, the means of the CQS scores and of all of its four components were higher for those respondents who had expressed a preference for a job involving intercultural interaction. This difference was significant for the comparison of the overall CQS scores (t(59)=3.09, p<.01), motivation CQ (t(59)=2.49, p<.05), and behavioral CQ (t(59)=3.08, p<.01). The difference was marginally significant for cognitive CQ (t(59)=1.93, p=.06), however the difference between the groups' metacognitive CQ scores was not statistically significant (t(59)=1.39, n.s.). Overall, H5 was generally supported.

As a follow-up analysis on the data, the two Job Preference groups were compared on perceived importance of an International Marketing course. The respondents who were predisposed to working in diverse, intercultural environments perceived International Marketing course as being significantly more important for their future professional careers (M=5.75 vs. M=4.53, t(59)=4.18, p<.01) compared to their peers who were indifferent or averse to jobs with significant intercultural component.

Finally, H6 proposed that exposure to larger number of courses with global content (e.g., International Marketing, International Finance) will be negatively related to consumer ethnocentrism. To test for H6, the self-reported data on the number of courses with significant global content taken by the respondents was transformed in order to group respondents into two categories: those who took between 1 and 3 global content courses (low exposure) and those who took 4 or more global content courses (high exposure). Consumer ethnocentrism (CET) scores of the high exposure group were significantly lower (M=2.08 vs. M=2.61, t(59)=2.21, p<.05) compared to the low exposure group. Thus, H6 was fully supported.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In summary, H1a and H1b were mostly supported: the data were consistent with most of the hypothesized positive relationships between the self-monitoring personality trait and the specified components of cultural intelligence. The two subscales of the self-monitoring scale were predictive of higher scores on different dimensions of cultural intelligence. The ability to modify self-presentation was significant as a predictor of cultural intelligence while being marginally significant as a predictor of motivational and behavioral CQ. On the other hand, the sensitivity to expressive behaviors of others was significant as a predictor cognitive CQ but it was not significant as a predictor of the overall CQS score. These findings generally support the author's hypotheses about flexible self-presenters (high SELF-

MODIF scores) being more successful in intercultural communications, thus leading to higher behavioral CQ. As discussed earlier in this paper, success in cross-cultural communication is likely to increase a person's intercultural self-efficacy, thus contributing to higher motivational CQ. At the same time, keen observers (high SENSOTHERS scores) are apparently better capable of making sense of intercultural situations, an ability which contributes to their greater cognitive CQ. The data did not support the hypothesized positive relationship between SENSOTHERS scores and metacognitive CQ. Metacognitive CQ represents the "thinking about thinking" aspect of acquiring cultural knowledge. It is possible that the ability to observe and understand expressive behaviors of others (SENSOTHERS) alone is not sufficient for achieving higher metacognitive CQ. Additional factors such as experience of dealing with other cultures, inductive and analogical reasoning might need to be present in order for the sensitivity to expressive behaviors of others to exert its impact on metacognitive CQ (Earley, Ang, and Tan, 2006).

H2 about a negative relationship between cultural intelligence and respondents' preference for consistency was not supported by the data. One possible explanation for this is that the Preference for Consistency (PFC) scale (Chialdini, Trost, and Newsom, 1995) used to measure consistency in this study covers more than one type of consistency, namely: the desire to be consistent with one's own responses, the desire to appear consistent to others, and the desire that others be consistent. It might be possible that some, but not all types of consistency preferences negatively affect cultural intelligence scores. This possibility needs to be explored further in the future research.

Taken together, the results of testing for H3 and H5 suggest that students who believe in the importance of taking business courses with global content as well as students who have preference for the jobs with intercultural content tend to have higher cultural intelligence scores. There are many practical implications for this finding. First of all, these data suggest that undergraduate students differ in their attitudes to developing global management skills. Those students who are interested in developing global management skills tend to have higher cultural intelligence.

Such students represent an attractive target market for the universities willing to offer a variety of business courses with global content. These data also suggest that a university's path for facilitating students' cultural intelligence development can start with educating the students about the growing importance of global management skills for success in today's workplace.

This study has also shown that, consistently with H6, exposure to a larger number of business courses with global content is associated with lower levels of consumer ethnocentrism. This outcome might be desirable for the educators who wish to lower the levels of ethnocentrism in undergraduate business students out of a concern that a highly ethnocentric business professional who is biased against foreign-made products will be more at risk of making suboptimal buying decisions on behalf of her future employers.

Finally, one of the most interesting findings of this study is that, as stated in H4, students' experience with studying/living abroad was positively related to cultural intelligence. H4 was also supported for most of CQ components with the exception of the marginally significant association with motivational CQ. The fact that cultural intelligence is positively related to the participation in study-abroad programs indicates one of the promising directions for increasing cultural intelligence in undergraduate business students.

Because of the relatively short history of cultural intelligence research, few empirical studies testing the hypothesized antecedents of cultural intelligence have been published to-date. This present study contributes to cultural intelligence research by proposing and empirically testing some new relationships between potential predictor variables (preference for consistency, perceived importance of business courses with global content, preference for jobs involving intercultural interactions, experience of working/studying abroad) and cultural intelligence. This study also makes a contribution by testing previously hypothesized but not empirically tested antecedents (self-monitoring) of cultural intelligence. The findings of this present study can assist human resource managers who need to identify the best candidates for the positions requiring intercultural management abilities. As noted above, most of the findings of this study

also have practical implications for improving undergraduate students' preparedness for work in the global workplace. This study suggests that cultural intelligence in undergraduate business students can be improved through educating the students about the importance of intercultural skills for professional success as well as through increasing the number of business courses with global content and increasing the opportunities for the students to participate in the study-abroad programs.

The limitations of this study include the use of a fairly small (N=61) and homogeneous sample consisting of undergraduate business students of similar age and socio-economic status. Future research should employ larger and more diverse samples to identify potential antecedents of cultural intelligence. Only a small number of potential antecedents have been tested in this study due to limitations on the size of the questionnaire. There are several potential antecedents that have been proposed in the literature (e.g., need for closure - c.f. Ang and Van Dyne, 2008) that, to the best of the author's knowledge, have not been empirically tested. Future research should continue identifying and testing other potential antecedents of cultural intelligence and its components.

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