THE IMPACT OF GLOBAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCY AND TRUST IN LEADER ON TEAM PROCESS EFFECTIVENESS IN THAILAND

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A Dissertation Submitted in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
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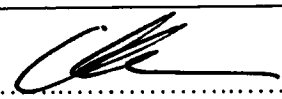
Assistant Professor.....  .....Major Advisor

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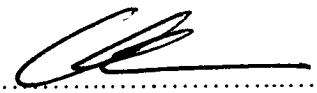
Assistant Professor.....  .....Committee

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ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation	The Impact of Global Leadership Competency and Trust in Leader on Team Process Effectiveness in Thailand
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While the global leadership studies have grown drastically over decades, the knowledge on how global leadership competency impact on trust in leader and team effectiveness remains under-explored. This research aims to study the impact of global leadership competency and trust in leader on team process effectiveness to foster more cohesive theoretical and empirical work in the area.

This study used quantitative research approach in 5 multinational companies in Thailand which consist of both expatriate leaders and local leaders (N = 818). This research explored relationships of the respondents' perceptions toward global leadership competency of their direct superior, trust in leader and team process effectiveness. The research employed and modified 3 standard questionnaires hence construct validity was confirmed by exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). This study used both descriptive and inferential statistics to provide a summary of the research data on the variables. The descriptive statistical techniques included frequency, percentage, means, and standard deviation. For the inferential statistical analysis, this research employed one-way ANOVA, correlation analysis, and structural equation modeling (SEM) to empirically test the research questions.

The findings suggested that there was high impact of global leadership competency on trust in leader and also found a moderate impact of global leadership competency on team process effectiveness. The results also indicated a small impact of

trust in leader on team process effectiveness. Discussion, practical implication, limitation as well as recommendation for the future research are also presented at the end of this paper.

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My deepest thanks goes to my family especially my parents who always love me unconditionally and provide me great support and encouragement throughout my life. I would like to dedicate this key achievement to my dad and mom because without them I would not come this far.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The requirements for great leadership have been changed drastically in short time frame by globalization and evolution of technology (Health, Martin, & Shahisaman, 2017). Leaders can be viewed as globalization's by-product and also driver of globalization through a change in theirs minset (Osland, Ehret, & Ruiz, 2017). Global organizations have increasingly gained significance in the 21st century. The speed of increasing global integration has impacted organizations, and leaders have encountered rapidly changes, such as new technologies, global competition, and cultural diversity (Friedman, 2006; Northhouse, 2004; Rosen, Digh, Phillips, & Rosen, 2000). As a result of globalization, organizations are calling for leaders with a global perspective and an ability to integrate different points of view and responses to the global market effectively (Jeannet, 2000).

Globalization also creates more complexity regarding the leader's tasks, contexts, and decision-making (Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, & Maznevski, 2008). It requires more intellectual intelligence and integration skills on the part of leaders (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2001). It is clearly shown in many studies that the demand for global leaders is increasing (Black, 1988; Sheridan, 2005) and that global leadership competencies have become undoubtedly important.

According to Smith, Peterson, and Schwartz (2002, p. 192), "each individual operates within a cultural environment in which certain values, norms, attitudes, and practices are more or less dominant and serve as shared sources of socialization and social control". They also pointed out that both values and behaviors are different between cultures. Most studies on global leadership in the 1990s emphasized global leadership competencies and a global mindset (Beechler & Javidan, 2007; Jeannet, 2000; Kedia & Mukherji, 1999; Rhinesmith, 2003). Many of these competencies, however, overlap conceptually and appear not to work well universally (Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou, 2010). Leaders that are working in diverse cultural

contexts appear to recognize different leadership styles in each national culture, and therefore various leadership skills are critical for leadership effectiveness (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002). In order to gain more comprehension of the concept of effective leadership in a global context, further study is critical.

Human resource development (HRD) has been defined as "a process of developing and or unleashing human expertise through organization development and personnel training and development for the purpose of improving performance" (Swanson, 1995, p. 208). The study of leadership effectiveness and its contribution to organizational performance is one of the key areas for HRD scholars (Hamlin, 2003; Holton & Lynham, 2000; Kuchinke, 2000). Greater progress in leadership study can be achieved if a more comprehensive relationship between global leadership competencies and leadership effectiveness can be established, particularly with regard to the specific context of global leadership. Enhancing leadership knowledge can contribute to HRD advancement in order to achieve its purpose of improving organizational performance more effectively.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Leaders at all levels of organizations work in a fluid global context, which requires adaptive competency to deal with new and different cultural factors (Earley, & Mosakowski, 2004; Rosen et al., 2000). "Global leadership has been identified as a critical success factor for large multinational corporations" (Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, & House, 2006, p. 67), and there are various studies on global leadership (Black, Morrison, & Gregersen, 1999; Goldsmith, Greenberg, Robertson, & Hu-Chan, 2003; Rhinesmith, 1996) that aim to enhance the understanding of leadership effectiveness in the global context.

Effective leaders are those that can achieve results within appropriate time frames agreed by industries and stakeholders (Goleman, 2000). The influence of a leader on team performance and organizational performance has been studied for decades (e.g. Bass, 1990; Peterson, Smith, Martorana, & Owens, 2003; Shen & Chen, 2007; Sheng & Chou, 2005; Yammarino, 1996; Zamahani, Ghornbani, & Razaei, 2011), and that research has focused on the different perspectives of the leader, for

example, the leader's characteristics and behaviors (e.g. Steyrer, 1998, Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000), leadership personality (e.g. De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005), and leadership styles (e.g. Bass, & Riggio, 2006, Jensen & Luthans, 2006). However, the influence of leadership competencies on team performance appears to be still underexplored while organizations invest millions in developing leaders' competencies (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2007).

Trust has been identified as a significant aspect in leadership theories (such as transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, leader-member exchange) and is also considered a critical dimension of effective leader behavior and leader effectiveness (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2007). The GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) project, which has conducted research in 62 cultures, also supports this idea, as it pointed out that "being trustworthy" is one of the universal facilitators of leadership effectiveness (Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, & House, 2006). Miles and Snow (1992) emphasized that trust is critical in new organizational arrangements, which rely on employees' self-direction and self-control. The challenge for the organization is that the global and virtual contexts constrain, or perhaps even impede, the development of trust (Jarvenpaa, Knoll, & Leidner, 1998, p. 30). As working in a global context may require leaders to work in multicultural environment, lead virtual teams or teams from a distance across the globe, trust appears to be even more critical to move teams forward quickly and effectively.

Based on the above reasons, study of the impact of global leadership competency and trust in the leader on team process effectiveness can enhance the knowledge of leadership effectiveness in the HRD field. There has been to date no comprehensive research on this subject matter.

1.2 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to explore the impact of global leadership competency and trust in the leader on team process effectiveness in order to develop a broader knowledge base for HRD. Ultimately, the objective of this study was to identify appropriate HRD interventions to help organizations develop and manage organizational leadership and performance at the next level.

The following key research questions were identified in order to accomplish the purpose of this study:

1) How does global leadership competency impact trust in leader?
2) How does global leadership competency impact team effectiveness?
3) How does trust in leader impact team effectiveness?

1.3 Significance of the Study

Luthans and Doh (2006) pointed out that due to the globalised economy, there has been an increasing growth of international corporations and revenue from international trade in almost all countries in the world. Consequently, the requirements for overseas workers have increased significantly in many organizations. According to Shung, Frederick, Morgeson, and Campion, (2007, p. 64) "such expatriate assignments pose unique challenges for workers because of difference in such things as language, cultural values, and expectations". Global leaders are those that work in complex global environment to manage across distances, across countries, and across cultural boundaries (Leslie, Dalton, Ernst, & Deal, 2002) to achieve both global integration and local differentiation objectives. Hence, both expatriate leaders and local leaders that are working in multinational corporations (MNCs) need to have global leadership compentencies in order to perform in a multicultural context effectively.

According to UNCTAD (2009), transnational corporations (MNCs) have played a key role in economic development as they accounted for about two thirds of world trade in 2001 and 11% of the world GDP in 2007. In Thailand, the MNCs investment has retained its growth and significance according to the Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) trend in 2008-2012: 8,547 million US dollars in 2008, and 8,904 million US dollars in 2012 (Foreign Direct Investment: Annually Statistics, 2013). Jarinto (2011) found that different cultures and leadership styles have caused employee stress and illness in the MNCs in Thailand. Therefore, enhancing leadership knowledge of the MNCs that operate in Thailand can contribute to better HRD practices in Thailand.

Warren Bennis indicated that "Trust is the lubrication that makes it possible for organizations to work" (Hitch, 2012, p. 2). Trust in leadership is a significant concept

because typically a leader should have the most formal power on the team (Bass, 1990) and followers' trust in leader can lead to positive team performance. Some studies have emphasized that trust in leadership influences the team's and the organization's effectiveness, and it also affects workplace outcomes, e.g. organizational citizenship behavior, goal acceptance, and task performance (Dirks, 2000). The critical role of trust is included in many leadership theories as an important trait of the leader and is a component of leadership styles (Dirks, 2000).

While organizations invest millions of dollars in developing a leader's competencies (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2007) and also the cost of leaders' failures is high (Bradt, 2009; Downey, 2002, Gilmore, 2003), financially and psychologically (for example Stoddard and Wyckoff (2008) pointed out that failure of top executives can cost the US economy 13.8 billion US dollar per annum), a better understanding of global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team effectiveness is therefore essential for organizations. This research will contribute to the knowledge of this subject matter.

1.4 Definitions of Key Terms

The following terms are generally defined to provide an idea of the scope of the study:

1.4.1 Global Leader

Dean (2007) reviewed various definitions of global leader (see Alon & Higgins, 2005; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Rosen et al., 2000; Suutari, 2002) and summarized that "global leaders refer to organizational leaders who are competent to adapt quickly to different cultural context and perform effectively."

1.4.2 Global Leadership

Global leadership is defined by Beechler and Javidan (2007, p. 140) as "the process of influencing individuals, groups, and organizations (inside and outside the boundaries of the global organization) representing diverse cultural/political/

institutional systems to contribute towards the achievement of the global organization's goals".

1.4.3 Competency

Spencer, McClelland, and Spencer (1994, p. 6) defined competency as the "motives, traits, self-concepts, attitudes, or values, content knowledge, or cognitive or behavioral skills— any individual characteristics that can be measured or counted reliably and that can be shown to differentiate significantly between superior and average performers, or between effective and in effective performers".

1.4.4 Trust

"Trust is the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the action of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party" (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p. 712).

1.4.5 Team

The team has been described by Baker and Salas (1997) as two individuals or more that interdependently interact for achieving a common goal.

1.4.6 Team Effectiveness

Hackman (1987) defined team effectiveness as an evaluation of team performance and outcomes according to related criteria. According to Wageman, Hackman, and Lehman (2005) team effectiveness refers to the extent to which a team is successful based on three dimensional concepts: 1) the productive output of the team, 2) the social process that the team uses in carrying out the work, and 3) the learning and well-being of team members.

1.5 Conceptual Framework

This study employed the quantitative research methodology to explore the impact of global leadership competency and trust in leader on team process

effectiveness. Global leadership competency (Goldsmith et al., 2003), trust in leader (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995), and the team process effectiveness (Wageman et al., 2005), provide the theoretical foundation for this research. The conceptual framework is illustrated in Figure 1.1.

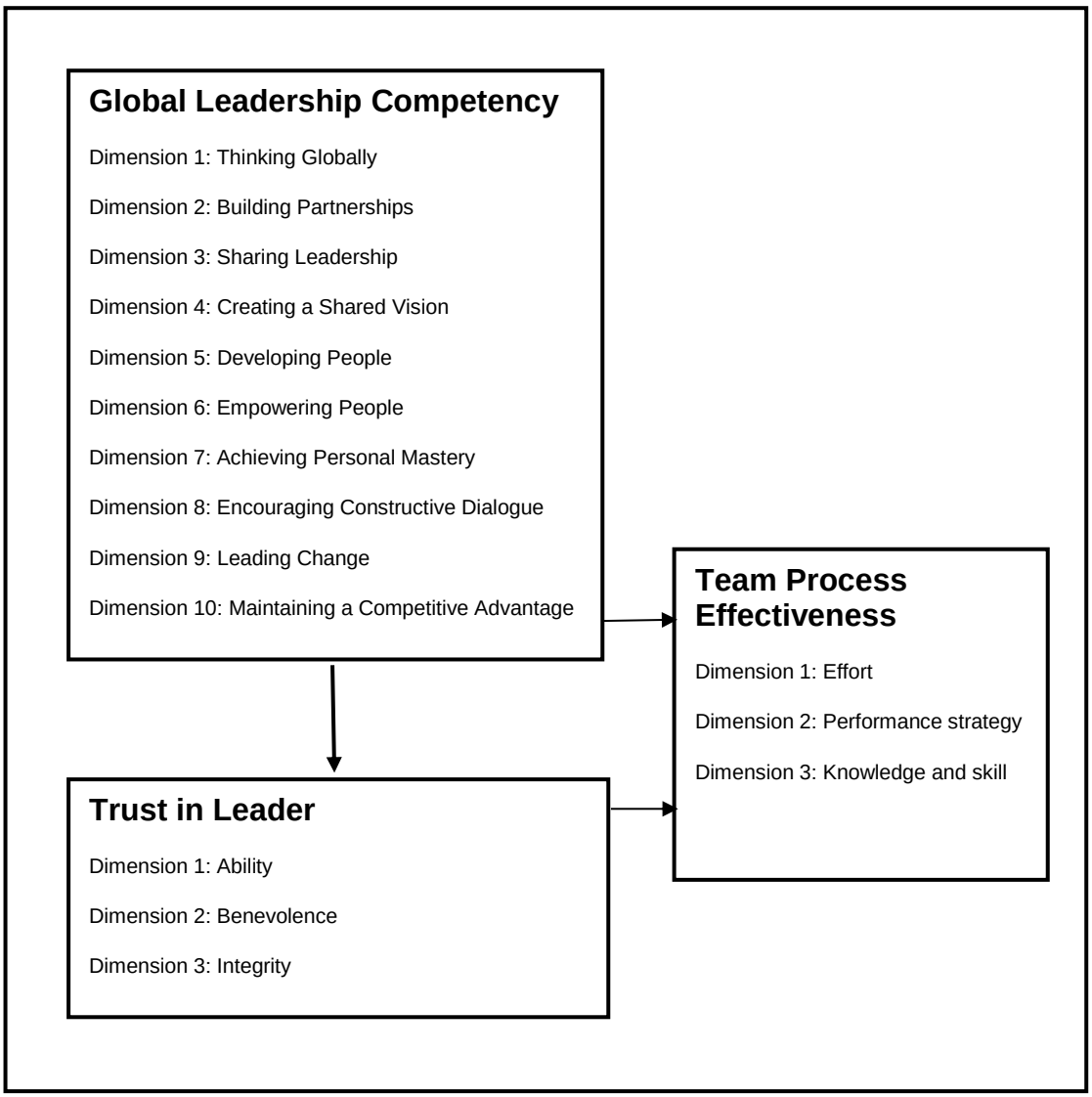


Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework

1.6 Summary

This chapter spells out the rationale and significance of the study of global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness. The purpose of the study was explained, and the key research questions, conceptual framework, and key definitions used in this paper were provided.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter explores the relevant literature that supports the study of global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness. The first part reviews the evolution of leadership theories, highlighting global leadership in the global context. The second part explores the terms global leader and global leadership competency. The third part examines the concept and underlying theories of trust that emphasize trust in leader. The fourth part reviews the team literature with an emphasis on team performance and effectiveness. The final section discusses the underlying theories of the present study and investigates the integrated models and research that suggest a linkage between global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness.

2.1 Evolution of Leadership Theories and Global Leadership

2.1.1 Evolution of Leadership Theories

The term "leadership" emerged in the late 1700s (Stogdill, 1974); however, scientific research on the area began in the 20th century (Bass, 1981). Burns (1978, p. 2) stated that "leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth" and his statement appears to be supported by Seters and Field (1990, p. 29) as they pointed out that "leadership is one of the most complex and multifaceted phenomena to which organizational and psychological research has been applied".

There are various definitions of leadership. For instance, Bennis (1990, p. 45) defined leadership as "the capacity to create a compelling vision, one that takes people to a new place, and the ability to translate that vision into reality" while Gardner (1990, p. 1) stated that "leadership is the process of persuasion or example by which an individual (or leadership team) induces a group to pursue objectives held by leader and his or her followers." Bass (1990, p. 19) argued that "leadership is an interaction

between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members." In summary Yukl (2006, p. 2) concluded that "most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization."

The evolution of leadership theories has been investigated by many studies. Even though each of them appears to emphasize different aspects, the key concepts appear not to be drastically different. According to Yukl (2006, p. 12-15), there are at least five main approaches to leadership studies as discussed below.

1) Traits Approach

This was one of the earliest approaches to leadership studies during the 1930s and 1940s. The approach focuses on personal attributes such as the personality, motives, and values of leaders; however, it failed to find any traits that could assure leadership success.

2) Behavioral Approach

This approach began in the early 1950s and emphasizes the leader's behavior; it was further divided into two subcategories. The first one investigates the manager's roles and responsibilities, while the second one focuses on identifying effective leadership behaviors.

3) Power-influence Approach

This examines the amount and type of the leader's power and how the leader exercises power to influence others to achieve goals and effectiveness.

4) Situational Approach

This approach attempts to identify the importance of the contextual factors that influence the leadership process. Relevant factors could be the nature of functional work, organization culture, and the characteristics of followers.

5) Integrative Approach

This approach involves multi-leadership variables (e.g. traits, situational variables, and outcomes) to explain the leadership phenomenon and processes. Examples of the integrative approach are the self- concept theory of charismatic

leadership, and transformational leadership as the theories involve traits, behaviors, influencing processes, and facilitating contexts.

The above points of view illustrate the progression of leadership studies, which began with individual aspects and extended to the leadership process and context to develop more knowledge about leadership. The topic of leadership is not different from other areas in social sciences, which require continuous research to be appropriate for the rapidly-changing world. Undoubtedly, the newer leadership theories emerged to serve the organization in terms of enhancing its effectiveness continuously as with, for example, cross-cultural leadership theory and global leadership theory.

2.1.2 Global Leadership

Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber (2009, p. 438) indicated that "although most leadership research and theory has been developed and tested within a Western context, a growing interest in research and theory focuses on the role of leadership across cultural contexts". For a better understanding of global leadership (GL), knowledge of cross cultural-leadership (CCL) is significant (Beechler & Javidan, 2007). Beechler and Javidan (2007) explained further that both CCL and GL were driven by globalization but that CCL is rooted in cross-cultural psychology and focuses on theoretical and methodological issues, while GL has a wider scope. The following is a description of CCL according to Dorfman (2004, p. 269):

> From a scientific and theoretical perspective, compelling reasons exist for considering the influence of culture on leadership processes. Because the general goal of science is to develop universally valid theories, laws, and principles, leadership researcher should strive to develop leadership theories that transcend cultures.

Beechler and Javidan (2007) also pointed out the distinct differences between CCL and GL—that CCL is a component of GL because CCL emphasizes the individual relationship within an organization while GL focuses on wider relationships between the leader and stakeholders inside and outside the organization globally. The authors argued further that "globalization has been occurring for centuries but the new age of

globalization is not merely a continuation of a centuries-old trend". (Beechler & Javidan, 2007, p. 131)

Friedman (2005) proposed some of the unprecedented characteristics of globalization that emerged in the 21st century: 1) characterized by destruction of boundaries, 2) trade liberalization across borders, and 3) the decrease of restrictions of foreign direct investment (FDI). As a result of globalization, the demand on global leaders has increased significantly (Morrison, 2000). Despite the call for global leaders, organizations have been facing the challenge of global leader shortages (Alder & Bartholomew, 1992; Mercer Delta Consulting, 2006). Hence, research and studies on the better development of global leaders and their management are critical for organizations.

Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, and House (2006, p. 67) have argued that "global leadership has been identified as a critical success factor for large multinational corporations". Unsurprisingly, there are many studies on global leadership. Mendenhall, Reiche, Bird, and Oslan (2012, p. 493) pointed out that many of these studies have the purpose of understanding the differences between global leadership and domestic leadership, to identify the global leadership work scope and required competencies, and to develop assessment and development tools for global leadership. Nevertheless, the authors indicated that "global leadership remain a nascent filed, and there is much that still remains to be understood about global leadership process").

There have been several attempts to define global leadership. Adler (1997, p. 174) for example indicated that "global leadership involves the ability to inspire and influence the thinking, attitudes, and behavior of people around the world ... (it) can be described as a process by which members of the world community are empowered to work together synergistically toward a common vision and common goals resulting in an improvement in the quality of life on and for the planet. Global leaders are those people who most strongly influence the process of global leadership". Osland and Bird (2005, p. 123) appear to align with Adler, as they pointed out that "global leadership is the process of influencing the thinking, attitudes, and behaviors of a global community to work together synergistically toward a common vision and common goal". This definition appears to be closer to the organizational context proposed by Beechler and Javidan (2007, p. 140) as the authors defined "global leadership [as] the process of

influencing individuals, groups, and organizations (inside and outside the boundaries of the global organization) representing diverse cultural/political/institutional systems to contribute towards the achievement of the global organization's goals". As this study focuses on the organizational aspect of global leadership, the definition of Beechler and Javidan (2007) appeared to be the most appropriate.

2.2 Global Leader and Global Leadership Competency

2.2.1 Global Leader

The term "global leader" first appeared during the 1960s and 1970s as a description of the market position of the organization, and until the end of the 1980s the term was applied to executive and individual jobs which focused mostly on expatriates (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002, pp. 20-21). Shung, Frederick, Morgeson, and Campion (2007, p. 64) pointed out that "such expatriate assignments pose unique challenges for workers because of difference in such things as language, cultural values, and expectations". Hence expartriate adjustment appears to be a critical factor for the expatriate. According to Thomas and Lazarova (as cited in Günter and Ingmar, 2006, p. 247), expatriation research during the 1970s and early 1980s indicated that expatriate adjustment was significant for overseas assignment effectiveness and therefore, the expatriate's performance depended on his or her ability to adjust.

Mendanhall et al. (2012, p. 494) argued that "the conceptual definitions underlying this stream of research (global leader) are often idiosyncratic in nature, not explicitly spelled out". There are many definitions of the global leader. Spreitzer, McCall, and Mahoney (1997, p. 7) defined him or her as "an executive who is in a job with some international scope, whether in an expatriate assignment or in a job dealing with international issues more generally". Gregersen, Morrison, and Black (1998) also align with Spreitzer et al. (1997) and they indicated that global leaders are "leaders who can guide organizations that span diverse countries, cultures, and customers." Suutari (2002, p. 229) pointed out that "global leaders are managers with global integration responsibilities in global organization", while Harris, Moran, and Moran (2004, p. 25) explained further that "global leaders are capable of operating effectively in a global environment while being respectful of cultural diversity".

Dean (2007, p. xiii) reviewed various definitions of the global leader (see Alon & Higgins, 2005; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Rosen et al., 2000; Suutari, 2002) and summarized that "global leaders refer to organizational leaders who are competent to adapt quickly to different cultural context and perform effectively". This definition appears to fit with this research as it emphasizes organizational leaders and their competence.

2.2.2 Global Leadership Competency

2.2.2.1 Evolution of Global Leadership Competency

The term "competency" was first introduced by David McClelland in 1973 in his research paper "Testing for Competence rather than Intelligence," which pointed out that intelligence by itself cannot predict high performance, while competency appears to be more powerful in predicting high performance and success (Rodrigueze, Patel, Bright, Gregory, and Gowing, 2002, p. 309). Spencer, McClelland, and Spencer (1990, p. 6) defined competency as the "motives, traits, self-concepts, attitudes, or values, content knowledge, or cognitive or behavioral skills— any individual characteristics that can be measured or counted reliably and that can be shown to differentiate significantly between superior and average performers, or between effective and in effective performers".

The concept of competency has become fundamental in human resource management (Lawler, 1994; Ulrich, 1997) in designing tools, systems, and practices, e.g. recruitment, training, and development (Rodrigueze et al., 2002). To elaborate more on the utilization of competency for development, Intagliata, Ulrich, and Smallwood (2000, p. 13) stated that competencies are very important for leadership development for at least 5 reasons, which are the following: 1) they can be used as a direction; 2) they are measurable; 3) they can be learned; 4) they can differentiate and distinguish each organization; and 5) they are useful for management practice integration. One more advantage of competency is the linkage with organizational goals and strategies (Rodrigueze et al., 2002), which is clearly critical for leadership development in order to ensure end results.

Morrison (2000, p. 120) stated that "during the 1990s, competency-based leadership (competency) models have swept the human resources community" and

organizations invested resources in designing specific leadership competency models that could be applied around the globe. Nevertheless, the complexity (e.g. numbers of competencies) and internal inconsistency (e.g. competencies that are not mutually exclusive) of the models caused poor acceptance by employees (Morrison, 2000, p. 120). Morrison (2000, pp. 121-126) recognized the contributions of academic studies in providing a greatger comprehension of global leadership and summarized the key studies according to two main approaches: descriptive and systematic studies.

Key descriptive studies for example are the work of Rhinesmith in 1996 and Brake in 1997. Rhinesmith (1996) pointed out that there were 3 key responsibilities of global leaders: a) strategy and structure, b) corporate culture, and c) people. The author also identified 24 global leadership competencies for performing the global role effectively. This work mainly contributed to "highlighting the complexity of global leadership" but the model was too complicated and was not based on systematic research. Brake (1997, p. 44) proposed the "global leadership triad" in 1997 and elaborated that there were three characteristics of global leadership: 1) relationship management, 2) business acumen, and 3) personal effectiveness, while the center of this triad was the "transformational self". The key contribution of Brake's work was the richness of examples and suggestions for actions, while the limitations were a lack of research behind the framework, all of the examples came from the U.S. only, and the efficiency of the 15 competencies in the framework.

There have been some key systematic studies on global leadership. In 1983, for example, Laurent conducted a survey research with 817 managers in ten Western countries to explore "their view of what proper management should be" (Laurent, 1983, p. 77) and found an impact of the national culture on the respondents' views. Unfortunately, the study did not focus on competencies and the samples included Western managers only. Adler and Bartholomew (1992) pointed out that there were three kinds of global strategies (international, multinational, and transnational) and that each strategy required different competencies on the part of leaders. Nevertheless, their work emphasized global strategies more than global leadership competencies. Later in 1994, Moran and Riesenberger studied 49 senior managers in a business school in the U.S. and suggested 12 competencies that were related to global strategy

implementation, while only 3 of those competencies contributed to global leadership. The small sample size without non-U.S. respondents was also a limitation of their work.

In 1999, Black, Morrison, and Gregersen began their study by interviewing more than 130 senior line managers and human resource (HR) executives in more than 50 MNCs in North America, Europe, and Asia to find out "the characteristics of effective global leaders," the best way to develop those characteristics, and also the existing role model of the global leader in their organizations. Then the authors interviewed those global leaders with the same questions. After that an initial global leadership competency model was developed and tested with senior HR executives at 110 Fortune 500 companies in order to gain greater insight and to refine and clarify the model. Black et al. (1999, p. 124) concluded that "two-thirds of the characteristics of effective global leadership" could be generalized worldwide while the rest were context-specific. They pointed out three distinct characteristics of effective global leaders: 1) demonstrating savvy, 2) exhibiting character, and 3) embracing duality while indicating "inquisitiveness as a kind of glue that holds the model together and gives it life" as it leads to learning. Despite their significant contributions to the field, Black et al. (1999) admitted that there were limitations to their work, for instance, their focus on specific contextual competencies more than generalized ones, and the fact that the samples in their research were from Fortune 500 companies only.

House, Hanges, Agar, and Ruiz-Quintanilla (1994) were working on one of the most significant long-term researches on global leadership, as it covered more than 60 countries, to identify and generalize the context-specific leadership competencies across the globe. (Later on this research became known as the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project.). The GLOBE project is one of the most well-known researches on global leadership. Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, and House (2012) explained that the GLOBE project studied cross-cultural leadership with more than 200 researchers and more than 1000 CEOs and 5000 senior management team participants across 62 nations in the early 1990s. They indicated in that study that the GLOBE project discovered six dimensions of the leadership profile: 1) charismatic/valued based; 2) team-oriented; 3) participative; 4) humane-oriented; 5) autonomous; and 6) self-protective. Dorfman et

al. (2012, p. 504) also summarized recent key findings from the GLOBE project, stating the following: “a) national culture indirectly influences leadership behaviors through the leadership expectations of societies; b) some leadership behaviors are universally effective such as charismatic/valued-based leadership; others are much more culturally sensitive such as participative leadership, and c) truly superior CEOs by the degree to which their behaviors exceed their society’s expectations”.

In 2012 the Center for Creative Leadership (CCL) summarized the GLOBE project, stating that “based on a 7-point scale and the ‘world mean’ of each scale, the 21 leadership scales ranked from ‘most universally desirable’ to ‘the least universally desirable.”

The CCL (2012, pp. 4-5) further explained that the “21 leadership scales were statistically and conceptually reduced to six styles” as follows:

“1) The charismatic/valued-based style (4.5-6.5) stresses high standards, decisiveness, and innovation; seeks to inspire people around a vision; creates a passion among them to perform; and does so by firmly holding on to core values. This includes the facets of visionary, inspirational, self-sacrificial, integrity, decisive, and performance-oriented.

2) The team-oriented style (4.7-6.2) instills pride, loyalty, and collaboration among organizational members; and highly values team cohesiveness and a common purpose or goals. This style includes the facets of collaborative team orientation, team integrator, diplomatic, (reverse scored) malevolent, and administratively competent.

3) The participative style (4.5-6.1) encourages input from others in decision-making and implementation; and emphasizes delegation and equality. This style includes the facets of (reverse scored) autocratic and (reverse scored) non-participative.

4) The humane style (3.8-5.6) stresses compassion and generosity; and it is patient, supportive, and concerned with the well-being of others. This style includes the facets of modesty and humane-oriented.

5) The self-protective (2.5-4.6) style emphasizes procedural, status-conscious, and ‘face-saving’ behaviors; and focuses on the safety and security of

the individual and the group. This style includes the facets of self-centered, status-conscious, conflict inducer, face saver, and procedural.

6) The autonomous style (2.3-4.7) includes only one facet concerned with autonomy. It is characterized by an independent, individualistic, and self-centric approach to leadership".

One more example of systematic studies on global leadership is the work of Goldsmith, Greenberg, Robertson, and Hu-Chan in 2003. Goldsmith et al. (2003, pp. 314-318) conducted a multiple-method research plan for global leadership consisting of three phases: 1) thought leader panels; 2) focus/dialogue groups; and 3) interviews. Consequently, 14 characteristics of the global leader of the future inventory emerged and were eventually developed by the authors to be a list of 15 characteristics, as follows:

1) Thinking globally
2) Appreciating diversity
3) Developing technological savvy
4) Building partnerships
5) Sharing leadership
6) Creating a shared vision
7) Developing people
8) Empowering people
9) Achieving personal mastery
10) Encouraging constructive dialogue
11) Demonstrate integrity
12) Leading change
13) Anticipating opportunities
14) Ensuring customer satisfaction
15) Maintaining a competitive advantage

As presented above, the global leader of the future inventory appears to focus on global leaders for business organizations and therefore Goldsmith et al. (2003) created survey questionnaires based on their research. This research aimed to study global leadership in business organizations and hence the researcher employed this tool, which is composed of the above items, to explore global leadership competency.

2.3 Trust in Leader

2.3.1 Foundations of Trust Study

2.3.1.1 Evolution of Trust

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) summarized the evolution of trust study as discussed below.

> In the late 1950s and early 1960s, the empirical study of trust and mistrust was spawned, in part, out of the escalating suspicion created by the Cold War and by optimism that science could find a solution to the dangerous and costly arms race that had resulted (Deutsch, 1958 as cited in Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000, p. 549).
>
> Then in the late 1960s, in response to a generation of young people that had become disillusioned and suspicious of contemporary institutions and authorities, the study of trust changed to an individual focus in which trust was conceptualized as a generalized personality trait" (Rotter, 1967 as cited in Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000, p. 549).
>
> By the 1980s, with soaring divorce rates and radical changes in the American family, research on trust had turned to interpersonal relationships" (Johnson-George & Swap, 1982; Larzelere & Huston, 1980; Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985 as cited in Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000, p. 549).
>
> In the 1990s, with shifts in technology and society, trust again emerged as a subject of study in sociology (Coleman, 1990), economics (Fukuyama, 1995), and organizational science (Kramer & Tyler, 1996; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998) as cited in Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000, p. 549). Lafferty and Lafferty (2001, p. 140 in part 6-1) also supported the idea that "It was not until the 1990s that theorists looked at trust specifically in organizational context".

In summary, according to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000), trust studies begain with the individual, economic, and social context before expansion to the organizational context in the 1990s.

2.3.1.2 Theories Underlying Trust Studies

Lewicki and Bunker (1996) reviewed trust theories and summarized that trust emerged from three theoretical foundations: economics, psychology, and social psychology.

1) Economic theory views trust as a calculative exchange based on cost and benefits analysis (Williamson, 1993).

2) Psychological theory's view of trust is that trust is a belief or feeling that develops in childhood and influences the readiness to trust an individual (Worchel, 1979).

3) Social-psychology theory considers trust as an expectation between individuals or groups of people (Deutsch, 1960).

In addition to economical and psychological foundations, as aforementioned, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000, p. 551) pointed out from a philosophical perspective that trust relates to ethically- and morally-justifiable behaviors (Baier, 1986; Hosmer, 1995). On the other hand, organizational perspective views trust as a collective judgment that another party will be honest, not take advantage and behave to comply with commitments (Bradach & Eccles, 1989; Cummings & Bromily, 1996).

Based on the above information, trust appears to be a topic that has received strong attention from theorists of various disciplines. This study aims to continue this exploration in order to gain better comprehension of this subject.

2.3.2 Definitions of Trust

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000, p. 551) pointed out that "trust has been difficult to define because it is a complex concept". Hence there were different definitions of trust in literature because of its complexity and be defined from different perspectives.

Several definitions of trust are presented in this study to reflect the complexity and different points of view of scholars in the field. For instance, "interpersonal trust is an expectancy held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can relied upon" (Rotter, 1967, p. 651); "trust is the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on

the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party" (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p. 721); and Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt and Camerer (1998, p. 395) defined trust as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another".

Interestingly, Weidner (1997) categorized 62 trust definitions into 6 areas: 1) trust as attitude, 2) trust as belief, 3) trust as expectation, 4) trust as behavior, 5) trust as an attribute, and 6) trust as a multidimensional construct. One more study on trust was conducted by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000, p. 556) through the analysis of trust definitions and they proposed a multidimensional definition, indicating that "trust is one party's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is (a) benevolent, (b) reliable, (c) competent, (d) honest, and (e) open". This study will employ the definition of trust by Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) since they covered the main concepts of trust and also because of the accessibility of their instrument.

2.3.3 Construct and Framework of Trust

Levin (1999, p. 27) based on McAllister (1995), summarized two distinctive approaches to trust: a) cognitive-based approach that sees trust based on feelings, emotions, and attitudes, and b) an affect-based approach that sees trust based on expectations, evaluated options, and calculated decisions. Nevertheless, some scholars have argued that trust is based on both the affective and cognitive, for example, Golembewski and McConkie (1975), Luhmann (1979), Barber (1983), and Lewis and Weigert (1985).

Mayer et al. (1995) stated that trust consists of three dimensions, which are ability, benevolence, and integrity, while Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) conducted a factor analysis study and indicated the construct of trust in greater detail as follows:

1) Willingness to risk vulnerability: in all interdependence relationships, the willingness to risk vulnerability is inevitable.

2) Confidence: the decision of the individual to take risks depends on many factors including confidence in another party.

3) Benevolence: this appears to be a common facet of trust as it can lead to the confidence or faith that the individual places in another party.

4) Reliability: consistency of behavior is expected to enhance confidence and the level of trust.

5) Competence: this factor is significant for an individual to fulfill another party's expectations (e.g. to meet deadlines, to achieve goals).

6) Honesty: authenticity and trust in an individual's words that conform to real the situation is required to build and maintain trust.

7) Openness: transparency or openness is significant for gaining confidence and trust.

The researchers also noted that the importance of each facet could be different according to the context.

One of the key findings from a meta-analysis research on trust by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) was three antecedent variables to trust. They are: 1) leader action and practices; 2) follower attributes; and 3) relationship attributes. Nevertheless, Burke, Sims, Lazzara, and Salas, (2007) reviewed studies on trust in leadership and summarized the key antecedents of trust, which emphasized leader attributes and action according to the details below:

1) Ability: a) setting a compelling direction, b) creation of an enabling structure

2) Benevolence: a) create/sustain a supportive context, b) coaching

3) Integrity: a) accountability, b) perception of justice, c) value congruence

2.3.4 Trust and Leadership

Bennis (1997) pointed out that today's leader requires the key ability to build and maintain trust. The GLOBE project also found that "being trustworthy" was one of the universal facilitators of leadership effectiveness (Javidan et al., 2006). Nevertheless, the findings from Watson Wyatt Worldwide (2000) revealed that only half of 7,500 respondents in all main industries felt trust in their senior leaders while trust was one of the key drivers of employee commitment that can lead to organizational performance. Undoubtedly, this is a call for further exploration to gain better insight

into how to create and retain a level of trust in one's leader in order to enhance organizational effectiveness.

Trust is one of the key components in various leadership theories and studies. For instance, building followers' trust is one of the key characteristics of charismatic and transformational leaders (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996), and trust is also a critical factor of leadership effectiveness (Fleishman & Harris, 1962) and also leader-member exchange (LMX) theory (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999). Some studies have emphasized that trust in leadership has an influence on team and organization effectiveness, and also its affects workplace outcomes, e.g. organizational citizenship behavior, goal acceptance, and task performance (Dirks, 2000).

One of key the attempt to explore trust in leadership is the meta-analysis research conducted by Dirks and Ferrin in 2002. The researchers' framework consisted of three components: 1) leader actions and practices (e.g. perceived organizational support, participative decision making); 2) follower attributes (e.g. propensity to trust); and 3) relationship characteristics (e.g. length of relationship between leader and follower). They also categorized the outcomes of trust in the leader into three groups: a) behavior and performance (OCB and job performance in particular); b) job attitude and intention (focus on job satisfaction, organizational and goal commitment, intention to quit, and belief in information); and c) correlates (follower's satisfaction with leader, and LMX).

2.3.5 Importance of Trust

Likert (1958) recognized trust as one of the key factors that drive organizational performance, while Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000, p. 549) described in detail that "trust is fundamental to functioning in our complex and interdependent society… in every facet of our lives, we are dependent on other people to behave in accordance with our expectations…as life has grown more complex, as changing economic realities and changing expectations in society have made life less predictable… we are beginning to notice trust more".

In line with the aforementioned statement, Ovaice (2001, p. 160, part 6-4) emphasized that "in the new global environment, the notion of trust is one issue of interpersonal and inter-group dynamic that critical to the success of multinational

organizations". It should be noted that that MNCs operate in a cross-cultural context, and national cultures that influence an individual's beliefs and behaviors can also impact the trust-building process (Doney, Cannon, & Mullen, 1998), as trust is an organizational phenomenon that is contextually specific (Karmar, 1999).

There have also been many studies on the importance of trust according to different aspects, as seen below:

1) Trust as a contributor to satisfaction and commitment

Researchers have found a linkage between trust and job satisfaction (Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Whitener, 2001). Schurr and Ozanne (1985) pointed out for example that trust is a basis for the commitment to carry out agreements while many studies have indicated that trust is a key contributor to organizational commitment (Gilbert, 1995; Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999).

2) Trust and work behaviors in the organization

According to Baier (1986) and Parsons (1960), trust is critical for the effectiveness of cooperation and communication and is also important for productive relationships in organizations. Trust has also been found to contribute to effectiveness in strategy execution and managerial coordination (McAllister, 1995), cooperative behaviors (Karmar, 1999, Mayer et al., 1995), and citizenship behavior (Mayer & Gavin, 2005).

3) Trust and performance in the organization

Trust has been recognized as a key contributor to greater group performance (Zand, 1972), effective work teams (Lawler, 1992), and task performance (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007). Whitener, Brodt, Korsdaarg, and Werner (1998) indicated that managerial trust appears to be important for interdependence task performance, reengineering, and market positioning. Furthermore, trust helps organizations to reduce the complexities of their transactions and exchanges much more efficiently than others ways (Powell, 1990) and also contributes to transaction cost reduction (Bromiley & Cummings, 1995), better organizational economic performance (Bennis, 1997), and financial performance (Levin, 1999).

In addition to the above aspects, studies have revealed a strong relationship between trust in leader, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, satisfaction with

the leader, and the perception of leadership effectiveness (Dirk & Ferrin, 2002; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Whitener, 2001). Dirk and Ferrin (2002) explained further that trust in leader can increase employees' belief in the leader's information and support the leader's decisions. Fulmer and Gelfard (2012) pointed out that most of the studies on the individual's trust in leader appear to shed light on work attitudes, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and performance as a major contribution to trust.

Trust is not only important for the organization because of its contribution to positive outcomes but also because of the problems that can result from its absence. Limerick and Cunnigton (1993) indicated that a low level of trust leads to higher business operation costs because people are more concerned about and invest more in self-protection actions to prevent opportunistic behavior. Tyler and Kramer (1996, pp. 3-4) also emphasized that without trust "people are increasingly unwilling to take risks, demand greater protections against the possibility of betrayal, and increasingly insist on costly sanctioning mechanism to defend their interests". In the organizational context, distrust can cause people to feel anxious, insecure, uncomfortable, spend time monitoring others' motives and behaviors (Fuller, 1996; Govier, 1992), and to withhold or manipulate information to protect their interests (Bartolme, 1989; Govier, 1992). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000, p. 550) emphasized that "one of the most difficult issues related to distrust, however, is that once it is established, it has a strong tendency to be self-perpetuating… the behavior of the distrusted person is systematically interpreted in such a way that distrust is confirmed". According to the key contributions of trust as mentioned above, it is essential for organizations to be able to generate and sustain trust in order to ensure competitiveness and success in the long term.

2.4 Team Effectiveness

2.4.1 Definitions of Team

A coherent definition of the team remains a challenge in the team literature (Guzzo & Dickson, 1996, Guzzo & Shea, 1992, Klimoski & Mohamed, 1994). There have been attempts to distinguish the definitions of "group" and "team." For instance, Katzenbach and Smith (1993, pp. 91-92) defined the working group as "a group for

which there is no significant incremental performance need or opportunity that would require it to become a team" and a real team as "a small number of people with complementary skills who are equally committed to a common purpose, goals, and working approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable". On the other hand, there are also scholars that use the terms group and team interchangeably (Guzzo & Shea, 1992; Kozlowski & Bell, 2001). The present study employs the terms group and team interchangeably to cover the key relevant literature on team effectiveness.

According to Dyer (1984), a team is a social entity consisting of individuals that value and share common goals and work on highly interdependent tasks. Salas, Dickinson, Converse, and Tannenbaum (1992, p. 4) defined the team as "a distinguishable set of two or more people who interact, dynamically, interdependently, and adaptively toward a common and valued goal/objective/mission, who have been assigned specific roles or functions to perform, and who have a limited life-span of membership". Further, Baker and Salas (1997) described the team as two individuals or more that interdependently interact for achieving a common goal.

More recently, Kozlowski and Bell (2001, p. 6) reviewed numerous definitions and summarized them into the fundamental components of work groups and teams: "1) composed of two or more individuals, 2) that exist to perform organizationally-relevant tasks, 3) share one or more common goals, 4) interact socially, 5) exhibit task interdependencies, 6) maintain and manage boundaries, and 7) that are embedded in an organizational context that sets boundaries, constrains the team, and influences exchanges with other units in the broader entity". This study accepts the definition of the team of Baker and Salas (1997) because of its simplicity and its emphasis on the core of the team definitions.

2.4.2 Team Performance

Team performance and outcomes are fundamental goals of teamwork (LaFasto & Larson, 2001; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001). Team performance has been defined as a general framework that consists of inputs, processes, and outcomes (Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, & Spangler, 2004). The review of team literature by Salas, Stagl, Burke, and Goodwin (2007) also found more than 130 models of team

performance, and one of the fundamental concepts behind those models was the input-process-output (I-P-O) framework.

Kozlowski and Ilgen (2006) elaborated on the I-P-O framework: a) inputs consist of team composition and resources; b) processes mean tasks that use input to deliver results; and c) outputs include team performance, team member satisfaction, and team spirit or sustainability. There has also been further clarification of the input-process-output framework from the researcher's perspective: 1) an example of "input" could be team composition, which Levine and Moreland (1990) defined as the attributes of team members; 2) an example of "process" could be the degrees and quality of collective effort and interpersonal relationships (Klimoski & Mohammed, 1994); and 3) an example of "output" could be the quantity, quality, speed, and customer satisfaction of group-produced outputs (Guzzo & Dickson, 1996).

In addition, Devine and Phillips (2001) defined team performance as the extent to which a team can achieve its common goal. In order to achieve this common goal, team members must be involved in "interdependent acts that convert inputs to outcomes through cognitive, verbal, and behavioral activities directed toward organizing task work to achieve collective goals" (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001, p. 357). Cardy and Dobbins (1994) pointed out further that in order to measure team performance we have to assess both team behaviors and team outcomes.

2.4.3 Team Effectiveness

Team effectiveness was defined by Hackman (1987) as an evaluation of team performance and outcomes according to related criteria. Guzzo and Dickson (1996) described team effectiveness based on the work of Hackman (1987) and Sundstrom, De Meuse, and Futrell (1990, p. 309), which indicated that team effectiveness included the following: "1) group-produced outputs; 2) the consequences a group has for its members; or 3) the enhancement of a team's capability to perform effectively in the future". Campion, Papper, Medsker (1996, p. 431) proposed in more detail that team effectiveness should derive from five characteristics: "1) job design, 2) interdependence, 3) composition, 4) context, 5) process, and three criteria: 1) productivity, 2) satisfaction, 3) manager judgments".

In an attempt to understand team effectiveness, Wageman, Hackman, and Lehman (2005, p. 376) described team effectiveness under three-dimensional concepts as follows:

1) The productive output of the team (that is, its product, service, or decision) meets or exceeds the standard of quantity, quality, and timeliness of the team's clients – the people who receive, review, and/or use the output. It is clients whose views count, not those of team members, except in those relatively rare cases when the team is the client of its own work.

2) The social processes the team uses in carrying out the work enhance members' capability to work together interdependently in the future. We define as effective only teams that are more capable as performing units when a piece of work is finished than they were when it was begun.

3) The group experience contributes positively to the learning and well-being of individual team members rather than frustrating, alienating, or deskilling them.

Wageman et al. (2005, pp. 376-377) worked further on those three dimensional concepts, and they designed the Team Diagnosis Survey (TDS) to measure team effectiveness based on the second and third dimension because a self-report tool cannot provide reliable data about the acceptability of output for its customers. The authors also explained five enabling conditions for team effectiveness: "1) the people responsible for the work are a real team rather than a team in name only, 2) the team has a compelling direction for its work, 3) the team's structure facilitates rather than impedes collective work, 4) the organizational context within which the team operates provides support for task activities, and 5) the team has available to it ample hands-on coaching to help members take the fullest possible advantage of their performance circumstances".

As Wageman et al. (2005) provided broad and complete concepts, and a framework and measurement instrument, on team effectiveness. The present study, therefore, established a research model based partially on their work.

2.4.4 Significance of the Team

As globalization leads to higher speed and complexity in the market, organizations must increase their competitiveness by enhancing the flexibility and

speed of their response, and it appears to be too complicated for individuals to fulfill those requirements (Katzenbach, 1998). Bell (2007, p. 595) explained that "teams allow for the completion of tasks that require more than one individual (e.g., decision making, chain customer service)". Devine, Clayton, Philips, Dunford, and Melner (1999) added that economic and technological changes continue to influence the way in which organizations operate and that the team work approach has become widely utilized as a responsive intervention.

Northhouse (2004) pointed out that during the trend of organizational development (OD) in the 1960s and 1970s, research and intervention on team work and team leadership appeared to be one of the most popular OD interventions. Dess and Miller (1993) indicated further that a team derives from the quality management process and that this notion became popular in the 1980s as it contributed to enhancing morale, productivity, creativity, and innovation.

Team effectiveness can lead to better productivity, adaptability, and creativity (Hackman, 1987), and financial benefits and stability in organizations (Northhouse, 2004). An effective team can also enhance team learning, the leadership capacity of the team, and organizational competitiveness (Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004). Moreover, team work can also solve organizational problems with more innovative and comprehensive solutions (Sundstrom, DeMeuse, & Futrell, as cited in Salas, Sims & Burke, 2005).

2.5 Underlying Theories among Global Leadership Competency, Trust in Leader, and Team Effectiveness

2.5.1 Social Learning Theory as a Theory Underlying Global Leadership Competency Study

According to Caliguri and Tarique (2009), social learning theory (SLT) proposes that individuals can develop by observing and interacting with others. Byrne and Hogben (1998) explained further that SLT is also known as modeling learning, observational learning, or vicarious learning.

Grusec (1992, pp. 776-777) reviewed SLT work and pointed out that "social learning theory began as an attempt by Robert Sears and others to meld psychoanalytic and stimulus-response learning into a comprehensive explanation of human behavior,

… Albert Bandura abandoned the psychoanalytic and drive features of the approach, emphasizing instead cognitive and information processing capacities that mediate social behavior… Nevertheless, Bandura has provided a strong theoretical beginning: The theory appears to be capable of accounting well for existing developmental data as well as guiding new investigation". The author explained further that "in 1986, in fact, Bandura relabeled his approach 'social cognitive theory'… the relabeling was useful because it made the features of his position clearer … there is nothing in the concept of learning that denies the importance of cognitive mechanisms in behavior change".

In line with the above statement, Beechler and Javidan (2007, p. 148) stated that global mindset has also been proposed as a key factor for global leader success as "the cognitive abilities (mindsets) of key decision makers play a key role in the strategic capabilities of global firm". Studies on global leadership competency can be used as strong evidence for the importance of cognitive mechanisms in learning which can lead to the behavioral change of successful global leaders. For example, Brake (1997) included "thinking agility" as a component of a global leader's personal effectiveness, and Goldsmith et al. (2003) pointed out "thinking globally" as one dimension in his global competency model.

Caliguri and Tarique (2009, p. 338) also proposed that social learning theory can provide "the conceptual basis for understanding how the extent of participation in cross-cultural leadership development experiences related to effectiveness in global leadership activities". The authors explained further how the social learning process can influence global leadership competency development as seen below:

1) Attention: When and individual are working in new or cross-cultural contexts, he or she will observe behaviors and consequences of those behaviors (both others and self) and be aware of differences.

2) Retention: "retention is the processes by which the modeled behavior becomes encoded as a memory by the participant and occurs when the individual stores and remembers the behavior that he or she acquires" (Black & Mendenhall, 1990 in Caliguri & Tarique, 2009, p. 338)

3) Reproduction: " reproduction allows the individual to directly experience the consequences of using the new skills and behaviors, and understand

which behaviors and skills to execute or suppress in given situations" (Black & Mendenhall, 1990 as cited in Caliguri & Tarique, 2009, p. 338)

Based on the above rationale, social learning is undoubtedly a critical underlying theory for global leadership competency development because there are different social expectations regarding leadership behaviors and styles across cultures according to the studies mentioned in this chapter, for instance, the findings from the GLOBE project.

2.5.2 Social Exchange Theory as the Theory Underlying Relationship between Global Leadership Competency, Trust in Leader, and Team Effectiveness

Emerson (1976) indicated that social exchange theory (SET) has developed according to four key concepts. Emerson (1976, p. 335) explained that "Homans in 1) "Social behavior as exchange (1958) made a conscious effort to identify and advance this point of view. In 1961, he amplified his argument in 2) Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms…Also in the late 1950s Thibaut & Kelly were constructing their compact conceptual scheme in 3) The Social Psychology of Groups (1959) ... When Blau's 4) Exchange and Power (1964a) appeared, the exchange approach was assured a future in the field". He also concluded that even though different views were put forward, those scholars agreed that "social exchange involves a series of interactions that generate obligations" (Emerson, 1976 as cited in Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 874).

According to Blau "social exchange …refers to voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others" (Blau, 1964, p. 91) and he explained further that social exchange "involves the principle that one person does another favor, and while there is a general expectation of some future return, its exact nature is definitely not stipulated in advance" (Blau, 1986, p. 93). Gefen and Ridings (2002, p. 50) posited out that "SET views interpersonal interactions from a cost-benefit perspective, much akin to an economic exchange – except that a social exchange deals with the exchange of intangible social costs and benefits (such as respect, honor, friendship, and caring) and is not governed by explicit rules or agreements". From Gefen and Ridings' (2002) point

of view, trust in leader is also an exchange of intangible social costs and benefits in organizations and among the social actors as it can lead to numerous positive outcomes.

Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005, p. 874) pointed out that "social exchange theory is among the most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behavior". Further, Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996, p. 219) stated that SET "has long been used by organizational researchers to describe the motivational basis behind employee behaviors and the formation of positive employee attitudes…used to explain why individuals express loyalty to the organization…and engaging in behaviors…in general, research findings suggest that positive, beneficial actions directed at employees by the organization and/or its representatives contribute to the establishment of high-quality exchange relationships".

Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, and Chen (2005) recognized SET as underlying theory for leader-member-exchange theory and transformational leadership because reciprocal social exchange is fundamental in the relationship between leader and follower. From this perspective, global leadership competency is also supported by social exchange theory, as a global leader puts effort into acquiring a new set of competencies/behaviors in order to achieve his or her goals (such as performance and profit).

Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen (2002, p. 268) stated further that "social exchange in an employment relationship may be initiated by an organization's fair treatment of its employees. This favor or spontaneous gesture of goodwill on the part of the organization (or its agents) engenders an obligation on the part of employees to reciprocate the good deeds of the organization". They conducted a research to test a social exchange model and found that trust in the organization has a fully mediated relationship between interactional justice and work attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction), while trust in leader has a fully mediated relationship among interactional justice, work behaviors, and performance.

Based on aforementioned studies, social exchange theory clearly has an influence on global leadership competency development, trust in leader, and team effectiveness.

2.6 Linkages among Global Leadership Competency, Trust in Leader, and Team Effectiveness

2.6.1 Linkage between Global Leadership Competency and Trust in Leader

A great deal of literature has indicated leadership styles as one of the antecedents of trust in the leader, for instance, charismatic leadership (Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000), transformational and transactional leadership (Jung & Avolio, 2000), authentic leadership (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004), and servant leadership (Van, 2011).

Mayer et al. (1995) proposed three leader characteristics as key antecedents of trust in leader: ability, benevolence, and integrity, while Dirks and Ferrin (2002) supported the notion that the perception of team members of these three characteristics of the leader can influence the level of trust in leader.

As an organization requires different sets of leadership competency so that leaders can lead effectively in new contexts (Mendenhall et al., 2008; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2001), global leadership competency is undoubtedly critical. For the reason that “ability” is a part of competency and is also one of the components in creating trust in leader, global leadership competency plays a significant role in the trust in leader.

2.6.2 Linkage between Global Leadership Competency and Team Effectiveness

Numerous studies on teamwork have pointed out that leadership is critical to team performance (Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2006; LaFasto & Larson, 2001; Northhouse, 2004; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001). In fact, it appears to be the most important factor for team effectiveness and achievement (Northhouse, 2004; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001).

Salas, Sims, and Burke (2005) conducted a teamwork studies synthesis and found that leadership was a key factor influencing team development, teamwork, and team effectiveness. Campion et al. (1996) also indicated that increasing team spirit with effective coaching of the leader can lead to team effectiveness, while Day et al. (2004,

p. 864) pointed out that leaders are “extremely influential” on the team, as they can “make or break a team”. Northhouse (2004) also added that ineffective leadership is a key constraint for a team.

In addition, Cannon-Bowers, Tannenbaum, Salas, and Volpe (1995) reviewed the teamwork literature and included the leader as one of the core dimensions of teamwork. They explained that leadership can impact the team via: 1) the capacity to direct, plan, assign, and organize tasks; 2) the ability to coordinate and motivate team members and 3) the ability to assess team performance and create a good work atmosphere within the team.

According to Marquardt and Horvath (2001), leadership is more significant for team effectiveness for global leaders that lead and manage team members across cultures and boundaries, as there are more challenges and complexities in managing different perceptions, expectations, and behaviors. For example, a task-oriented culture tends to have higher trust propensity than a relationship-oriented culture, and a masculine culture appears to value the ability of the leader, while a feminine culture places more value in the benevolence of the leader (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). Therefore, global leadership competency to understand and manage team members from different cultures appropriately in order to enhance team effectiveness is critical for global leaders.

2.6.3 Linkage between Trust in Leader and Team Effectiveness

There have been numerous studies recognizing trust in leader as a critical factor in higher performance at both the team and organizational level (Agyris, 1964; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Likert, 1967; McGregor, 1967; Zand, 1972). According to Waldman and Yammarino (1999), trust in leader increases its importance as the influence on team performance when the team faces high uncertainty tasks or contexts.

Dirks (2000) found a significant relationship between trust in leader and team performance in the past and in the future. The author also elaborated that trust in leader can lead to more willingness to perform and aims to achieve the common goals of the team that the leader assigns. Costa, Roe, and Taillieu (2001) supported the idea that trust in leader can enhance cooperation among team members. In contrast, distrust in

leader can lead to a lower focus on tasks as followers utilize their time in monitoring the leader and self-protection-related activities (Mayer & Gavin, 2005).

2.7 Influence of Key Demographic Variables on the Perception of Leaders' Global Leadership Competency and Trust in Leader

There has been quite a number of previous studies relating certain demographic variables to the perception of leaders' global leadership competency and trust in leader. Despite the fact that this study does not specifically explore the relationships between the demographic variables and the three main variables, the researcher believes that the study of the demographic variables per se will lead to a better understanding of the main variables.

2.7.1 Nationality (as a reflection of national culture)

Liden and Antonakis (2009) pointed out that research on both organizational culture and national culture, including examining the cultural influences on leadership, has been increasing dramatically since about 1995. One of the most influencing researches on national culture and leadership was the GLOBE project, which studied the cultural orientation of 62 countries and identified 9 cultural dimensions and 21 leadership dimensions (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002).

It has been noted by many researchers that the national culture influences organizational culture as organizations' members always bring their cultural background to the workplace (Tinsley, 1998; Adler 1997, and Huczynski & Buchanan, 2007). Cross-national comparisons have postulated that individuals within the same culture should have similar values to one another more than individuals between cultures (Harris, Moran & Moran, 2004; Hofstede, 2001; Schein, 1985)

According to the aforementioned studies, one's national culture can influence both the individual dimension (values, leadership styles) and the organizational dimension (organizational culture), and this has led to inevitable curiosity concerning how national culture can influence the perception of leaders in the organization.

2.7.2 Overseas Work Experience

Overseas work assignments are well recognized as a critical component for developing global leadership competencies (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002; Osland, 2001). Even non-work international experience provides individuals with opportunities to acquire competencies that are significant for working in different cultural contexts (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). This research studied samples in 5 MNCs consisting of both expatriate and local leaders; hence it was fruitful to examine whether there were any different perceptions of the global leadership competencies and trust in leader between the respondents with and without overseas work experience.

2.7.3 Work Period with Superior

Newell and Swan (2000) developed a three-fold typology of trust, which consists of the following: 1) commitment trust, 2) companion trust, and 3) competence trust. The authors stated that commitment trust derives from contractual agreements/mutual benefits; companion trust is based on personal relationships/friendships developed over time; and competence trust is based on the perception of another person's competencies and performance. Undoubtedly, building companion and competence trust, which are based on personal relationships and experience in the organization, requires a certain period of time.

As there was a strong indication that companion trust is more important in social relationships in "flatter" organizational contexts (Ebers, 1997; Lane & Bachmann, 1998), this research also explored whether different work periods with one's superior can influence the perception of global leadership competencies and trust in leader.

2.8 Summary

Based on the above rationale in related literature, the study of the relationships among global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team performance is significant, as Burke et al. (2007) also called for explicit research on leadership, trust in the leader, and team performance. Therefore, the present study aimed to add greater value to the HRD field by exploring the causal relationships of global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

This chapter describes the method that was used to study the relationships among global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness in order to gain a better understanding of the HRD field. The following components are addressed in this chapter: 1) research questions 2) research design; 3) population and sample; 4) instrumentation; 5) data collection, and 6) data analysis.

3.1 Research Questions

The key research questions for this study were:

1) How does global leadership competency impact trust in leader?
2) How does global leadership competency impact team process effectiveness?
3) How does trust in leader impact team process effectiveness?

3.2 Research Design

Social science research (for example, on leadership) has been conducted from diverse perspectives by scholars (Gephart, 1999; Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006; Scandura & Williams, 2000). Allan and Skinner (Allan & Skinner, 1991, p. 177) indicated that both quantitative and qualitative research methods are common practices in social science, with different strengths and limitations. However, quantitative approaches appear to be more straightforward and clear regarding the statistical analysis and interpretation of the results. The researcher has employed this approach because it can minimize subjectivity and was also suitable and more feasible for the present study conducted with a large population in multiple locations.

Survey design is recognized as a common and widely-used method for scholars conducting quantitative research (Creswell, 2009). It is an effective and straightforward way of collecting data from a sample of respondents that may generalize specific characteristics of the population (Ross, Clark, Padgett, & Renckly, 2002).

Based on the research aim of accessing many companies, because of location limitations and time limitations, the research adopted a quantitative research method.

3.3 Population and Sample

3.3.1 Population

The target population for this study consisted of 1,941 employees from 5 multinational companies in Thailand where there were both local and expatriate leaders in the organization. The researcher contacted the head of the HR department to ask for approval verbally first and submitted a management disclosure contract for conducting research in each organization. The researcher prepared individual questionnaires in an envelope to ensure confidentiality as each respondent's response could be sealed and submitted via the HR manager.

Both company A and company B were in the healthcare industry, headquartered in the United Kingdom and operated in around 60 countries and whose products were sold in almost 200 countries. The company employed more than 35,000 people worldwide. This study will focus on employees from 2 companies in Thailand.

Company C had a broad portfolio ranging from chemicals to oil and gas. They were headquartered in Germany and operated in almost every country around the globe and employed more than 100,000 employees.

Company D was also headquartered in Germany and operated in over 200 countries and territories across the globe as a significant player in logistics, with a workforce exceeding 300,000 employees.

Company E was a leading enterprise in the aviation industry worldwide and was headquartered in France and employed more than 100,000 employees around the globe.

3.3.2 Sample

The structural equation modeling (SEM) requires a large sample size and there were factors to be considered, which were: 1) the multivariate normality of the data; 2) the technique of parameter estimation; 3) model complexity, 4) the amount of missing data; and 5) the average error variance of indicators (Hair, William, Barry and Rolph, 2010).

As for the appropriate sample size, Hair et al. (2010) suggested that 10-20 samples per one parameter are appropriate for SEM analysis. This research consisted of 21 parameters: one exogenous variable, two endogenous variables and their errors, and eight observed variables and their errors; therefore, 210-420 samples were required for this study.

In order to handle the possibility of a low response rate and missing data, 1,270 questionnaires were delivered by convenience sampling method and 913 respondents replied. There were some missing data (more than 10% of the questions) and also some responses impacted on the low multivariate normality of the data; the final samples used for this study came to 818.

The details of the demographic information of the population and samples are summarized in Table 3.1

Table 3.1 Population and Sampling

	Company A	**Company B**	**Company C**	**Company D**	**Company E**	**Total**
Total Employees	317	619	525	420	60	1,941
Require Samples	68	134	114	90	14	420
Questionnaires Sent	300	500	250	180	40	1270
Actual Respondents	212	415	157	111	18	913

Table 3.1 (Continued)

	Company A	**Company B**	**Company C**	**Company D**	**Company E**	**Total**
Response Rate (%)	71%	83%	63%	62%	45%	72%
Data Missing	4	9	0	3	0	16
Normality Adjustment	37	29	9	3	1	79
Final Sample	171	377	148	105	17	818

Note: 420 required samples were calculated using 21 parameters multiplied by 20 samples. The required samples of each company were calculated by portion, e.g. company C was 27% of the population hence 114 was required (420 X 27% = 114).

3.3.3 Demographic Data of the Respondents

The respondents' demographic data included gender, age, nationality, education, overseas experience, nationality, overseas education experience, overseas work experiences, tenure in the organization, position, and also English proficiency test experience. The information of current superior of respondents also investigated to identify the nationality of the current superior, the position of the current superior, and work period of respondents with current superior. Table 3.2 reports on the descriptive statistics involving the respondents' demographic data, which were collected to provide an understanding of the samples.

Table 3.2 Demographic Data of Respondents (n = 818)

Demographic	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	334	40.8
Female	484	59.2
Age		
30 years or less	359	43.9
31-40 years	332	40.6
41-50 years	98	12.0
51 or more	27	3.3
Not identified	2	0.2
Education		
Below high school	106	13.0
High school /Vocational	229	28.0
High Vocational	136	16.6
Bachelor’s	269	32.9
Master’s	76	9.3
Higher than master’s	2	0.2
Nationality		
Thai	815	99.6
British	1	0.1
Other	2	0.2
Overseas Education Experience		
None	765	93.5
Less than 1 year	17	2.1
1-2 years	19	2.3
3-4 years	9	1.1
More than 4 years	5	0.6
Not identified	3	0.4

Table 3.2 (Continued)

Demographic	Frequency	Percentage
Overseas Work Experience		
None	734	89.7
Less than 1 year	41	5.0
1-5 year (s)	25	3.1
6-10 years	7	0.9
More than 10 years	8	1.0
Not identified	3	0.4
Tenure in Organization		
Less than 1 year	181	22.1
1-5 years	408	49.9
6-10 years	102	12.5
More than 10 years	123	15.0
Not identified	4	0.4
Current Position		
Higher than senior manager	3	0.4
Senior manager	5	0.6
Manager	51	6.2
Assistant manager	23	2.8
Supervisor	125	15.3
Staff	608	74.3
Not identified	3	0.4
English Proficiency Test Experience (TOEIC, TOEFL, IELT)		
No	682	83.4
Yes	129	15.8
Not identified	7	0.8
Nationality of Current Superior		
Thai	736	90.0
British	26	3.2

Table 3.2 (Continued)

Demographic	Frequency	Percentage
American	7	0.9
Others	22	2.7
Not identified	27	3.3
Position of Current Superior		
Higher than senior manager	36	4.4
Senior manager	47	5.7
Manager	237	29.0
Assistant manager	65	7.9
Supervisor	405	49.5
Staff	28	3.4
Not identified	36	4.4
Work Period with Current Superior		
Less than 1 year	176	21.5
1-2 years	291	35.6
3-4 years	153	18.7
More than 4 years	169	20.7
Not identified	29	3.5

Table 3.2 reflects the frequency and percentage of the respondents for each demographic item. The data revealed that the majority of the respondents were female (59.2%), most were aged 30 years or less (43.9%), and the second range was 31-40 years of age. The respondents with a bachelor's degree were the majority (32.9%), followed closely by high school or vocational school (28%). The majority of respondents were Thai (99.6%) with no overseas education experience (93.5%) and with no overseas work experience (89.7%). The majority of respondents were at the staff level (74.3%), followed by supervisor the level (15.3%), and the largest tenure of respondents was 1-5 years (49.9%), followed by less than 1 year (22.1%).

The data revealed that the majority of the respondents' superior were Thai (90%) and were at the supervisor level (49.5%) and manager level (29.0%). The

majority of respondents had a work period with their current superior in the range of 1-2 years (35.6%) and less than 1 year (21.5%).

3.4 Instrumentation

The survey questionnaire is a tool for measurement with two main advantages: 1) it can be used to collect data that cannot easily be attained through direct observation, and 2) it is a well-recognized method of investigation for most subjects (Bell, 2001).

The researcher must ensure that the instruments accurately measure the concepts according to the research objectives by ensuring the validity and reliability of the tool. Procter (2003, p. 115) stated that "reliability is about whether a measure works in a consistent way; validity is about whether the right concept is measured".

In this research, the questionnaire was developed from 3 standard questionnaires that had been shown in previous research to be valid and reliable.

3.4.1 Instrument Permission

3.4.1.1 Global Leadership Competency Inventory by Goldsmith

This tool has been developed from research involving future leaders from more than 120 leading organizations worldwide with a reliability at 0.7553- 0.9736 (Goldsmith et al., 2003). Permission to use and reproduce this instrument was granted by Dr. Marshall Goldsmith.

3.4.1.2 Trust Inventory by Mayer and Davis (1999)

This tool consisted of three subscales: 1) ability (reliability 0.85-0.88), 2) benevolence (reliability 0.87-0.92), and 3) integrity (reliability 0.82-0.88) (Mayer and Davis, 1999). Permission to use and reproduce this instrument was granted by Dr. Roger Mayer's team.

3.4.1.3 Team Diagnosis Survey by Wageman, Hackman and Lehman (2005). Permission to use and reproduce this instrument was granted by Dr. Ruth Wageman.

Wageman, Hackman, and Lehman (2005) described team effectiveness under three-dimensional concepts: 1) the productive output (that is, its product, service, or decision) meets or exceeds its customers' standards or expectations; 2) the social

processes that the team uses in carrying out the work enhance the members' capability to work together; and 3) the group experience contributes positively to the learning and well-being of individual team members.

The Team Diagnosis Survey (TDS) was designed by Wageman et al. (2005) and is organized into 10 sections, while this research used only the section related to team effectiveness, which consisted of the process criteria and the group experience criteria (as the productive output cannot be well measured by a self-report tool). Since this study was interested in the key aspect of team effectiveness, which is team performance, the researcher employed only the process criteria for this research. The process criteria consisted of three subscales: 1) effort (reliability 0.92), 2) performance strategy (reliability 0.90), and 3) knowledge and skills (reliability 0.89).

3.4.2 Procedure of Instruments Development

The language and length of questionnaires are also important elements for questionnaire design (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005), and therefore, the questionnaire was designed as follows:

Step 1: Related literature was reviewed to select reliable, valid, and accessible instruments.

Step 2: Questionnaire items were adapted to ensure a reasonable length of the questionnaire and to retain key content to meet the research objectives.

Step 3: A draft of the questionnaire was developed and refined with feedback from HRD experts to ensure content validity.

Step 4: The English survey items were translated into a Thai version and back-translated from the Thai version into English; modifications were made until both English versions agreed in meaning.

Step 5: A pilot test was conducted at an MNC organization in Thailand not included in the target population and internal consistency was analyzed using a coefficient alpha exceeding .70 (Nunnally, 1978).

Step 6: The questionnaire was refined and finalized.

3.4.3 Translation and Back-Translation Process

The original versions of the instruments on global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness were in English. Therefore, the Thai translation and back-translation process were required to ensure equivalency. The rationale and process of the translation and back-translation for this study are discussed below.

One of the most important factors in conducting research in a cross-cultural context is the translation and validation of the measurement tools (Chapman & Carter, 1979). In the translation process, the instruments are translated into the second language by a translator, and the results are then translated back into the original language by another bilingual translator (Brislin 1986; Chapman & Carter, 1979; Harkness & Schoua-Glusberg, 1998). After the translation has been produced, committee assessment is recommended for refinement (McKay, Breslow, Sangster, Gabbard, Reynolds, Nakamoto, & Tarnai, 1996).

For this study, two translators were hired for the translation process. One translator was British and the other translator was Thai with advanced-level English proficiency.

3.4.4 Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

In order to ensure that the instruments can be trusted for data collection, testing for validity and reliability is required. The following section explains the validity and reliability of the instruments.

3.4.4.1 Content Validity

Content validity has been defined as "the degree to which elements of an assessment instrument are relevant to and representative of the targeted construct for particular assessment purpose" by Haynes, Richard, and Kubany (1995, p. 238). It can be determined by subject matter experts' careful examination of an instrument (Best & Kahn, 1986).

In this research, assessment by HRD experts (Professor Dr. Gary N. McLean, Assistant Professor Dr. Oranuch Pruetibultham, and 5 Ph.D. students in the HROD field at National Institute of Development Administration) was conducted before and after the translation in order to ensure content validity, and the questionnaire

was refined and finalized before utilization for the pilot test. Full details of the content validity are included in Appendix A.

3.4.4.2 Pilot Study

The pilot test is a tool utilized to identify potential problems before the actual study in order to refine and ensure the quality of the research instruments (Baker, 1994). In this research, the pilot test was conducted through the distribution of a pilot questionnaire to a pilot group of 50 employees at an MNC organization. Full details of the reliability from the pilot group test are included in Appendix B

3.4.4.3 Construct Validity by Factor Analysis

Yang (2005, p. 182) indicated that "factor analysis is particularly useful research tool in developing and/or validating measurement instruments and in assessing theories on which instruments are established". The author explained further two types of factor analysis, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), where "EFA is the statistic used in discovering a set of small number of latent constructs (i.e., factors) for a given number of observed variables, whereas CFA is more appropriate for confirming a predetermined factor structure based on theory or prior research" (Yang, 2005, p. 182).

The global leadership competency inventory (Goldsmith et al., 2003), trust inventory (Mayer & Davis, 1999), and team diagnosis survey (Wageman, Hackman, & Lehman, 2005) used in this study were developed in another context and had never been tested in Thailand. Moreover, in this research, some modifications were made by revising or excluding some of the questions in order to ensure appropriate questionnaire length and that the questionnaire fit the context.

Before conducting the factor analysis process, Kaiser- Meyer- Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity was applied. KMO is a measure that examines sample sufficiency and its interpretive meanings are the following: $\geq$ 0.90's is excellent, $\geq$ 0.80's is very good, $\geq$ 0.70's is good, $\geq$ 0.60's is ordinary, $\geq$ 0.50's is poor, and below 0.50 is unacceptable (Hair et al., 2010). Bartlett's test of sphericity was used to test the correlation matrix in order to ensure nonidentity matrix (some variables were correlated) in order to be able to conduct the factor analysis.

1) EFA for the Global Leadership Competency Inventory

At this stage, EFA was applied with 376 respondents to determine the independent variables that had common dimensions, called "factors."

The correlation coefficient analysis revealed that the global leadership competencies inventory was the following: KMO = .959, Bartlett's test of sphericity chi-square = 6741.119, df = 435, p = .00. The results showed the nonidentity matrix; hence the factor analysis could be conducted by applying principle axis factoring (PAF) as factor extraction method. The results of the mean, standard deviation, and factor loading are indicated in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 EFA of Global Leadership Competency Inventory

Factor	Indicator	M	SD	Factor Loading	Communality
1	1	3.838	.714	.542	.381
	2	4.013	.706	.645	.486
	3	3.878	.674	.574	.443
	4	3.996	.775	.670	.571
	5	3.856	.756	.414	.303
	6	4.057	.729	.686	.572
	7	4.003	.717	.464	.344
	8	4.105	.727	.645	.541
	9	3.971	.757	.515	.415
	10	3.899	.794	.619	.560
	11	3.845	.736	.608	.597
	12	3.955	.807	.553	.488
2	13	3.805	.760	.554	.459
	14	3.864	.766	.487	.414
	15	3.851	.707	.577	.454
	16	3.835	.816	.575	.437
	17	3.971	.728	.600	.452
	18	3.963	.747	.640	.519

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Factor	Indicator	M	SD	Factor Loading	Communality
	19	3.947	.691	.662	.484
	20	3.915	.762	.546	.444
	21	4.067	.688	.525	.425
	22	4.077	.706	.552	.466
	23	3.939	.684	.591	.463
	24	4.013	.732	.598	.530
	25	3.963	.676	.577	.472
	26	3.907	.689	.561	.503
	27	3.968	.652	.534	.415
2	28	3.989	.689	.551	.389
	29	3.806	.710	.562	.422
	30	3.827	.723	.487	.370

Note: Eigen value = 1.332, Percent of variance = 49.25

2) CFA for Global Leadership Competency Inventory

Before proceeding CFA, the correlation matrix was analyzed and statistically-significant correlations of 45 pairs of observed variables were found at the .01 level, as shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Correlation Matrix of Global Leadership Competency Inventory

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Thinking Globally	1.00									
Building Partnerships	.699	1.00								
Sharing Leadership	.648	.724	1.00							
Creating a Shared Vision	.628	.685	.673	1.00						
Developing People	.593	.635	.591	.647	1.00					
Empowering People	.548	.606	.589	.616	.608	1.00				
Achieving Personal Mastery	.575	.614	.631	.641	.701	.678	1.00			
Encouraging Constructive Dialogue	.621	.671	.658	.657	.691	.734	.731	1.00		
Leading Change	.617	.663	.656	.625	.704	.657	.720	.744	1.00	
Maintaining a Competitive Advantage	.537	.574	.589	.648	.653	.655	.659	.703	.706	1.00
M	3.91	3.97	4.04	3.94	3.72	3.95	3.95	3.96	3.92	3.92
SD	1.78	1.95	1.89	1.93	1.83	1.84	1.80	1.89	1.76	1.82

Note: Bartlett's test of sphericity chi-square = 2966.624, df = 45, p =.00.
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) = .958

Bartlett's test of sphericity chi-square 2966.624, df = 45, p =.00, and KMO index = .958, meaning that the correlation matrix was a nonidentity matrix; hence the CFA could be performed.

Table 3.5 CFA of Global Leadership Competency Inventory

Main Factor	**Sub-Factor**	**Factor Loading (b)**	**Standard Error (SE_b)**	**T**	**Reliability (R^2)**
1 b = .99 (t = 19.06, SE = .08, R^2 = .99)	Thinking Globally	.84	<-->	<-->	.68
	Building Partnerships	.90	.04	26.57***	.80
	Sharing Leadership	.84	.05	23.53***	.71
	Creating a Shared Vision	.88	.05	22.89***	.77
2 b = .93 (t = 20.39, SE = .07, R^2 = .87)	Developing People	.84	<-->	<-->	.70
	Empowering People	.80	.04	23.79***	.65
	Achieving Personal Mastery	.87	.04	25.65***	.76
	Encouraging Constructive Dialogue	.90	.04	29.33***	.81
	Leading Change	.89	.04	26.49***	.79
	Maintaining a Competitive Advantage	.85	.04	25.13***	.72

Note: Chi-square = 29.64, df = 28, p = .38, RMR = .057, GFI = .981, AGFI = .963
***p<.001, <--> SE and t were not included due to constrained parameters.

The CFA results in table 3.5 indicated that the measurement model of the global leadership competencies inventory well fit the empirical data (chi-

square = 29.64, df = 28, p = .38), goodness of fit index (GFI) = .981, adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) = .963, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .012.

The factor loading analysis indicated 2 main factors and 10 sub-factors. Factor 1 had a factor loading = .99 consisting of 4 sub-factors with factor loading from .84 to .90, which was statistically significant at the .001 level. Factor 2 had a factor loading = .93 consisting of 6 sub-factors with a factor loading between .80 and .90, which was statistically significant at the .001 level. The details are included in Figure 3.1.

Chi-square = 29.64, df = 27, p = .38, RMR = .057, GFI = .981, AGFI = .963, RMSEA = .012 ***p<.001

Figure 3.1 Measurement Model of Global Leadership Competency Inventory

3) EFA for Trust in Leader Inventory

EFA was applied to determine the independent variables that had common dimensions called "factors." The correlation coefficient analysis revealed that trust in leader inventory had a KMO = .909, Bartlett's test of sphericity chi-square = 2202.260, df = 36, p = .00. The results showed a nonidentity matrix; hence the factor analysis could be conducted by applying the principle axis factoring (PAF) factor extraction method. The results for the mean, standard deviation, and factor loading are indicated in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6 EFA of Trust in Leader Inventory

Factor	**Indicator**	**M**	**SD**	**Factor Loading**	**Communality**
Ability	1	3.949	.708	.574	.593
	2	4.011	.752	.688	.607
	3	3.918	.763	.502	.485
Benevolence	4	3.921	.824	.530	.596
	5	3.835	.783	.575	.630
	6	3.971	.821	.385	.673
Integrity	7	3.769	.824	.627	.569
	8	3.947	.795	.674	.672
	9	3.870	.817	.630	.661

Note: Eigen value = 1.413, percent of variance = 74.06

4) CFA for Trust in Leader Inventory

Before proceeding CFA, the correlation matrix was analyzed and statistically-significant correlations for 36 pairs of the observed variables were found at the .01 level as shown in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7 Correlation Matrix of Trust in Leader Inventory

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	1.00								
2	.692	1.00							
3	.540	.596	1.00						
4	.514	.569	.532	1.00					
5	.596	.520	.495	.695	1.00				
6	.585	.640	.562	.623	.648	1.00			
7	.492	.490	.533	.492	.561	.636	1.00		
8	.592	.559	.476	.621	.586	.696	.644	1.00	
9	.597	.562	.534	.583	.646	.618	.608	.724	1.00
M	4.009	4.097	3.995	3.991	3.906	4.039	3.810	3.986	3.932
SD	.722	.751	.759	.844	.785	.850	.862	.852	.865

Note: Bartlett's test of sphericity chi-square = 2202.26, df = 36, p =.00.
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) = .909

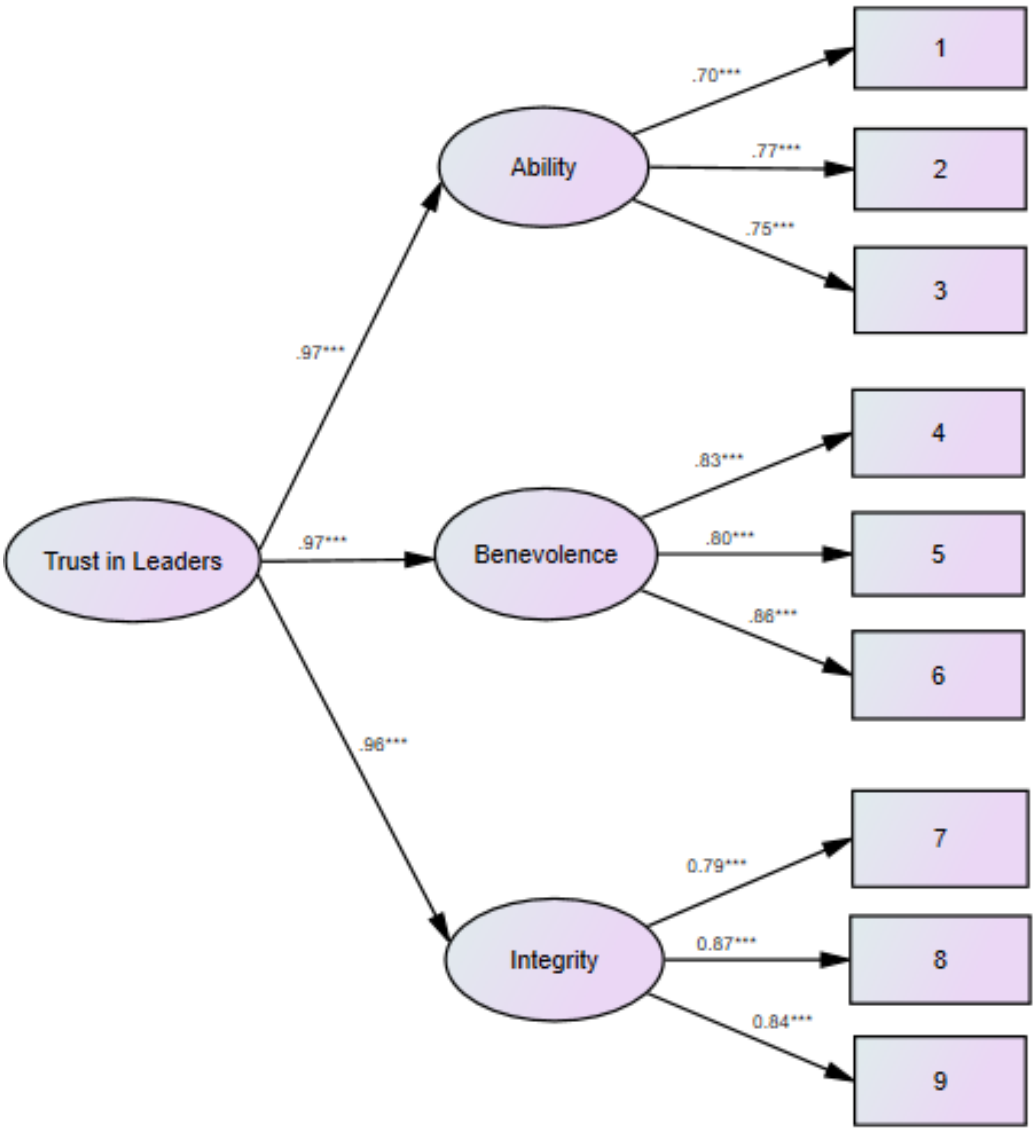
Bartlett's test of sphericity chi-square = 2202.260, df = 36, p = .00, and KMO index = .909, meaning that the correlation matrix was a nonidentity matrix hence the CFA could be performed.

Table 3.8 CFA of Trust in Leader Inventory

Factor	Item	Factor Loading (b)	Standard Error (SE_b)	t	Reliability (R^2)
Ability	1	.70	<-->	<-->	.49
b = .97 (t = 13.44, SE =	2	.77	.06	18.55***	.59
.04, R^2 = .93)	3	.75	.08	14.47***	.56
Benevolence	4	.83	<-->	<-->	.69
b = .97 (t = 18.63, SE =	5	.80	.05	19.55***	.64
.04, R^2 = .95)	6	.86	.05	21.80***	.74
Integrity	7	.79	<-->	<-->	.63
b = .96 (t = 18.07, SE =	8	.87	.05	23.32***	.76
.04, R^2 = .93)	9	.84	.04	23.71***	.70

Note: Chi-square = 22.25, df = 21, p = .39, RMR = .012, GFI = .984, AGFI = .966
***p<.001, <--> SE and t were not included due to constrained parameters.

The CFA results in table 3.8 indicated that measurement model for the trust in leader inventory well fit with the empirical data (Chi-square = 22.25, df = 21, p = .39), the goodness of fit index (GFI) = .984, the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) = .966, and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .012.



Chi-square = 22.25, df = 21, p = .39, RMR = .012, GFI = .984, AGFI = .966, RMSEA = .012 ***p<.001

Figure 3.2 Measurement Model for Trust in Leader Inventory

Figure 3.2 shows the factor loading analysis, which indicated 3 main factors and 9 sub-factors. Factor 1, "Ability," had a factor loading = .93 consisting of 3 sub-factors with factor loading between .70 and .77 that was statistically-significant at the .001 level. Factor 2, "Benevolence," had a factor loading = .95 consisting of 3 sub-factors with factor loadings between .80 and .86 that were statistically-significant

at the .001 level. The factor 3 “Integrity” had a factor loading = .93 consisting of 3 sub-factors with factor loading between .79 and .87 that was statistically-significant at the .001 level.

5) EFA for Team Process Effectiveness Inventory

EFA was applied to determine the independent variables that have common dimensions called “factors.” The correlation coefficient analysis revealed that the global team effectiveness inventory had a KMO = .908, Bartlett’s test of sphericity chi-square = 1436.098, df = 36, p = .000. The results showed a nonidentity matrix; hence the factor analysis could be conducted by applying the principle axis factoring (PAF) factor extraction method. The results for the mean, standard deviation, and factor loading are indicated in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9 EFA of Team Process Effectiveness Inventory

Factor	**Indicator**	**M**	**SD**	**Factor Loading**	**Communality**
Effort	1	3.896	.639	.736	.611
	2	4.005	.708	.575	.536
	3	3.761	.770	.479	.451
Performance Strategy	4	3.867	.775	.458	.532
	5	3.875	.699	.427	.534
	6	3.782	.820	.408	.461
Knowledge and Skill	7	3.787	.714	.463	.657
	8	3.944	.776	.487	.523
	9	3.934	.688	.569	.498

Note: Eigen value = 1.063, Percent of variance = 71.29

6) CFA for Team Process Effectiveness Inventory

Before proceeding CFA, the correlation matrix was analyzed and statistically significant correlations for 36 pairs of observed variables were found at the .01 level as shown in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10 Correlation Matrix for Team Process Effectiveness Inventory

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	1.00								
2	.561	1.00							
3	.459	.477	1.00						
4	.387	.516	.541	1.00					
5	.497	.481	.489	.585	1.00				
6	.395	.530	.398	.512	.460	1.00			
7	.355	.366	.353	.354	.476	.476	1.00		
8	.467	.544	.459	.590	.494	.500	.388	1.00	
9	.519	.461	.504	.429	.538	.409	.417	.498	1.00
M	3.907	4.027	3.819	3.896	3.871	3.853	3.776	3.991	3.966
SD	.672	.764	.779	.781	.725	.895	.781	.800	.704

Note: Bartlett's test of sphericity chi-square = 1436.098, df = 36, p =.00.
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) = .908

Bartlett's test of sphericity chi-square = 1436.098, df = 36, p = .00, and KMO index = .908, meaning that the correlation matrix was a nonidentity matrix; hence, the CFA could be performed.

Table 3.11 CFA of Team Process Effectiveness Inventory

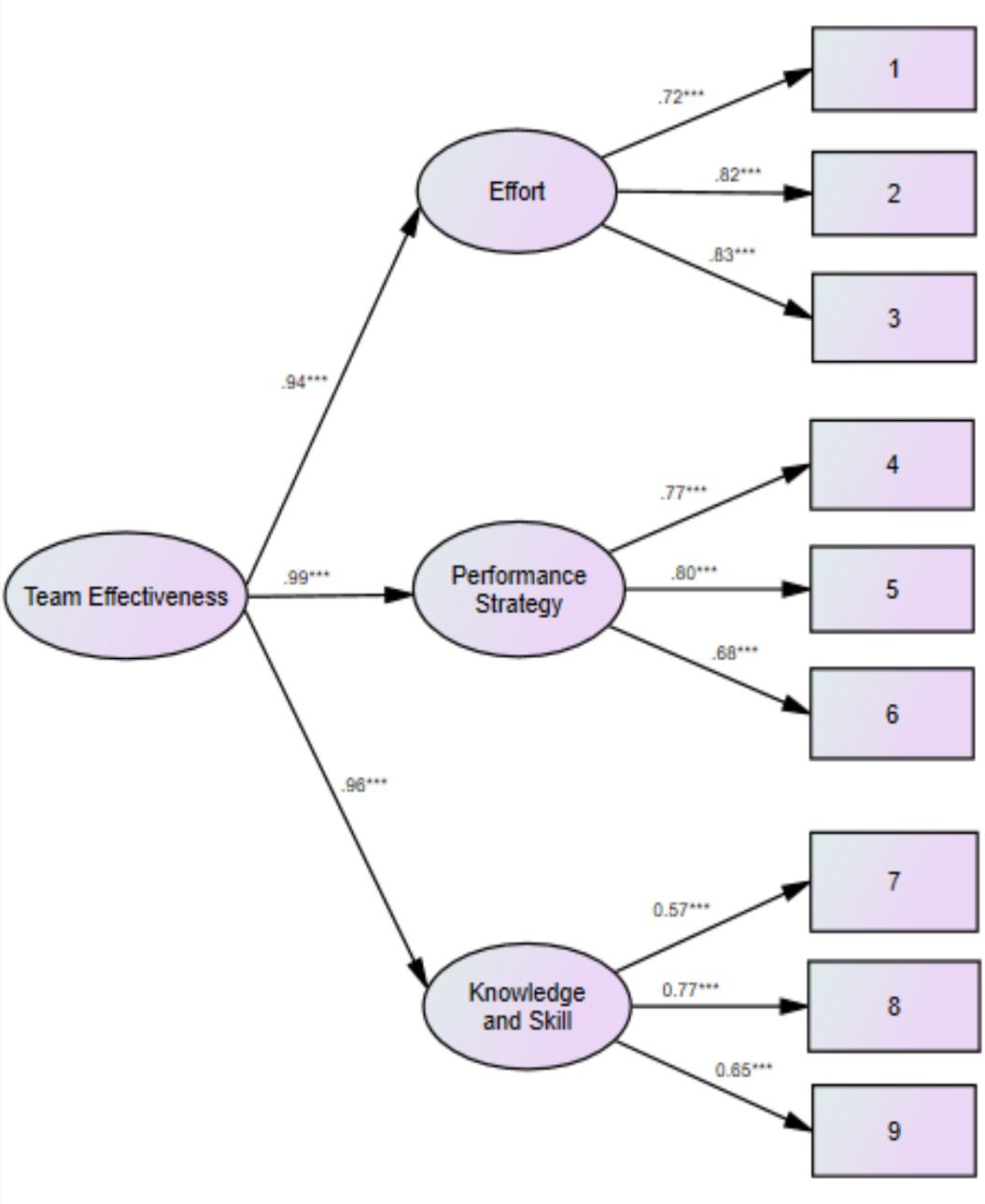
Factor	Item	Factor Loading (b)	Standard error (SE_b)	t	Reliability (R^2)
Effort	1	.72	<-->	<-->	.52
b = .94 (t = 17.15, SE =	2	.82	.07	16.97***	.68
.03, R^2 = .88)	3	.73	.07	17.50***	.54
Performance Strategy	4	.77	<-->	<-->	.59
b = .99 (t = 18.27, SE =	5	.80	.06	15.94***	.64
.03, R^2 = .97)	6	.68	.07	14.58***	.46
Knowledge and Skill	7	.57	<-->	<-->	.32
b = .96 (t = 11.18, SE =	8	.77	.13	10.66***	.59
.04, R^2 = .93)	9	.65	.10	11.24***	.42

Note: Chi square = 31.457, df = 19, p = .05, RMR = .021, GFI = .981, AGFI = .955
***p<.001, <--> SE and t were not included due to constrained parameters.

The CFA results in table 3.11 indicated that measurement model for the team process effectiveness inventory well fit the empirical data (Chi-square = 31.457, df = 19, p = .05), the goodness of fit index (GFI) = .981, the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) = .955, and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .039.

The factor loading analysis indicated 3 main factors and 9 sub-factors. Factor 1, "Effort," had a factor loading = .94 consisting of 3 sub-factors with factor loadings between .72 and .82 that were statistically significant at the .001 level. Factor 2, "Performance strategy," had a factor loading = .99 consisting of 3 sub-factors with factor loadings between .68 and .80 that were statistically significant at the .001 level. Factor 3, "Knowledge and skill," had a factor loading = .96 consisting of 3 sub-

factors with factor loading between .57 and .77 that was statistically significant at the .001 level. The details are included in Figure 3.3.



Chi-square = 31.457, df = 19, p = .05, RMR = .021, GFI = .981, AGFI = .955, RMSEA = .039 ***p<.001

Figure 3.3 Measurement Model for Team Process Effectiveness Inventory

3.4.5 The Research Questionnaire

The final questionnaires consisted of four main parts as follows.

3.4.5.1 Demographic Information about the Respondents

The demographic section included gender, age, nationality, education background, overseas experience, English proficiency, tenure in organization, and work period with current superior, which were collected in order to provide a more extensive understanding of the respondents. The demographic section was placed at the end of the questionnaire in order to avoid intimidating the respondents as they began to respond to the survey, thus potentially causing them to abandon responding to the questionnaire.

3.4.5.2 Global Leadership Competency

This tool was adapted from the "Global Leader of the Future Inventory" of Goldsmith et al., 2003. The original tool consisted of 15 dimensions with 72 questions, while the adapted tool consisted of 10 dimensions with 30 items to fit with the rationale and context of the research and to ensure a reasonable length for the questionnaire. For example, the "demonstrates integrity dimension" was excluded as similar content was covered in the trust in leader instrument. Full details of the dimensions and item selection are included in Appendix A.

The adapted tool was tested with a pilot group of 50 employees at an MNC; the details on the reliability for each dimension are as follows:

Dimension 1 Thinking Globally (alpha 0.90)
Dimension 2 Building Partnerships (alpha 0.88)
Dimension 3 Sharing Leadership (alpha 0.85)
Dimension 4 Creating a Shared Vision (alpha 0.95)
Dimension 5 Developing People (alpha 0.93)
Dimension 6 Empowering People (alpha 0.93)
Dimension 7 Achieving Personal Mastery (alpha 0.84)
Dimension 8 Encouraging Constructive Dialogue (alpha 0.93)
Dimension 9 Leading Change (alpha 0.93)
Dimension 10 Maintaining a Competitive Advantage (alpha 0.83)

3.4.5.3 Trust in Leader

This tool was adapted from the "Trust Inventory" of Mayer and David, 1999. The original tool consisted of 3 subscales with 17 items, while the adapted tool consisted of 3 subscales with 9 items to fit with the rationale and context of the research and to ensure a reasonable length for the questionnaire. Full details of the dimensions and item selection are included in Appendix A.

The adapted tool was tested with a pilot group of 50 employees at an MNC; the details on the reliability for each dimension are as follow:

Dimension 1 Ability (alpha 0.95)

Dimension 2 Benevolence (alpha 0.95)

Dimension 3 Integrity (alpha 0.95)

3.4.5.4 Team Process Effectiveness

This tool was adapted from the "Team Diagnosis Survey" of Wageman et al., 2005. Full details of the dimensions and item selection are included in the Appendix A

The adapted tool was tested with a pilot group of 50 employees at MNC; details of reliability for each dimension are as follow:

Dimension 1 Effort (alpha 0.82)

Dimension 2 Performance Strategy (alpha 0.93)

Dimension 3 Knowledge and Skill (alpha 0.91)

Full details on the final questionnaire are included in Appendix E.

3.5 Data Collection

After receiving approval from the head of the HR at each company, an email and cover letter were sent to the HR managers of each subsidiary to explain the purpose of the study and the benefits for the individuals and the organization before sending out the questionnaires and consent letters.

After completion of the content validity checked by the HRD experts, the pilot survey, and refinement of the questionnaire, the instruments were sent to the HR managers to be distributed to all employees. The paper-based questionnaire was used

for all employees. In order to ensure anonymity, each questionnaire was kept in an envelope that could be sealed by the respondent before returning it to the HR managers.

3.6 Data Analysis

The main objective of this study was to contribute to HRD interventions in order to enhance organizational leadership and performance. The ultimate goal of the data analysis was to identify the impact of global leadership competencies and trust in leader on team effectiveness.

This study used descriptive statistics to provide a summary of the research data on the variables. The descriptive statistical techniques included frequency, percentage, means, and standard deviation.

For the inferential statistical analysis, this research employed one-way ANOVA, correlation, and structural equation modeling (SEM) to empirically test the proposed conceptual model and to test the research questions. SEM is a statistical procedure for testing the validity of a theory of the causal links among variables and is widely used in the behavioral sciences (Anderson & Gerbing, 1998; Burnette & Williams, 2005). It is an approach for assessing and modifying theoretical models in order to provide a comprehensive explanation of research questions (Anderson & Gerbing, 1998).

SEM can be conceptualized as two hypothetically-distinct models: the measurement model and the structural model (Burnette & Williams, 2005). The measurement model applied the same concept as CFA and it is utilized to indicate the relation of the variables in research model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The structural model is utilized to identify the causal relations of the constructs based on related theories that are focused on in a study (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

There were three conceptual models in this study: global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness, all of which were examined for construct validity. SEM was employed to analyze the causal relationships among these three latent variables. Model modification was then utilized to acquire better goodness-of-fit between the initial model and the empirical data. The adjusted model was presented with various indices.

Statistical indices for the goodness-of-fit, chi-square, degree of freedom, p-value, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the non-normed fit index (NFI), the goodness of fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), tucker-lewis (TL), and the increment fit index (IFI) were employed for analysis of the goodness-of-fit between the research data and the empirical data (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008).

3.7 Summary

In this chapter the research design, population and sample characteristics, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis were described. The targeted participants were employees of 5 multinational companies in Thailand. Using a paper-based survey questionnaire was appropriate for this study because of accessibility and confidentiality concerns. T-test, ANOVA, and structural equation modeling (SEM) were used to test empirically the proposed conceptual model and to test the research questions. The results of the data analysis are presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This chapter discusses the findings from the data collection described in the previous chapter to answer the research questions of this study as follows:

1) How does global leadership competency impact trust in leader?

2) How does global leadership competency impact team process effectiveness?

3) How does trust in leader impact team process effectiveness?

The first section reports the inferential statistics in order to provide a more extensive understanding of the demographic data. The second section reports the findings in order to answer the research questions on the impact and causal relationships among the three measurements: global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness. A structural equation model (SEM) analysis was employed for the analysis of the causal relationship among the variables. The validity of the three measurements was analyzed by exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and then the SEM path analysis was utilized for testing the causal relationships. The final section describes the findings related to the research questions and also points out some interesting results.

4.1 Findings and Analysis Concerning the Demographic Data

The first aspect of the data analysis presentation provided an extensive understanding of the demographic data and the three variables. Table 4.1 reveals the mean scores and standard deviation of each variable and table 4.2 – 4.21 below reports the relevant findings from this investigation.

Table 4.1 Mean and SD of Variables and Dimensions

No.	Variables/Dimensions	Mean	SD
Global Leadership Competency (GL)		**4.335**	**0.560**
1	Thinking Globally	3.910	0.580
2	Building Partnerships	3.972	0.629
3	Sharing Leadership	4.035	0.609
4	Creating a Shared Vision	3.923	0.654
5	Developing People	3.857	0.609
6	Empowering People	3.939	0.624
7	Achieving Personal Mastery	3.962	0.582
8	Encouraging Constructive Dialogue	3.897	0.581
9	Leading Change	3.945	0.643
10	Maintaining a Competitive Advantage	4.000	0.635
Trust in Leader (TL)		**3.947**	**0.724**
1	Ability	3.888	0.742
2	Benevolence	3.888	0.552
3	Integrity	3.904	0.601
Team Process Effectiveness (TE)		**3.859**	**0.653**
1	Effort	3.901	0.586
2	Performance strategy	3.897	0.581
3	Knowledge and skill	3.945	0.643

Table 4.2 Gender

Variables	Male		Female		T	P
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
GL	4.366	0.612	4.313	0.520	1.333	.002*
TL	4.008	0.664	3.901	0.625	2.361	.233
TE	3.948	0.557	3.846	0.544	2.613	.156

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.2 shows that the mean scores for the male respondents were higher than for the females for all variables. Nevertheless, only with GL was the different scores between the male and female respondents significant statistically.

Table 4.3 Age

Variance	DF	SS	MS	F	P
GL					
Between group	4	5.354	1.339	4.340	.002*
Within group	813	250.745	.308		
Total	817	256.099			
TL					
Between groups	4	3.568	.892	2.169	.071
Within group	813	334.315	.411		
Total	817	337.883			
TE					
Between groups	4	2.323	.581	1.918	.106
Within group	813	246.182	.303		
Total	817	248.505			

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4. 3 reveals that the different mean scores for the perception of the respondents regarding the GL of their current superior among the different ages of the respondents were significant statistically; hence further analysis was required.

Table 4.4 Age (Scheffe Analysis)

GL	Mean	Age			
		30 or less	31-40	41-50	51 or more
30 or less	4.343	-	-	-	-
31-40	4.264	.0786	-	-	-
41-50	4.492	-.1488	-.0786	-	-
51 or more	4.483	-.1397	-.2274*	.0091	-

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.4 reflects that the respondents whose age was 51 years or more reported higher perception of respondents regarding the GL of their current superior (Mean 4. 483) than the respondents whose age was between 31- 40 years (Mean 4. 264) was significant statistically.

Table 4.5 Education

Variance	DF	SS	MS	F	P
GL					
Between groups	5	4.669	.934	3.016	.01*
Within group	812	251.430	.310		
Total	817	256.099			
TL					
Between group	5	9.747	1.949	4.824	.00*
Within group	812	328.135	.404		
Total	817	337.883			

Table 4.5 (Continued)

Variance	DF	SS	MS	F	P
TE					
Between group	5	2.677	.535	1.769	.117
Within group	812	245.828	.303		
Total	817	248.505			

Note: * Significant at the .05 level.

Table 4. 5 revealsd the statistics concerning the education level of the respondents and the mean score for GL, TL, and TE. The data show that the different mean scores for GL and TL among the different education levels were significant statistically and hence further analysis was required.

Table 4.6 Education (LSD Analysis of GL)

GL	Mean	Education					
		Below High School	High School/ Vocational	High Vocational	Bachelor	Master	Higher than Master
Below High school	4.243	-	-	-	-	-	-
High school/ Vocational	4.387	-.1442*	-	-	-	-	-
High Vocational	4.206	.0367	.1809*	-	-	-	-
Bachelor	4.392	-.1496*	-.0054	-.1864*	-		
Master	4.336	-.0931	.0511	-.1299	.0565	-	-
Higher than Master	4.333	-.0907	.0535	-.1275	.0589	.0024	-

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.6 reveals that the respondents with an education below the high school level reported a lower perception of respondents regarding the GL of their current superior (Mean 4.243) than the respondents at a high school/vocational (Mean 4.387) and bachelor degree level (Mean 4.392) was significant statistically. The respondents with a high school/ vocational (Mean 4.387) education and the respondents with a bachelor degree (Mean 4.392) reported higher perception egarding the GL of their current superior than the respondents with high vocational (Mean 4.206) was significant statistically.

Table 4.7 Education (LSD Analysis of TL)

		Education					
TL	**Mean**	**Below High School**	**High school/ Vocational**	**High Vocational**	**Bachelor**	**Master**	**Higher than Master**
Below High school	3.788	-	-	-	-	-	-
High school/ Vocational	3.885	-.0967	-	-	-	-	-
High Vocational	3.862	-.0737	.0231	-	-	-	-
Bachelor	4.073	-.2849*	-.1881*	-.2112*	-	-	-
Master	4.044	-.2556*	-.1589	-.1819*	.0293	-	-
Higher than Master	3.611	.1771	.2739	.2508	.4620	.4327	-

Note: * Significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.7 reveals that the respondents below a high school education level reported lower TL scores (Mean 3.788) than the respondents with a bachelor (Mean 4.073) and master (Mean 4.044) degree was significant statistically. The respondents with a high school/vocational degree reported lower TL scores (Mean 3.885) than the

respondents with a bachelor degree (Mean 4.073) was significant statistically. The respondents at the high vocational level reported lower TL scores (Mean 3.862) than the respondents with a bachelor (Mean 4.073) or master degree (Mean 4.044) was significant statistically.

Table 4.8 Nationality

Variance	**DF**	**SS**	**MS**	**F**	**P**
GL					
Between groups	2	.098	.049	.157	.855
Within group	815	256.001	.314		
Total	817	256.099			
TL					
Between groups	2	.052	.026	.063	.939
Within group	815	337.830	.415		
Total	817	337.883			
TE					
Between groups	2	.511	.256	.840	.432
Within group	815	247.994	.304		
Total	817	248.505			

Note: * Significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.8 reveals that different scores for GL, TL, and TE of the different nationalities of the respondents were not significant statistically.

Table 4.9 Nationality of Current Superior

Variance	DF	SS	MS	F	P
GL					
Between groups	5	2.003	.401	1.280	.270
Within group	812	254.096	.313		
Total	817	256.099			
TL					
Between groups	5	3.529	.706	1.714	.129
Within group	812	334.353	.412		
Total	817	337.883			
TE					
Between groups	5	4.356	.871	2.897	.013*
Within group	812	244.149	.301		
Total	817	248.505			

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4. 9 reveals that the influence of the different nationalities of the respondents' superior on the TE different scores was significant statistically (at .05 level); hence further analysis was required. However, post hoc tests were not able to be performed because at least one group had fewer than 2 cases. In this study, it is worth noting that the majority of the respondents' superior nationality was Thai. Therefore, it was not validated to study the influence of this demographic variable on the main variables.

Table 4.10 Oversea Education Experience

Variance	DF	SS	MS	F	P
GL					
Between groups	5	2.018	.404	1.290	.266
Within group	812	254.081	.313		
Total	817	256.099			
TL					
Between groups	5	2.965	.593	1.438	.208
Within group	812	334.917	.412		
Total	817	337.883			
TE					
Between groups	5	1.303	.261	.856	.510
Within group	812	247.202	.304		
Total	817	248.505			

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.10 reveals that different scores for GL, TL, and TE from the different overseas education experience of the respondents were not significant statistically.

Table 4.11 Overseas Work Experience

Variance	DF	SS	MS	F	P
GL					
Between groups	5	4.578	.916	2.956	.012*
Within group	812	251.521	.310		
Total	817	256.099			
TL					
Between groups	5	4.999	1.000	2.439	.033*
Within group	812	332.884	.410		
Total	817	337.883			

Table 4.11 (Continued)

Variance	DF	SS	MS	F	P
TE					
Between groups	5	3.667	.733	2.432	.034*
Within group	812	244.838	.302		
Total	817	248.505			

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.11 reveals the statistics concerning the overseas work experience of the respondents and the mean scores for GL, TL, and TE. The data show that the different mean scores for GL, TL, and TE for the different overseas work experience were significant statistically and hence further analysis was required.

Table 4.12 Overseas Work Experience (LSD Analysis of GL)

GL	Mean	Overseas Work Experience				
		None	< 1	1-5	6-10	>10
None	4.318	-	-	-	-	-
<1	4.458	-.1395	-	-	-	-
1-5	4.705	-.3871*	-.2476	-	-	-
6-10	4.157	.1611	.3006	.5482*	-	-
>10	4.304	.0141	.1536	.4012	-.1470	-

Note: * Significant at the .05 level.

Table 4. 12 revealsd that the respondents with 1- 5 years of overseas work experience reported higher perception of respondents regarding the GL of their current superior (Mean 4.705) than the respondents with no overseas experience (Mean 4.318) was significant statistically. The respondents with 1- 5 years of overseas work

experience also reported higher perception of respondents regarding the GL of their current superior than the respondents with 6-10 years of overseas experience (Mean 4.157) was significant statistically.

Table 4.13 Overseas Work Experience (LSD Analysis of TL)

TL	Mean	Oversea Work Experience				
		None	< 1	1-5	6-10	>10
None	3.922	-	-	-	-	-
<1	4.095	-.1733	-	-	-	-
1-5	4.307	-.3851*	-.2118	-	-	-
6-10	3.889	.0327	.2060	.4178	-	-
>10	4.139	-.2173	-.0440	.1678	-.2500	-

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.13 reveals that the respondents with 1-5 years of overseas work experience reported higher TL scores (Mean 4.307) than the respondents with no overseas experience (Mean 3.922) and this was significant statistically.

Table 4.14 Overseas Work Experience (LSD Analysis of TE)

TE	Mean	Overseas Work Experience				
		None	< 1	1-5	6-10	>10
None	3.878	-	-	-	-	-
<1	3.997	-.1188	-	-	-	-
1-5	3.951	-.0727	.0462	-	-	-
6-10	3.508	.3705	.4894*	.4432	-	-
>10	4.375	-.4966*	-.3777	-.4239	-.8671*	-

Note: * Significant at the .05 level.

Table 4. 14 reveals that the respondents with >10 years of overseas work experience reported higher TE scores (Mean 4.375) than the respondents with 6-10 years of overseas work experience (Mean 3.508) and also higher than the respondents with no overseas work experience (Mean 3.878) and this was significant statistically. The respondents with <1 year of overseas work experience reported higher TE scores (Mean 3.997) than the respondents with 6-10 years of overseas work experience (Mean 3.508) and this was also significant statistically.

Table 4.15 Tenure in the Organization

Variance	DF	SS	MS	F	P
GL					
Between groups	6	3.862	.644	2.070	.055
Within group	811	252.236	.311		
Total	817	256.099			
TL					
Between groups	6	5.530	.922	2.249	.037*
Within group	811	332.353	.410		
Total	817	337.883			
TE					
Between groups	6	5.168	.861	2.871	.009*
Within group	811	243.337	.300		
Total	817	248.505			

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.15 reveals the statistics concerning the tenure in the organization of the respondents and the mean scores for GL, TL, and TE. The data show that the different mean scores for TL and TE among the different tenures was significant statistically and hence further analysis was required. However, post hoc tests were not able to be performed because at least one group had fewer than 2 cases.

Table 4.16 Work Period with Current Superior

Variance	DF	SS	MS	F	P
GL					
Between groups	4	3.849	.962	3.101	.015*
Within group	813	252.250	.310		
Total	817	256.099			
TL					
Between groups	4	3.650	.913	2.220	.065
Within group	813	334.232	.411		
Total	817	337.883			
TE					
Between groups	4	1.147	.287	.942	.439
Within group	813	247.358	.304		
Total	817	248.505			

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.16 reveals that influence of different work periods with one's superior on the perception of the respondents regarding the GL of their current superior was significant statistically and hence further analysis was required.

Table 4.17 Work Period with Current Superior (LSD Analysis of GL)

GL	Mean	Work Period with Current Superior			
		<1	1-2	3-4	>4
<1	4.251	-	-	-	-
1-2	4.329	-.0774	-	-	-
3-4	4.464	-.2125*	-.1350*	-	-
>4	4.315	-.0641	.0133	.1483*	-

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.17 reveals that the respondents with a work period with their current superior of 3-4 years reported higher perception of respondents regarding the GL of their current superior (Mean 4.464) than the respondents with a work period with their current superior >4 years (4.315), 1-2 years (Mean 4.329), and <1 year (Mean 4.251) was significant statistically.

Table 4.18 Current Position

Variance	**DF**	**SS**	**MS**	**F**	**P**
GL					
Between groups	6	4.087	.681	2.192	.042*
Within group	811	252.012	.311		
Total	817	256.099			
TL					
Between groups	6	4.802	.800	1.949	.071
Within group	811	333.081	.411		
Total	817	337.883			
TE					
Between groups	6	1.998	.333	1.095	.363
Within group	811	246.507	.304		
Total	817	248.505			

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.18 reveals that the different mean scores for the perception of the respondents regarding the GL of their current superior among the different positions of the respondents were significant statistically and hence further analysis was required.

Table 4.19 Current position (LSD Analysis of GL)

		Current Position					
GL	**Mean**	>Sr. Mgr.	Sr. Mgr.	Manager	Asst. Mgr.	Supervisor	Staff
>Sr. Mgr.	4.778	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sr. Mgr.	4.573	.2044	-	-	-	-	-
Manager	4.563	.2144	.0099	-	-	-	-
Asst. Mgr.	4.278	.4995	.2951	.2851*	-	-	-
Supervisor	4.278	.4998	.2953	.2854*	.0003	-	-
Staff	4.326	.4518	.2474	.2374*	-.0477	-.0480	-

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.19 reveals that the respondents at the manager level reported higher perception of respondents regarding the GL of their current superior (Mean 4.563) than the respondents at the assistant manager level (Mean 4.278), the supervisor level (Mean 4.278), or the staff level (mean 4.326) was significant statistically.

Table 4.20 Position of Current Superior

Variance	**DF**	**SS**	**MS**	**F**	**P**
GL					
Between groups	6	5.048	.841	2.718	.013*
Within group	811	251.050	.310		
Total	817	256.099			
TL					
Between groups	6	8.564	1.427	3.515	.002*
Within group	811	329.319	.406		
Total	817	337.883			

Table 4.20 (Continued)

Variance	DF	SS	MS	F	P
TE					
Between groups	6	1.911	.319	1.048	.393
Within group	811	246.594	.304		
Total	817	248.505			

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.20 revealsd that influence of the different positions of the respondents' superior on the different GL and TL scores was significant statistically and hence further analysis was required. However, post hoc tests were not able to be performed because at least one group had fewer than 2 cases.

Table 4.21 English Proficiency Test Experience (TOEIC, TOEFL, IELT)

Variables	Yes		Never		T	P
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
GL	4.322	0.553	4.405	0.596	-1.551	.121
TL	3.915	0.643	4.103	0.621	-3.049	.002*
TE	3.882	0.545	3.921	0.588	-.731	.465

Note: * Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.21 revealsd that the different mean scores for TL among the respondents with English proficiency test experience (Mean 3. 915) and those without this experience (Mean 4.103) were significant statistically (at .05 level) and hence further analysis was required. However, post hoc tests were able to be performed because at least one group had fewer than 2 cases.

4.2 Correlation Analysis among the Variables in the Research Model

Table 4.22 – 4.24 reports on the correlations among the variables in order to provide a better understanding of each variable and the dimensions.

Table 4.22 Correlation between GL and TL

Variable / Dimensions	**Correlation (r)**	**P**
GL	.707**	**.00**
Thinking Globally	.520**	.00
Building Partnerships	.589**	.00
Sharing Leadership	.575**	.00
Creating a Shared Vision	.588**	.00
Developing People	.609**	.00
Empowering People	.591**	.00
Achieving Personal Mastery	.632**	.00
Encouraging Constructive Dialogue	.617**	.00
Leading Change	.651**	.00
Maintaining a Competitive Advantage	.579**	.00

Note: ** Significant at the .01 level

Table 4.22 reveals a positive correlation between GL and TL (r .707), which was significant statistically. The data also report the positive correlation of all dimensions of GL and TL as being significant statistically. The top-three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TL were leading change (r .651), achieving personal mastery (r .632), and encouraging constructive dialogue (r .617) respectively, while the bottom three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TL were thinking globally (r .520), sharing leadership (r .575), and maintaining a competitive advantage (r .579).

Table 4.23 Correlation between GL and TE

Variables/Dimensions	Correlation (r)	P
GL	**0.606****	**.00**
Thinking Globally	0.466**	.00
Building Partnerships	0.498**	.00
Sharing Leadership	0.447**	.00
Creating a Shared Vision	0.530**	.00
Developing People	0.534**	.00
Empowering People	0.506**	.00
Achieving Personal Mastery	0.512**	.00
Encouraging Constructive Dialogue	0.521**	.00
Leading Change	0.508**	.00
Maintaining a Competitive Advantage	0.579**	.00

Note: ** Significant at the .01 level

Table 4.23 reveals that the moderate correlation between global leadership competency and team process effectiveness (r 0.606) was significant statistically. The data also report the positive correlation of all dimensions of GL and TE as being significant statistically. The top-three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TE were maintaining a competitive advantage (r 0.579), developing people (r 0.534), and creating shared vision (r 0.530). The bottom-three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TL were sharing leadership (r 0.447), thinking globally (r 0.466), and building partnerships (r 0.498).

Table 4.24 Correlation between TL and TE

Variables/Dimensions	Correlation (r)	P
TL	**0.533****	**.00**
Ability	0.460**	.00
Benevolence	0.506**	.00
Integrity	0.498**	.00

Note: ** Significant at the .01 level

Table 4.24 reveals a positive correlation between TL and TE (r 0.533), which was significant statistically. The data also report the positive correlation of all dimensions of TL and TE as being significant statistically. The dimension of TL with the highest correlation with TE was benevolence (r 0.506), followed by integrity (r .498), and the dimension with the lowest correlation with TE was ability (r 0.460).

4.3 SEM Analysis of the Causal Relationships among the Variables in the Research Model

In order to answer the research questions on the impact of and causal relationships among the three measurements, global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness, SEM was employed in order to analyze the causal relationships among variables in this study.

4.3.1 Analysis of the Correlations between the Observed Variables

This section provides the results of the correlation analysis between all observed variables used in the research model to investigate the issue of multicollinearity for the validation of the causal relationship model. According to Berry and Feldman (1985), multicollinearity is the extent to which a variable can be explained by another variable in research. The authors explained that increasing multicollinearity creates more complications of the variate and they recommended a correlation coefficient cutoff of 0.5 and above; however, 0.8 is widely used by researchers.

To be more precise, Mukaka (2012) described a rule of thumb for interpreting the size of a correlation coefficient as described below:

1) A correlation size of 0.90 – 1.00 is considered a very high correlation.
2) A correlation size of 0.70 – 0.90 is considered a high correlation.
3) A correlation size of 0.50 – 0.70 is considered a moderate correlation.
4) A correlation size of 0.30 – 0.50 is considered a low correlation.
5) A correlation size of 0.00 – 0.30 is considered a negligible correlation.

There were 3 latent variables and 8 observed variables in the model: 1) global leadership competencies, which consisted of 2 observed variables; 2) trust in leader, which consisted of 3 variables; and 3) team effectiveness, which consisted of 3 variables. Details of the correlation analysis are provided in Table 4.25 below.

Table 4.25 Correlation Matrix of the Observed Variables (n=818)

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
GL1	1.000							
GL2	.851	1.000						
Ability	.583	.629	1.000					
Benevolence	.599	.666	.741	1.000				
Integrity	.595	.647	.734	.809	1.000			
Effort	.494	.540	.450	.446	.455	1.000		
Performance Strategy	.515	.580	.403	.458	.448	.720	1.000	
Knowledge and Skill	.477	.512	.388	.460	.440	.686	.728	1.000
Mean	3.960	4.715	4.000	3.947	3.888	3.904	3.859	3.901
SD	.545	.619	.635	.724	.742	.601	.653	.586

Note: Significant at the .01 level

Table 4.25 reveals the correlation coefficient between 28 pairs of observed variables, which were significant statistically at the .01 level. None of these was considered as a low correlation. There were 6 pairs with a correlation higher than .70, which were: 1) GL1 and GL2 at .851; 2) Ability and Benevolence at .741; 3) Ability and Integrity at .734; 4) Benevolence and Integrity at .809; 5) Effort and Performance strategy at .720; and 6) Performance strategy and Knowledge and skill at .728. Nevertheless, each pair was in the same latent variable; for example GL1 and GL2 were in the global leadership competency variable. Hence this research used all variables for the SEM analysis as the results did not violate the statistical assumption concerning multicollinearity.

4.3.2 Analysis of Measurement Model of Latent Variables

This section provides the results of the measurement model analysis of the three variables: 1) global leadership competency, 2) trust in leader, and 3) team process effectiveness. As the factor loading of the observed variables is an indicator of understanding which factors have a high or low relation with the studied latent variables, and the recommended loading was 0.5 or higher (Hair et al., 2010), all of the factors loading are explained in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26 Factor Loadings for the Observed Variables in the Measurement Model

Latent Variables	**Observed Variables (Indicators)**	**Factor Loading**	**SE_b**	**T**	**R^2**
Global leadership	GL1	.883	--	--	.780
competency	GL2	.963	.042	37.028***	.927
Trust in leader	Ability	.824	--	--	.680
	Benevolence	.905	.040	31.615***	.819
	Integrity	.891	.041	31.003***	.793
Team process	Effort	.828	--	--	.686
effectiveness	Performance Strategy	.872	.041	28.184***	.761
	Knowledge & Skill	.832	.036	26.858***	.692

Note: *** $p<.001$

Table 4.26 indicates high factor loadings for all of the observed variables as the factor loading level was higher than .70 (Hair et al., 2010). The measurement model for global leadership competency indicated a factor loading for the observed variables in the range of .963 - .883, which was significant statistically at the .001 level. GL2 reported a higher factor loading at .963 and GL1 reported a lower factor loading at .883. The measurement model for trust in leader revealed a factor loading of observed variables in the range of .824 - .905, significant statistically at the .001 level. Benevolence showed the highest factor loading at .905, followed by integrity at .891, and the lowest one was ability at .824. The measurement model for team process effectiveness revealed a factor loading for the observed variables in the range or .828 - .872, which was significant statistically at the .001 level. Performance strategy indicated the highest factor loading at .872, followed by knowledge and skill at .832 and the lowest one was effort at .828.

Table 4.26 also indicates the path coefficient or causal relationship between the latent variables and the observed variables in this study by using squared multiple correlation for the structural equations (R^2). For global leadership competency, R^2 revealed that GL2 could explain approximately 92.7% of the variance in global leadership competency, while GL1 could explain the latent variable at approximately 78%. Regarding trust in leader with an R^2 range from .680 - .819, the highest R^2 was benevolence at .819, where it can be interpreted that it can explain TL 81.9%, while the lowest one was ability, which can explain TL at approximately 68%. In terms of team process effectiveness, which had an R^2 range from .686 - .761, the highest R^2 was performance strategy, which can explain TE at approximately 76.1%, and the lowest one was effort, which can explain TE at approximately 68.6%.

4.3.3 SEM Path Analysis

This section provides a causal relationship analysis of the demographic variables: global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness. According to Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000), SEM analysis can be employed to analyze how the empirical data from a study can support the theoretical research framework at the conceptualized stage; hence, this research also utilized SEM for the mentioned purpose.

In order to evaluate the poorness or goodness-of-fits of the path analysis models in this study, the indices for goodness-of-fit are described in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27 Indices for Goodness-of-Fit

Indices		**Definitions**	**Fit Criteria**
χ^2	Chi-square	The assessment of fit of a specific model as well as the comparison between two models	The smaller the better fit χ^2 / df < 2
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	A statistic that measures how well the model would fit the population covariance matrix	< .05: good fit .05-.08: reasonable .08- .10: mediocre > .10: poor fit
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index	A measure of fit between the hypothesized model and the population covariance matrix	>.90
AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index	The adjusted goodness of fit index that corrects the GFI, which is affected by the number of indicators of each latent variable	>.90
AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index	The adjusted goodness of fit index that corrects the GFI, which is affected by the number of indicators of each latent variable	>.90
NFI	Normed-Fit Index	A fit index that assesses the model by comparing the χ^2	>.90

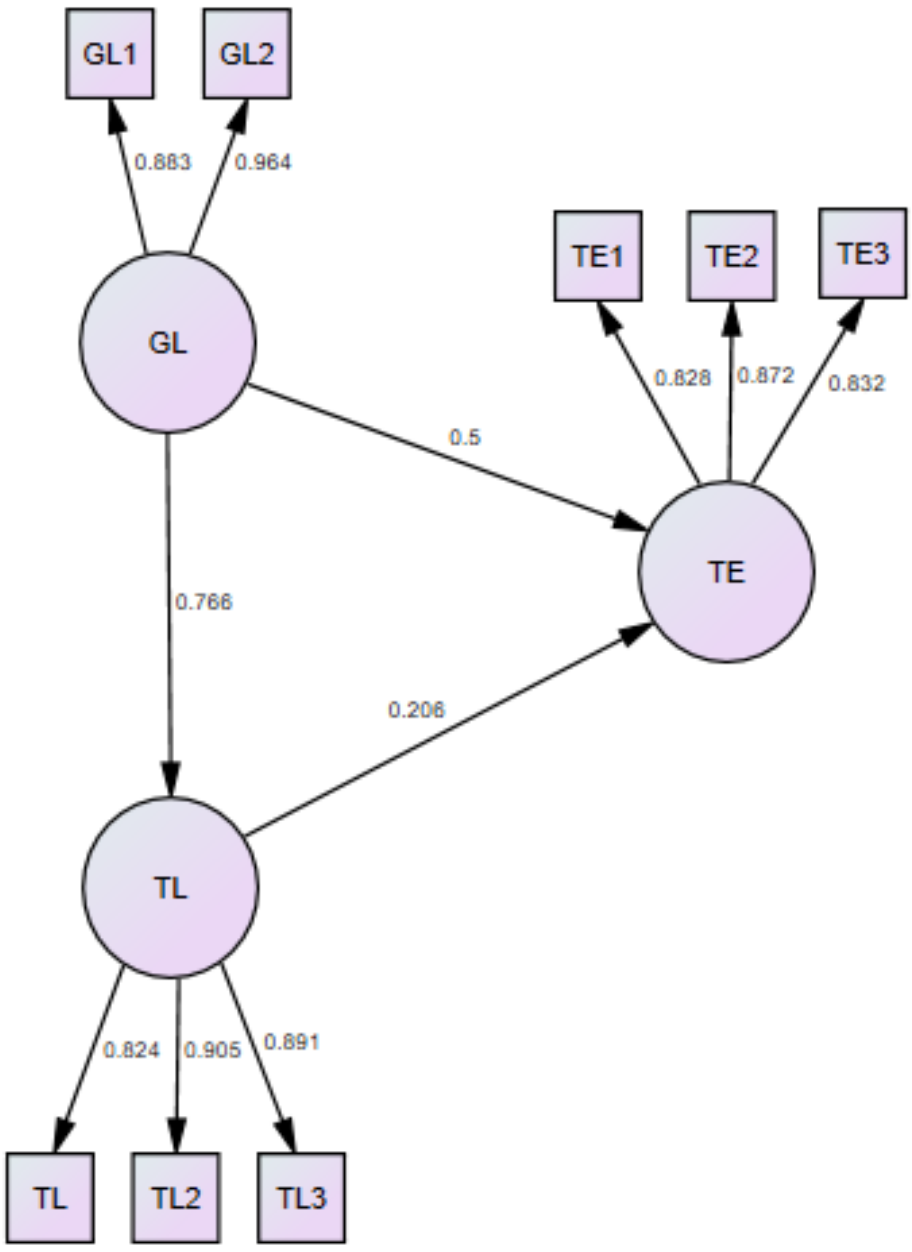
Table 4.27 (Continued)

Indices		Definitions	Fit Criteria
		value of the model to the χ^2 value of the null model	
TLI or NNFI	Tucker-Lewis or Non Norm Fit Index	A relative-fit index that compares the model being tested to a baseline model (null model), taking into account the degree of freedom	>.90
IFI	Incremental-Fit Index	An incremental-fit index that determines the improvement in fit between a model compared with the baseline model and whether any meaningful information remains unexplained by the model	>.90

Source: Olobatuyi, 2006; Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008.

4.3.3.1 The SEM Model

Figure 4.1 below reveals the details of the SEM model with a goodness-of-fit between the empirical data and the model. The p-value was > 0.05, and the RMSEA was < 0.05 (chi-square = 17.946, df = 15, p-value = 0.27 and RMSEA = 0.016).



χ^2= 17.946, df = 15, p = 0.27

Figure 4.1 Path Coefficients of the SEM Model

4.3.3.2 The Goodness of Fit

Table 4. 28 below describes the comparison of the indices for the goodness-of-fit and the SEM model in this study.

Table 4.28 Indices for the Goodness-of-Fit of the SEM Model

	Important Indices	**Criteria**	**The SEM Model**	**Result**
χ^2	Chi-square		17.946	
Df	Degree of Freedom		15	
χ^2/df	Chi-square/Degree of Freedom	<2	1.196	Pass
p-value of χ^2	P-value of Chi-square	>0.05	0.27	Pass
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	<0.05	0.016	Pass
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index	>0.90	0.995	Pass
AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index	>0.90	0.987	Pass
NFI	Normed-Fit Index	>0.90	0.996	Pass
TLI/NNFI	Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	>0.90	0.999	Pass
IFI	Incremental Fit Index	>0.90	0.999	Pass

Table 4. 28 reports that the model had a strong goodness-of-fit with the empirical data and all of the indices for goodness-of-fit passed the criteria.

The results revealed that the model that was developed fit the empirical data and that all of the causal variables in model could explain the variance of the dependent variable (team process effectiveness) at 45%. The details are shown in Table 4.29 and Table 4.30.

Table 4.29 Parameter Estimate and Statistical Assumption Testing in the Model

Cause Variable->Effect variable	**Estimate**	**SE**	**T**
Global leadership competency -> Trust in leader	.766	.009	22.156***
Global leadership competency -> Team process effectiveness	.500	.014	9.241***
Trust in leader -> Team process effectiveness	.206	.051	3.825***
Correlation Matrix of Latent Variables	**1**	**2**	**3**
1. Team process effectiveness	1.000		
2. Global leadership competency	.606	1.000	
3. Trust in leader	.533	.707	1.000

Note: Chi-square = 17.946, df = 15, p = .27, GFI = .995, AGFI = .987, RMR = .119, RMSEA = .016

**p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 4. 29 reports the path coefficients and correlations between variables in the model. All of the statistics were significant and positive.

The findings showed that global leadership competency revealed a causal effect on trust in leader and also team process effectiveness, with a path coefficient of .766 and .500 respectively. This means that a change in global leadership competency of 1 unit can cause a change in trust in leader and team process effectiveness by a .766 unit and .500 unit respectively. The results also reported that trust in leader had a causal effect on team process effectiveness, with a path coefficient of .206, meaning that a change of trust in leader at 1 unit can cause a change on team process effectiveness by a .206 unit.

The correlation matrix reflected that all of the variables were positively correlated at a medium to high level from range of .533 - .707 (Mukaka, 2012). Team process effectiveness was correlated with global leadership competency at .606 and trust in leader at .533, which were considered to be at a moderate level (.50 – .70).

Global leadership competency were correlated with trust in leader at .707, which was considered as a high level (.70 – .90).

Table 4.30 Direct Effect, Indirect Effect, and Total Effect Among the Variables in the Model

	Cause Variable		
Effect Variable	**Global Leadership Competency**	**Trust in Leader**	**R^2**
Trust in leader			
TE	.766	-	.587
IE	-	-	-
DE	.766	-	-
Team Process Effectiveness			
TE	.657	.206	.449
IE	.158	-	-
DE	.500	.206	-

Note: * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 4.30 indicates the direct effect of the independent variables on the dependent variables. The results revealed that the direct effects of global leadership competency and trust in leader on team process effectiveness were significant statistically. Global leadership competency revealed a high direct effect on trust in the leader at .766. Global leadership competency indicated the highest direct effect on team process effectiveness at .500, followed by trust in leader at .206, which was significant statistically at the level of .001. In addition, global leadership competency also had an indirect effect on trust in leader at .158 and hence the total effect was .657.

The results revealed an indirect effect of global leadership competency, which was mediated by trust in leader, on team process effectiveness at .158, which was significant statistically at the level of .001.

The findings also reported the path coefficient between the variables by applying the squared multiple correlation for the structural equations (R^2). The results revealed that 44.9% of the variance in team process effectiveness could be explained by global leadership competency and trust in leader.

In summary, the SEM analysis indicated that global leadership competency revealed the highest impact on team process effectiveness, followed by trust in leader.

4.4 Linkage between the Findings and the First Research Question

Beginning with the first research question, " How does global leadership competency impact trust in leader?" in order to answer this question, this study used correlation analysis and SEM analysis to provide a comprehensive understanding.

4.4.1 Correlation Analysis

There appears to be a consensus among several researchers that a correlation above 0.70 should be considered as strong or high (Allison & Zelikow, 1999; Jaccard & Turrisi, 2003, Mukaka, 2012). The correlation coefficient analysis of the GL and TL in Table 4.22 indicates the strength of the relationship between them at 0.707, which is a high level. The findings also reported a positive correlation between all dimensions of GL and TL. The top-three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TL were leading change at 0.651, achieving personal mastery at 0.632, and encouraging constructive dialogue at 0.617. The bottom-three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TL were thinking globally at 0.520, sharing leadership at 0.575, and maintaining a competitive advantage at 0.579.

4.4.2 SEM Analysis

The findings in Table 4.29 indicate that global leadership competency had a causal effect on trust in leader with a path coefficient of .766. This means that a change in global leadership competency of 1 unit can cause a change in trust in leader by .766 of a unit. The results in Table 4.30 and Figure 4.1 also report the high direct effect of GL on TL at .766 and also report the path coefficient between the variables by applying

squared multiple correlation for the structural equations (R^2). The path coefficient analysis revealed that global leadership competency could explain the variance in trust in leader at 58.7% approximately.

According to the correlation analysis, as mentioned above, the findings showed a strong relationship between global leadership competency and trust in leader. In order to answer the research question, the SEM analysis indicated a high influence of global leadership competency on trust in leader, with a direct effect at .766 (76.6%), and also a path coefficient on trust in leader at .587 (58.7%).

4.5 Linkage between the Findings and the Second Research Question

The second question of this research was " How does global leadership competency impact team process effectiveness?" In order to answer the question, this study used correlation analysis and SEM analysis to provide a comprehensive understanding.

4.5.1 Correlation Analysis

The results in Table 4. 23 indicate a moderate correlation between global leadership competency and team process effectiveness at 0.606. The data also reported that the positive correlation of all dimensions of GL and TE was significant statistically. The top-three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TE were maintaining a competitive advantage at 0. 579, developing people at 0. 534, and creating a shared vision at 0. 530. The bottom-three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TE were sharing leadership (r 0. 447), thinking globally (r 0. 466), and building partnerships (r 0.498).

4.5.2 SEM Analysis

Table 4.29 reveals that global leadership competencies had an influence on trust in leader with a path coefficient of .501. This means that a change in global leadership competency of 1 unit can cause a change in trust in leader by a .501 unit. The results in Table 4. 30 and Figure 4. 1 also reported a moderate direct effect of GL on TE at . 501 and a small indirect effect on trust in leader at . 157; hence the total effect was . 658.

Table 4.21 also reported the path coefficient between the variables by applying the squared multiple correlation for the structural equations (R^2). The path coefficient analysis revealed that global leadership competency and trust in leader could explain the variance in team process effectiveness at 45% approximately.

The correlation analysis revealed a moderate relationship between global leadership competency and team process effectiveness. In order to respond to the research question, the SEM analysis indicated a moderate influence of global leadership competency on team process effectiveness, with direct effect at .501 (50.1%), and also shared path coefficient with trust in leader on team process effectiveness at .449 (44.9%).

4.6 Linkage between the Findings and the Third Research Question

The third question of this research was "How does trust in leader impact team process effectiveness?" In order to answer this question, this study used correlation analysis and SEM analysis to provide a comprehensive understanding.

4.6.1 Correlation Analysis

The findings in Table 4.24 reveal a moderate correlation between trust in leader and team process effectiveness at 0.533. The results also reported a positive correlation of all dimensions of TL and TE, which was significant statistically (at the .01 level). The dimension of TL with the highest correlation with TE was benevolence at 0.506, followed by integrity at 0.498, and the lowest dimension was ability at 0.460.

4.6.2 SEM Analysis

Table 4.29 indicates that trust in leader had a causal effect on team process effectiveness, with a path coefficient of .204, meaning that a change in trust in leader of 1 unit could cause a change in team process effectiveness by.204 of a unit. The analysis in Table 4.30 and Figure 4.1 reveals a small direct effect of TL on TE at .204. The results in Table 4.30 also report the path coefficient between the variables by applying squared multiple correlation for the structural equations (R^2). The path coefficient analysis revealed that trust in leader along with global leadership

competency could explain the variance in team process effectiveness at 45% approximately.

The correlation analysis revealed a moderate relationship between trust in leader and team process effectiveness. In order to respond to the research question, the SEM analysis indicated a small influence of trust in leader on team process effectiveness, with direct effect at .204 (20.4%), and also shared a path coefficient with global leadership competency on team process effectiveness at .450 (45%).

4.7 Additional Findings from the Demographic Data Analysis

Even though none of demographic data was included in the research framework, there were some interesting findings to be pointed out as follows.

4.7.1 The respondents aged 51 years or older reported a higher score for perception regarding the GL of their current superior than the respondents whose age was between 31-40 years.

4.7.2 The respondents with below a high school education reported a lower score for perception regarding the GL of their current superior than the respondents with a high school/vocational or bachelor degree. The respondents with a high school/vocational education and the respondents with a bachelor degree reported higher scores for perception regarding the GL of their current superior than the respondents with high vocational education.

4.7.3 The respondents with below a high school education reported lower TL scores than the respondents with a bachelor or master degree. The respondents with a high school/vocational education reported lower TL scores than the respondents with a bachelor degree. The respondents with high vocational education reported lower TL scores than the respondents with a bachelor or master degree.

4.7.4 The influence of the different nationality of the respondents' superior on the different TE scores was significant statistically and hence further analysis was required. However, post hoc tests were not able to be performed because at least one group had fewer than 2 cases.

4.7.5 The influence of the different nationality of the respondents' superior on the different TE scores was significant statistically and hence further analysis was

required. However, post hoc tests were not able to be performed because at least one group had fewer than 2 cases.

4.7.6 The data show that the different scores for the perception regarding the GL of their current superior between different overseas work experience was were statistically; hence further analysis was required. The post hoc analysis revealed that the respondents with 1-5 years of overseas work experience reported higher scores for the perception regarding the GL of their current superior than the respondents with no overseas experience. The respondents with 1-5 years of overseas work experience also reported higher scores for the perception regarding the GL of their current superior than the respondents with 6-10 years of overseas experience.

4.7.7 The data show that the different mean scores for the TL between different overseas work experience were significant statistically and hence further analysis was required. The post hoc analysis revealed that the respondents with 1-5 years of overseas work experience reported higher TL scores than the respondents with no overseas work experience.

4.7.8 The data show that the different mean scores for TE between different overseas work experience was significant statistically and hence further analysis was required. The post hoc analysis revealed that the respondents with >10 years of overseas work experience reported higher TE scores than the respondents with 6-10 years of overseas work experience and also higher than the respondents with no overseas experience. The respondents with <1 year of overseas work experience reported higher TE scores than the respondents with 6-10 years of overseas work experience.

4.7.9 The data show that the different mean scores for TL, and TE between different tenures, were significant statistically and hence further analysis was required. However, post hoc tests were not able to be performed because at least one group had fewer than 2 cases.

4.7.10 The respondents with a work period with their current superior of 3-4 years reported higher scores for the perception regarding the GL of their current superior than the respondents with a work period with their current superior >4 years, 1-2 years, and <1 year.

4.7.11 The respondents at the manager level reported higher scores for perception regarding the GL of their current superior than the respondents at the assistant manager level, the supervisor level, or the staff level.

4.7.12 The influence of the different positions of the respondents' superior on the different GL and TL scores was significant statistically and hence further analysis was required. However, post hoc tests were not able to be performed because at least one group had fewer than 2 cases.

4.7.13 The different mean scores for TL among the respondents with English proficiency test experience and without this experience were significant statistically and hence further analysis was required. However, post hoc tests were not able to be performed because at least one group had fewer than 2 cases.

4.8 Summary

This chapter described the findings and the answers to the research questions. One-way ANOVA analysis, correlation analysis, and SEM analysis were utilized to explain the characteristics of the demographic variables and the causal relationship between the variables based on the research model.

The findings revealed an answer to the first research question, that global leadership competency had a high correlation with trust in leader at .707 and also had a high impact on trust in leader, with a direct effect at .766. In order to answer the second research question, global leadership competency showed a moderate correlation with team process effectiveness at .606 and also indicated a moderate direct effect at .501 and a small indirect effect at .157 on team effectiveness. The answer to the third research question, as shown in Table 4.24, Table 4.29, and Table 4.30, indicated that there was a moderate correlation between trust in leader and team process effectiveness at .533, and there was also a small direct effect of trust in leader on team process effectiveness at .204.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize and discuss the findings of this research as well as to provide the recommendations from and limitations of the study. First, the objectives of this study and research questions are briefly explained, followed by the research methodology and data analysis. The findings of this research are discussed and compared with previous studies and literature. The implications and recommendations for practitioners are also discussed. Last, the limitations of this research and recommendations for future research are provided.

5.1 Summary

The purpose of this study was to explore the impact of global leadership competency and trust in leader on team process effectiveness in order to develop a broader knowledge base for HRD. There were three research questions for this study. The first one concerned the impact of global leadership competency on trust in leader; the second concerned the impact of global leadership competency on team process effectiveness; and the final question concerned the impact of trust in leader on team process effectiveness.

Based on the increasing global integration that impacts organizations, leaders worldwide have encountered rapid changes, such as global competition and cultural diversity (Friedman, 2006; Northouse, 2004; Rosen, Digh, Phillips, & Rosen, 2000). Organizations call for leaders with a global perspective and an ability to integrate different points of view and responses with the global market effectively (Jeannet, 2000). Hence demand for global leaders is increasing (Black, 1988; Sheridan, 2005) and global leadership competency has become undoubtedly important for leadership effectiveness.

The influence of the leader on team performance and organizational performance has been studied for decades (e.g. Bass, 1990; Shen & Chen, 2007; Zamahani, Ghornbani, & Razaei, 2011), and researches have focused on the different perspectives of the leader; however, the influence of leadership competencies on team performance appears to be still underexplored (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2007).

Trust has been identified as a significant aspect in leadership theories and is also considered a critical dimension of effective leader behavior and leader effectiveness (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2007). The GLOBE project, which has conducted research in 62 cultures, also supports this idea, as it pointed out that "being trustworthy" is one of the universal facilitators of leadership effectiveness (Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, & House, 2006).

Based on the above reasons, this research aimed to explore the causal relationships among global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness in order to enhance the knowledge of leadership effectiveness in HRD field.

5.1.1 Research Questions

The research questions were as follows:

1) How does global leadership competency impact trust in leader?

2) How does global leadership competency impact team process effectiveness?

3) How does trust in leader impact team process effectiveness?

5.1.2 Methods

A summary of the research methodology follows, including 1) participant selection, 2) instruments, 3) data collection, and 4) data analysis.

5.1.2.1 Participant Selection

The population of this study was employees from 5 multinational companies in Thailand where there are both local and expatriate leaders in organization. Thus, based on simple random sampling, the questionnaires were distributed to this group of participants for this research.

5.1.2.2 Instrumentations

Three measurements, the global leadership competency inventory (Goldsmith et al., 2003), the trust inventory (Mayer and Davis, 1999), and a team diagnosis survey (Wageman, Hackman and Lehman, 2005) were modified and utilized in this study. Translation and back translation were done by professional translators, then content validity was reviewed and confirmed by concerned experts, and finally the pilot study was conducted.

1) Reliability

In order to examine the reliability of the three modified instruments, coefficient alphas were utilized. The reliability coefficients of the three modified scales showed a Cronbach alpha of GL (global leadership competencies) at the level of $\alpha = .9827$, a Cronbach alpha for TL (trust in leader) at the level of $\alpha = .9736$, and a Cronbach alpha for TE (team effectiveness) at the level of $\alpha = .9356$. As the Cronbach alpha levels of the three instruments were considered very high, the reliability of the instruments was confirmed.

2) Construct Validity

In order to explore the factors or dimensions that affected the GL, TL, and TE construct, EFA (exploratory factor analysis) was conducted. Then CFA (confirmatory factor analysis) was employed for confirmation of the factors that affected GL, TL, and TE and also assessment of the construct validity of the modified measurements. The factors derived from the EFA were utilized for the CFA and the results of three modified instrumentations after some modifications showed strong construct validity as well as goodness-of-fits.

5.1.2.3 Data Collection

After receiving approval from the head of HR at the 5 MNCs, the instruments were sent to the HR managers to be distributed to all employees. The convenience sampling method was applied to collect the samples. The total questionnaires distributed in this study were 1,270 sets, and the total respondents were 913 sets. The response rate was 72 percent. After screening out the data missing and after normality adjustment, the final sample in this study was 818 persons and among this sample, 815 respondents were locals and 3 were expatriates. Among the 818

respondents, 736 persons had Thai superiors, 55 persons had expatriate superiors, and 27 persons did not identify the nationality of their superiors.

5.1.2.4 Data Analysis

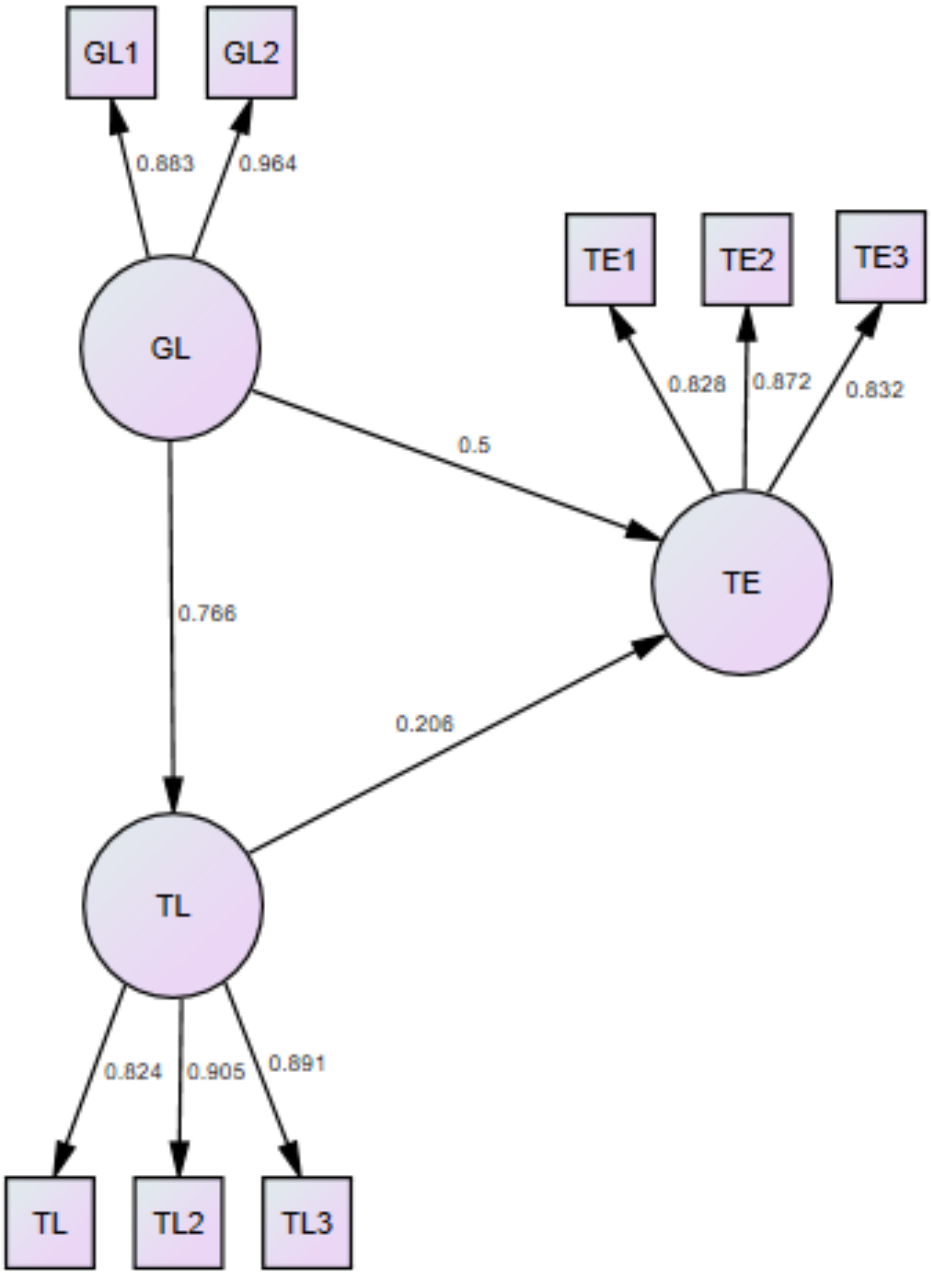
The inferential statistics utilized in this study were based on the objective of each research question. One-way ANOVA analysis was employed to analyze the influence of the demographic data (nationality, overseas work experience, work period with superior) on global leadership competencies and trust in leader. Correlation analysis was applied to investigate the relationships among the variables. CFA was utilized to confirm the factors in the three measurement models. Then, SEM was applied for the path analysis model to explore the causal relationships between variables.

5.2 Discussion

5.2.1 Discussion of the First Research Question Results

The first research question aimed to study the causal relationship between the perception of the respondents regarding the global leadership competency of their current superior and trust in leader. The findings indicated that there was high correlation between GL and TL at .707. The top three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TL were leading change at 0.651, achieving personal mastery at 0.632, and encouraging constructive dialogue at 0.617. The bottom-three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TL were thinking globally at 0.520, sharing leadership at 0.575, and maintaining a competitive advantage at 0.579.

The results of the SEM analysis also revealed a high impact of GL on TL with a direct effect at .766. Figure 5.1 below indicates the causal relationships of all the variables in this research. The model showed the significance of the goodness-of-fit with a chi-square = 17.946, df = 15, p-value = 0.27 and RMSEA = 0.016, based on the goodness-of-fit indices, estimated parameter, as well as the parsimony principle.



χ^2= 17.946, df = 15, p = 0.27

Figure 5.1 Path Coefficients of the SEM Model

In addition to Figure 5.1, the results in Table 4.30, which report the path coefficient between the variables by applying squared multiple correlation for the structural equations (R^2), reveal that global leadership competency was able to explain the variance in trust in leader at 58.7% approximately. This finding also indicated the impact of global leadership competency on trust in the leader.

It is interesting to understand the reasons that support the findings of the causal relationships between global leadership competency and trust in leader in the literature. Hence the section below discusses the causal relationships between the two variables based on the literature review.

A great deal of literature has pointed out leadership styles as one of the antecedences of trust in leader. According to Mayer et al. (1995), three leader characteristics as key antecedents of trust in leader are ability, benevolence, and integrity. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) also supported the notion that the perception of team members of these three characteristics of the leader can influence the level of trust in leader. As an organization requires different sets of leadership competencies in new contexts (Mendenhall et al., 2008; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2001), global leadership competency have become a critical ability for leaders that can impact trust in leader. The mentioned literature supported the findings in the present study—that global leadership competencies are a significant set of leaders' abilities that impact trust in leader.

It was also interesting to discuss further the top three and bottom three dimensions for the correlation between global leadership competency and trust in leader. The top three dimensions with moderate correlations were leading change, achieving personal mastery, and encourage constructive dialogue, while the bottom three were thinking globally, sharing leadership, and maintaining a competitive advantage, which could possibly be explained by the questions and constructs of global leadership competency, including relevant literature.

The relationship between leading change and trust in leader has been pointed out in several studies. For instance, Kotter (1995) indicated that trust in leader that lead organizational change is a significant factor in the change process in terms of gaining cooperation from employees; otherwise, alienation or resistance to change may occur. Oreg (2006) also revealed a causal relationship between trust in leader and employees'

reactions to changes in the organization. Nevertheless, there have been no studies that directly revealed a relationship between other dimensions of global leadership competency and trust in leader; hence, analysis of the constructs and questions in each dimension was required.

The construct of trust in leader emphasized the quality of the leader in the dimensions of ability, benevolence, and integrity, which employees can observe and perceive through communication and the work relationship. The achieving personal mastery dimension consisted of three main aspects in the research questionnaire: involving people that have strengths that the person does not possess; demonstrating effective emotional responses in a variety of situations; and demonstrating self-confidence as a leader. The encouraging constructive dialogue dimension involved three main topics: accepting constructive feedback in a positive manner; striving to understand the other person's frame of reference; and encouraging people to challenge the status quo. The aspects for these two dimensions revealed a focus on communication and the work relationship between the leader and employees, which were critical for trust building.

In contrast, the questions regarding the bottom three dimensions emphasized more business and organization rather than the work relationship between the leader and team members. For example, thinking globally dimension explored whether the leader recognizes the impact of globalization on business and makes decisions that incorporate global considerations; the sharing leadership dimension asked whether the leader strives to arrive at an outcome with others and creates an environment where people focus on the larger good; and the maintaining a competitive advantage dimension monitored whether the leader successfully eliminates waste and provides products/services that help the company have a clear competitive advantage.

The above explanations and literature could be fruitful for providing some rationale regarding the relationship between the top and the bottom three dimensions of global leadership competency and trust in leader.

5.2.2 Discussion of the Second Research Question Results

The findings for the second research question revealed that there was a moderate correlation between global leadership competency and team process effectiveness at

. 606. The top three dimensions of global leadership competency with a moderate correlation with team process effectiveness were maintaining a competitive advantage at 0.579, developing people at 0.534, and creating shared vision at 0.530. The bottom-three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TE were sharing leadership at 0.447, thinking globally at 0.466, and building partnerships at 0.498.

The SEM analysis results also indicated a moderate direct effect of global leadership competency on team process effectiveness at .501 and a small indirect effect at .157, and hence the total effect was .658. The path coefficient between the variables by applying squared multiple correlation for the structural equations (R^2) also reported that approximately 45% of the variance in team process effectiveness could be explained by global leadership competency and trust in leader together.

Numerous studies on teamwork have stated that leadership is critical to team performance and some scholars have pointed out that it appears to be the most important factor for team process effectiveness and achievement (Northhouse, 2004; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001). Marquardt and Horvath (2001) indicated that leadership was even more critical for global leaders that lead and manage team members across cultures as there are more challenges and complexities in managing different perceptions, expectations, and behaviors in that context. The aforementioned literature was important for the present research, as it could critically support the findings concerning the causal relationship between global leadership competency and team process effectiveness.

It was also interesting to explore further the top three and the bottom three dimensions for a correlation between global leadership competency and team process effectiveness. The top three dimensions with moderate correlations were maintaining a competitive advantage, developing people, and creating shared vision, while the bottom three were sharing leadership, thinking globally, and building partnerships. The results could possibly be explained by the constructs of global leadership competency and team process effectiveness, including relevant literature.

The construct of team effectiveness for the process criteria focused on effort, performance strategy, and the knowledge and skill of team members. As described earlier, the dimension of maintaining a competitive advantage emphasized business results. In addition, the creating a shared vision dimension also relates more to business

performance as it emphasizes the vision, strategies, and priorities of the organization. These two dimensions appeared to be linked with the performance strategy dimension, while the developing people dimension appeared to be related with the knowledge and skill dimension regarding team effectiveness. According to Gordon, Gilley, Avery, Gilley, and Barber (2014), encouraging employees' growth and development by the leader can enhance trust in leader that can lead to team performance and organizational effectiveness.

The bottom three dimensions were sharing leadership, thinking globally, and building partnerships. The details of sharing leadership and thinking globally were described earlier and building a partnership dimension also emphasized the business and external relationships rather than the internal work relationships within the team. This could be the reason why the correlation level among these three dimensions with team process effectiveness was at the bottom three compared to other dimensions in global leadership competency.

5.2.3 Discussion of the Third Research Question Results

The third research question aimed to investigate the causal relationship between trust in leader and team process effectiveness. The finding indicated that there was a moderate correlation between trust in the leader and team process effectiveness at .533. The dimension of trust in leader with the highest correlation with team process effectiveness was benevolence at 0.506 (moderate correlation), the middle one was integrity at 0.498 (low correlation), and dimension with the lowest correlation with team process effectiveness was ability at 0.460 (low correlation).

The finding for the SEM analysis also showed a small direct effect of trust in leader on team process effectiveness at .204. The path coefficient by the structural equations (R^2) analysis also indicated that 45% of the variance in team process effectiveness could be explained by trust in leader and global leadership competency.

Colquitt, Scott, and LePine (2007) conducted a meta-analysis study and reported a relationship between trust and performance. Mayer and Gavin (2005) described further that trust in leader allows employees to focus on their work rather than having a self-protection attitude and behaviors. Dirks (2000) indicated that trust in leader has a significant impact on team performance, and the author elaborated that trust

in leader can lead to more willingness to perform and aims to achieve the common goals of the team.

Obviously, the benevolence dimension, which reflected the leader's concern for benefits and the employees' well-being, revealed the highest correlation with team effectiveness, while the ability dimension reported the lowest correlation. This finding could be explained from the national culture perspective, as Hofstede (2001) pointed out that Thailand is high in the collectivism and femininity dimension. As a result, Thais tend to put high priority on family, groups, relationships, and concern for others. According to Schoorman et al. (2007) a feminine culture places more value in the benevolence of the leader while a masculine culture appears to value the ability of the leader. From another perspective, benevolence can also be considered as an aspect of transactional leadership to demonstrate supportive behaviors with tangible outcomes for team members to gain trust and engagement from employees (Bass, 1985) that could lead to team effectiveness.

The correlation between the integrity dimension and team process effectiveness could be explained by the study of Seijts, Gandz, Crossan, and Reno (2015) on the leader's characters, which impact performance and outcomes. The researchers found that integrity was perceived as a character that can lead to employee engagement. The results revealed further that the combination of integrity, collaboration, and the driving character of the leader can lead to a high-performance team.

The mentioned literature supported the findings in present research concerning the causal relationship between trust in leader and team process effectiveness.

5.2.4 Discussion of Key Findings from the Demographic Data Analysis

5.2.4.1 Overseas Work Experience

Among all of the demographic data in this study, overseas work experience was the only variable that influenced all 3 latent variables: global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness.

1) Overseas work experience and global leadership competency

According to Hung-Wen and Ching-Hsiang (2006), previous overseas experience is a key dimension in the cross-cultural adjustment process. Hence overseas work assignments have been well utilized as a significant approach to global

leadership competency development (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002; Osland, 2001). Even non-work experience overseas can provide opportunities to learn competencies that are important for working in cross-cultural contexts (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012).

In this research, the one-way ANOVA analysis revealed that the respondents with 1-5 years of overseas work experience gave higher global leadership competency scores than the respondents with no overseas experience and it was as also higher than the respondents with 6-10 years of overseas work experience.

The finding indicated that the respondents with 1-5 years of overseas work experience perceived the global leadership competency of their leader as higher than those with no overseas experience. This could be explained by the abovementioned literature, where it was indicated that their work experience in the cross-cultural context may have enhanced their understanding and acceptance of global leadership competencies. Interestingly, the respondents with 1-5 years of overseas work experience also perceived the global leadership competency of the leader as higher than those with 6-10 years of overseas work experience. This could be discussed from the perspective that the respondents with 6-10 years of overseas work experience could expect a higher and better degree of global leadership competency from their leaders because of their richer experience abroad.

2) Overseas work experience and trust in leader

Numerous studies have pointed out the importance of overseas work experience to the cross-cultural adjustment process and global leadership development. Li, Mobley, and Kelly (2012) for example reported a positive relationship between the length of overseas work experience and the development of cultural intelligence (CQ; Earley & Ang, 2003), while Rockstuhl and Ng (2008) indicated that CQ could impact interpersonal trust.

Even though the majority of respondents in the present study worked with local leaders, the results of the one-way ANOVA and the LSD analysis revealed that the respondents with 1-5 years of overseas work experience reported higher trust in leader scores than the respondents with no overseas experience. It could be interpreted that overseas work experience had an impact on the respondents' perception regarding the global leadership competency of the leader, which can be considered as an ability dimension in trust in leader construct.

3) Overseas work experience and team process effectiveness

The respondents with >10 years of overseas work experience reported higher scores for the perception of team process effectiveness than the respondents with 6-10 years of overseas work experience and it also higher than the respondents with no overseas experience. The finding also indicated that the respondents with <1 year of overseas work experience reported higher scores for the perception of team process effectiveness than the respondents with 6-10 years of overseas work experience. Unfortunately, according to my literature review there were limitations in the research in this area and hence further exploration is required.

5.2.4.2 Work Period with Current Superior

The analysis results indicated that the respondents with a work period with their current superior of 3-4 years reported higher scores for the perception regarding the global leadership competency of their current superior than the respondents with a work period with their current superior of less than 3 years and it was also higher than the respondents with a work period with their current superior greater than 4 years.

According to the literature review on the work period or tenure as demographic data in leadership studies, the work period appeared to be able to influence both the leader's performance and also the perception of the subordinates regarding the leadership in the organizations. Finkelstein and Hambrick (1990) studied a sample of 100 organizations and found that the tenure of the executive team impacted the strategy and performance of organizations as long-tenured teams can influence the persistency and consistency of the organizational strategy and performance. Hambrick and Fukutomi (1991) proposed that there are five "seasons" in a CEO's tenure: 1) response to mandates (developing knowledge and legitimacy, following the directions from the board or predecessors); 2) experimentation (after gaining sufficient creditability, the person begins to have a creative impact); 3) choice of an enduring theme (having a CEO archetype); 4) convergence (action for incremental changes); and 4) dysfunction (openness and responsiveness may decrease). Luo, Kanori, and Andrews (2013) studied the work of Hambrick and Fukutomi and others regarding the tenure of the CEO, and the authors pointed out that there were limited studies on the influence of the CEO's tenure on the organization's performance. Luo et al. (2013) stated further that

performance can vary depending on the CEO's "life cycle" in the organization and it could be both positive and negative. The authors explained further that during the initial period, the leaders could focus on learning, and during the middle period they could focus on driving new initiatives and strategies to perform better, while a longer term would cause a certain degree of status quo. Regarding the perspectives of subordinates, Epitropaki and Martin (2004) pointed out that employees' tenure and experience (work period) with leaders could result in different concepts of leadership in organizations.

In the present study, the findings from the one-way ANOVA analysis indicated that the respondents with a work period with their current superior of 3-4 years reported a higher perception of the global leadership competencies of their leader than those with a shorter or longer work period with their current superior. This results appear to align with the above literature and also with the findings from Luo et al.'s (2013) study, which indicated that leaders tend to reach maturity of performance during the middle work period. This finding may be able to explain, from the employees' point of view, that people take a certain period of time to understand and recognize the overall leadership style of their leaders.

5.3 Implications and Recommendations

The findings in this research provide significant implications for both academic and practice perspectives in the HRD field. First, this section provides academic implications from the findings, and then practical implications and recommendations for practitioners (e.g. HR professional, management team) are provided.

5.3.1 Academic Implications of the Findings

This research contributes to the HRD field as follows.

1) The study addresses the research gaps regarding global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness. Based on the literature review process, some of the research pointed out leadership as an antecedent of trust in leader (Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Van, 2011), leadership as a crucial factor in team performance (Day et al., 2006; LaFasto & Larson, 2001; Northhouse, 2004; Zaccaro,

Rittman, & Marks, 2001), and trust in leader as a critical factor in team performance (Agyris, 1964; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Likert, 1967; McGregor, 1967; Zand, 1972). However, there has been very limited research exploring these three specific key variables in the HRD field. Hence, the present study can provide empirical information on global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness in order to enhance the knowledge base in the HRD field.

2) This study contributes to the modification and validation of the instruments regarding global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness for the HRD field. Three standard measurements on global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness were reviewed and modified to fit the context (e.g. examples, length of questionnaire) of this research. The validity and reliability of the modified measurement were ensured through content validity checking, pilot study, and also a construct validity test using factor analysis (EFA and CFA). The measurements were developed in both the English and Thai languages with appropriate translation and back translation by professional translators.

5.3.2 Practical Implications of the Findings and Recommendations

The findings from this research contribute key implications for practitioners as follows.

1) Global leadership competency can enhance trust in leader based on the results of both the correlation and SEM analysis. The findings also indicated that among the many dimensions of global leadership competency, leading change (challenges the system when change is needed, thrives in ambiguous situations, encourages creativity in others), achieving personal mastery (demonstrates self-confidence as a leader, demonstrates effective emotional responses in a variety of situations, involves people that have strengths that he/she does not possess), and encouraging constructive dialogue (accepts constructive feedback in a positive manner, strives to understand the other person's frame of reference, encourages people to challenge the status quo) were top three dimensions that correlated with trust in leader. Hence, practitioners can apply these findings to assessment centers as information for hiring decisions or for identifying competency gaps regarding leadership competency development in order to enhance the antecedents of trust in leader of organizations.

2) Global leadership competency can build up team process effectiveness based on the results of both the correlation and SEM analysis. The top three dimensions of global leadership competency with moderate correlations with team process effectiveness were maintaining a competitive advantage (holds people accountable for their results, successfully eliminates waste, provides products/services that help the company have a clear competitive advantage), developing others (asks people what they need to do their work better, ensures that people receive the training they need to succeed, provides developmental feedback in a timely manner), and creating a shared vision (inspires people to commit to achieving the vision, develops an effective strategy to achieve the vision, clearly identifies priorities). Hence, practitioners can apply these findings to assessment centers as information for hiring decisions, designing leadership training programs, as well as identify competency gaps regarding leadership competency development in order to enhance team process effectiveness in the workplace.

3) Trust in leader can be a part of the factors that enhance team process effectiveness based on the results of both the correlation and SEM analysis. The finding that the ability of the leader had the lowest correlation, while the benevolence of the leader showed the highest correlation with team process effectiveness, was interesting. This could be fruitful information for both local and expatriate leaders to manage teams within the Thai context, as national culture can influence people's expectations of their leaders. From the researcher's perspective, the leader's ability can gain employees' recognition, admiration, and development while the leader's benevolence can win their hearts, which can drive people to go beyond job descriptions and KPIs. Benevolence is one way to prove that leaders care and manage on reward and recognition for employees through real actions (as a part of transactional leadership), hence the employees can observed and appreciate benevolent leaders.

4) Overseas work experience appears to be a significant variable that can influence the perception of individuals regarding leadership and teams in organizations. As this variable also is well recognized as an importance factor in the cross-cultural adjustment process and global leadership development, practitioners can apply this knowledge to the management of overseas work assignments and/or hosting or hiring expatriates to work in organizations to enhance cross-cultural adjustment and

also leadership development. For instance, the findings in this study revealed that 1-5 years of overseas experience perceived the global leadership competency of the leader higher than none of overseas experience. Hence investment in overseas work assignments and/or hosting expatriates in place for 1-5 years could be an effective investment in cross cultural adjustment and leadership development.

5.4 Limitations of This Research

As mentioned, the extant studies on these three variables were found to be limited. Even though there have been research studies on leadership and trust in leader or team process effectiveness, the specific types of research on the causal relationships among global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness appear to be very limited. Hence it was difficult to provide literature support for some of the findings in this study. For example, the data showed that the different mean scores for global leadership competency and trust in leader among the different education levels were significant statistically but there is no relevant literature on this variable to date.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Research

It is crucial for future research to explore further the impact of global leadership competency and/or trust in leader on the completion of team effectiveness, which includes productive output or the performance of the team. As mentioned in first chapter of this research, MNCs have played a key role in economic development worldwide and have retained their growth in Thailand. The impact of global leadership competency and trust in leader on team process effectiveness could be recognized and useful only in the academic world if there were no empirical proof of the tangible outcomes for practitioners (especially the senior management team or shareholders). Hence future studies should focus more on the impact of global leadership competency and trust in leader on team performance, which can influence organizational results.

One of the key findings from this study on the causal relationship between trust in leader and team process effectiveness was also very fascinating. It would be

interesting to explore further how the benevolence dimension plays a critical role regarding team process effectiveness in the Thai context. There were also interesting findings from the ANOVA and LSD analysis of the demographic variables; overseas work experience influenced the perception of global leadership competency and also trust in leader, while the work period with one's current superior could also impacted how the respondents perceived the global leadership competency of their leaders. Future research can possibly explore these findings in more detail and this could help the HRD field gain greater insight into leadership competency, trust in leader, and team effectiveness.

5.6 Conclusion

First, the correlation between global leadership competency and trust in leader was high, especially leadership competency for leading change, achieving personal mastery, and encouraging constructive dialogue. The impact of global leadership competency on trust in leader was also high statistically, meaning that enhancing global leadership competency can increase the level of employees' trust in leader significantly.

Second, the global leadership competency revealed a moderate correlation with team process effectiveness, especially the competency for maintaining a competitive advantage, developing others, and creating a shared vision. There was also a moderate degree of impact of global leadership competency on team process effectiveness. This means that the development of global leadership competency can enhance to a certain degree the team effectiveness in organizations.

Lastly, there was a moderate correlation between trust in leader and team process effectiveness. The benevolence dimension of trust in leader revealed the highest correlation with team process effectiveness; nevertheless, the correlation level was moderate. Interestingly, the ability dimension of trust in leader showed the lowest correlation with team process effectiveness at a low correlation level. This is fascinating for future research in the context of Thailand in terms of whether the benevolence of the leader can impact team effectiveness more than the leader's ability. Trust in leader also was seen to have an impact on team process effectiveness statistically; nevertheless, the degree of impact was small.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Rational of Questions Selection (Adaptation of Standard Instruments)

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory

Original	Rationale for Excluding/Adjusment
Dimension 1 Thinking Globally	
1. Recognizes the impact of globalization on our business	
2. Demonstrates the adaptability required to succeed in a global environment	
3. Strives to gain the variety of experiences needed to conduct global business	Note: I deleted this item because 1. Subordinates (respondents) may not know details on how superior gain experience 2. Gaining experiences are also depends on organizational support e.g. budget which individual cannot control by himself
4. Makes decisions that incorporate global considerations	
5. Helps others understand the impact of globalization	Note: I deleted this item because it seems not possible for most of subordinates to observe/experience how their superior do that
Dimension 2 Appreciating Diversity	Exclude this Dimension as some departments have only local manager & employees
1. Embraces the value of diversity in people (including culture, race, sex or age)	
2. Effectively motivates people from different cultures or backgrounds	
3. Recognizes the value of diverse views and opinions	
4. Helps others appreciate the value of diversity	
5. Actively expands her/his knowledge of other cultures (through interactions, language study, travel, etc.)	
Dimension 3 Developing Technological Savvy	Exclude this Dimension as company is not technological base organization yet but rather labor intensive and "semi-automation" that include both people and robot in some production lines.
1. Strives to acquire the technological knowledge needed to succeed in tomorrow's world	
2. Successfully recruits people with needed technological expertise	
3. Effectively manages the use of technology to increase productivity	
Dimension 4 Building Partnerships	
1. Treats co-workers as partners, not competitors	Note: I deleted this item because the respondent is subordinates not co-workers/partner so they may not be able to observe/experience on this
2. Unites his/her organization into an effective team	Note: I deleted this item because this question could be too board/complicate for some respondents e.g. production staffs to observe/experience/understand
3. Builds effective partnerships across the company	
4. Discourages destructive comments about other people or groups	
5. Builds effective alliances with other organizations	Note: I deleted this item because this question could be too board/complicate for some respondents e.g. production staffs to observe/experience/understand
6. Creates a network of relationship that help to get things done	
Dimension 5 Sharing Leadership	
1. Willingly shares leadership with business partners	Note: I deleted this item because the respondent is subordinates not co-workers/partner so they may not be able to observe/experience on this
2. Defers to others when they have more expertise	
3. Strives to arrive at an outcome with others (as opposed to for others)	
4. Creates an environment where people focus on the larger good (avoids sub-optimization or “turfism”)	Note: I modified example for clarification (easier to understand) "Creates an environment where people focus on the larger good (e.g. focus on company’s ultimate goal more than department’s goals"
Dimension 6 Creating a Shared Vision	
1. Creates and communicates a clear vision for our organization	Note: I deleted this item because superiors of respondents are not top management so they are not involve creating organization’s vision
2. Effectively involves people in decision-making	Note: I deleted this item because it is unclear how “involving people in decision making” related to “creating shared vision
3. Inspires people to commit to achieving the vision	
4. Develops an effective strategy to achieve the vision	
5. Clearly identifies priorities	
Dimension 7 Developing People	
1. Consistently treats people with respect and dignity	Note: I deleted this item because it is unclear how “treats people with respect and dignity” related to “developing people”
2. Asks people what they need to do their work better	
3. Ensures that people receive the training they need to succeed	
4. Provides effective coaching	Note: Ajarn Gary - Cut item 4 - it is very similar to item 5, and employees may not understand coaching.
5. Provides developmental feedback in a timely manner	
6. Provides effective recognition for others' achievements	Note: Ajarn Gary - Cut and the reason is that “effective recognition” would be vary from one person to another

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

Original	Rationale for Excluding/Adjusment
Dimension 8 Empowering People	
1. Builds people's confidence	Note: Ajarn Gary - Cut item 1 - I don't see what it has to do with empowerment
2. Takes risks in letting others make decisions	
3. Gives people the freedom they need to do their job well	
4. Trusts people enough to let go (avoids micro-management)	
Dimension 9 Achieving Personal Mastery	
1. Deeply understands her/his own strengths and weaknesses	Note: I deleted this item because the respondent is subordinates so they may not be able to observe/experience on this
2. Invests in ongoing personal development	Note: I deleted this item because the respondent is subordinates so they may not be able to observe/experience on this
3. Involves people who have strengths that he/she does not possess	
4. Demonstrates effective emotional responses in a variety of situations	
5. Demonstrates self-confidence as a leader	
Dimension 10 Encouraging Constructive Dialogue	
1. Asks people what he/she can do to improve	Note: Ajarn Gary - Cut item 1 - this has to do with personal mastery, not Constructive Dialogue
2. Genuinely listens to others	Note: Cut and the reason is that “genuinely listen” would be vary from one person to another
3. Accepts constructive feedback in a positive manner (avoids defensiveness)	
4. Strives to understand the other person's frame of reference	
5. Encourages people to challenge the status quo	
Dimension 11 Demonstrates Integrity	Note: Ajarn Gary -This whole section is covered in your other instrument (Trust in leader) – so this is duplicative. Omit the whole section
1. Demonstrates honest, ethical behavior in all interactions	
2. Ensures that the highest standards for ethical behavior are practiced throughout the organization	
3. Avoids political or self-serving behavior	
4. Courageously "stands up" for what she/he believes in	
5. Is a role model for living our organization's values (leads by example)	
Dimension 12 Leading Change	
1. Sees change as an opportunity, not a problem	Note: I deleted this item because the respondent is subordinates so they may not be able to observe/experience on this
2. Challenges the system when change is needed	
3. Thrives in ambiguous situations (demonstrates flexibility when needed)	
4. Encourages creativity and innovation in others	Note: Ajarn Gary - Remove "and innovation" - first, you can't have two concepts in one item; second, innovation is an organizational characteristic, not an individual one
5. Effectively translates creative ideas into business results	Note: Ajarn Gary - Cut - it's not necessarily the job of the leader to do the translation
Dimension 13 Anticipating Opportunities	Exclude this Dimension as we are manufacturing base not commercial base so most of departments are not dealing with anticipating opportunities but more on productivity & efficiency
1. Invests in learning about future trends	
2. Effectively anticipates future opportunities	
3. Inspires people to focus on future opportunities (not just present objectives)	
4. Develops ideas to meet the needs of the new environment	
Dimension 14 Ensuring Customer Satisfaction	Exclude this Dimension as we are manufacturing base not commercial base so most of departments are not dealing with external customer while “internal customer” could be difficult for some production employees to understand
1. Inspires people to achieve high levels of customer satisfaction	
2. Views business processes from the ultimate customer perspective (has an “end to end” perspective.	
3. Regularly solicits input from customers	
4. Consistently delivers on commitments to customers	
5. Understands the competitive options available to her/his customers	
Dimension 15 Maintaining a Competitive Advantage	
1. Communicates a positive, “can do” sense of urgency toward getting the job done	Note: Cut this item because there is slang in it "can do"
2. Holds people accountable for their results	
3. Successfully eliminates waste and unneeded cost	Note: Ajarn Gary - has an "and" in it - so you will need to get rid of one of the concepts. (I deleted "and uneeded cost)
4. Provides products/services that help our company have a clear competitive advantage	
5. Achieves results that lead to long-term shareholder value	Note: I deleted this items because this question could be too board/complicate for some respondents e.g. production staffs to observe/experience/understand

2. Trust in Leader Inventory

Original	Rationale for Excluding/Adjusment
Dimension 1 Ability	
1. My supervisor is very capable of performing his or her job	Note: I deleted item 2,4,6 because 1. Other questions are cover knowledge, skills and competencies already 2. Term of "qualify" could be too board/complicate for some respondents e.g. production staffs to observe/experience/understand
2. My supervisor is known to be successful at all things he tries to do	
3. My supervisor has much knowledge about the work that needs to be done	
4. I feel very confidence about my supervisor's skills	
5. My supervisor has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance	
6. My supervisor is well qualified	
Dimension 2 Benevolence	
1. My supervisor is concerned about my welfare	
2. My needs and desires are very important to my supervisor	Note: I deleted this item because "needs and desires" could be different from one person to another (e.g. personal needs)
3. My supervisor would not knowingly do anything to hurt me	Note: I deleted this item because it is similar to no.5 however no.5 appears to be more specific and relate more in organizational context.
4. My supervisor really looks out for what is important to me	
5. My supervisor is willing to go out of his/her way to help me	
Dimension 3 Integrity	
1. I never have to wonder whether my supervisor will stick to his/her words	
2. I like my supervisor's values	Note: I deleted this item because "values" are vague and subject to interpretation moreover some values may not clearly link to "integrity" e.g. gratitude
3. Sound principles seem to guide my supervisor's behavior	Note: I deleted this item because "sound principle" could be too board/complicate for some respondents e.g. production staffs to observe/experience/understand
4. My supervisor always tell me the truth	Note: I deleted this item because it seems impossible for everyone to ensure whether the information we heard is the truth or not so people may feel hesitate to answer this question
5. My supervisor deals honestly with me	
6. My supervisor has a strong sense of justice	

3. Team Effectiveness (Process Criteria) Inventory

Original	Rationale for Excluding/Adjusment
Dimension 1 Effort	
1. Member demonstrate their commitment to our team by putting in extra effort to help it success	Note: Adjusted from original version "Members demonstrate their commitment to our team by putting in extra time and effort to help it succeeds." This one is adjusted by Dr.Gary (eliminated 2 concepts "time and effort")
2. Everyone on this team is highly motivated to have the team succeed	
3. Members of our team carry their fair share of the overall workload	Note: Adjusted from original version "Some members of our team do not carry their fair share of the overall workload" (Negative)
Dimension 2 Performance strategy	
1. Our team often comes up with innovative ways of proceeding with the work that turn out to be just what is needed	
2. Our team notices changes that may occur in our situation to adapt our work process or methods to fit with the changes	Note: Adjusted from original version "Our team often falls into mindless routines, without noticing any changes that may have occurred in our situation" (Negative)
3. Our team does not have difficulty in carrying out the plans we make for how we will proceed with the task	Note: Adjusted from original version "Our team has a great deal of difficulty actually carrying out the plans we make for how we will proceed with the task" (Negative)
Dimension 3 Knowledge and skill	
1. How seriously a member's ideas are taken by others on our team depends more on how much he or she knows than on who the person is	Note: Adjusted from original version "How seriously a member's ideas are taken by others on our team often depends more on who the person is than on how much he or she actually knows" (Negative)
2. Members of our team actively share their special knowledge with one another	Note: Adjusted from original version "Members of our team actively share their special knowledge and expertise with one another". This one is adjusted by Dr.Gary (eliminated 2 concepts "knowledge and expertise")
3. Our team is quite skilled at capturing the lessons that can be learned from our work experiences	

APPENDIX B

Pilot Test Reliability Analysis

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev.	N of Variables
SCALE	111.7400	804.2780	28.3598	30

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LE_Q1C1	107.8600	766.1637	.6414	.9828
LE_Q2C1	108.0200	751.9384	.7432	.9824
LE_Q3C1	107.9800	748.0608	.7557	.9824
LE_Q4C2	108.1400	744.9392	.7866	.9823

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LE_Q5C2	107.9600	758.8963	.7206	.9825
LE_Q6C2	107.8800	747.7404	.8072	.9821
LE_Q7C3	107.8600	758.0412	.7863	.9822
LE_Q8C3	107.9600	747.9167	.8494	.9819
LE_Q9C3	108.1600	750.0963	.7928	.9822
LE_Q10C4	108.1600	743.4433	.8600	.9819
LE_Q11C4	108.1600	745.8922	.8713	.9818
LE_Q12C4	108.0800	751.4220	.8569	.9819
LE_Q13C5	108.1000	749.4388	.8589	.9819
LE_Q14C5	108.1800	748.1506	.8106	.9821
LE_Q15C5	108.2200	751.7261	.8573	.9819
LE_Q16C6	108.0000	755.3061	.7612	.9823
LE_Q17C6	107.7800	750.8282	.8197	.9821
LE_Q18C6	107.9000	751.8469	.7857	.9822
LE_Q19C7	107.9200	757.8710	.7592	.9823
LE_Q20C7	108.1400	749.5106	.7595	.9824

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LE_Q21C7	107.8800	744.7608	.7890	.9822
LE_Q22C8	107.8000	746.4898	.8452	.9819
LE_Q23C8	108.1200	748.9241	.8656	.9819
LE_Q24C8	107.9200	756.5649	.8284	.9821
LE_Q25C9	108.0000	760.4490	.7556	.9823
LE_Q26C9	107.9600	748.6922	.8932	.9818
LE_Q27C9	108.0000	745.6735	.9061	.9817
LEQ28C10	107.9000	764.1327	.7102	.9825
LEQ29C10	108.1800	762.9669	.8296	.9821
LEQ30C10	108.2400	752.1453	.8499	.9819

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 30

Alpha = .9827

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 1 Thinking Globally (Selected 3 items)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev.	N of Variables
SCALE	11.3600	10.9698	3.3121	3

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LE_Q1C1	7.4800	6.1731	.7159	.9341
LE_Q2C1	7.6400	4.6841	.8775	.7940
LE_Q3C1	7.6000	4.4898	.8491	.8240

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .9015

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 4 Building Partnerships (Selected 3 items)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev.	N of Variables
SCALE	11.2400	11.0433	3.3231	3

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LE_Q4C2	7.6400	4.8065	.7557	.8400
LE_Q5C2	7.4600	5.8453	.7368	.8547
LE_Q6C2	7.3800	4.9751	.8129	.7810

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .8774

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 5 Sharing Leadership (Selected 3 items)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev.	N of Variables
SCALE	11.2400	9.1249	3.0207	3

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LE_Q7C3	7.3600	5.1331	.6147	.8807
LE_Q8C3	7.4600	3.9269	.8101	.6960
LE_Q9C3	7.6600	4.0249	.7448	.7642

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .8490

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 6 Creating a Shared Vision (Selected 3 items)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev.	N of Variables
SCALE	10.8200	11.5384	3.3968	3

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LE_Q10C4	7.2400	4.8800	.9072	.9177
LE_Q11C4	7.2400	5.0433	.9419	.8880
LE_Q12C4	7.1600	5.8514	.8420	.9651

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .9493

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 7 Developing People (Selected 3 items)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LE_Q13C5	7.0800	4.8098	.8781	.8730
LE_Q14C5	7.1600	4.4229	.8787	.8741
LE_Q15C5	7.2000	5.2653	.8043	.9315

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .9272

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 8 Empowering People (Selected 3 items)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LE_Q16C6	7.8000	5.0612	.8391	.9142
LE_Q17C6	7.5800	4.8200	.8829	.8793
LE_Q18C6	7.7000	4.8265	.8519	.9045

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .9307

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 9 Achieving Personal Mastery (Selected 3 items)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LE_Q19C7	7.4600	5.9269	.6363	.8429
LE_Q20C7	7.6800	4.5894	.7724	.7069
LE_Q21C7	7.4200	4.5343	.7218	.7633

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .8398

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 10 Encouraging Constructive Dialogue (Selected 3 items)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LE_Q22C8	7.4400	4.2106	.8756	.8837
LE_Q23C8	7.7600	4.4310	.9045	.8559
LE_Q24C8	7.5600	5.2718	.7989	.9424

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .9290

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 12 Leading Change (Selected 3 items)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LE_Q25C9	7.5200	4.8669	.8000	.9416
LE_Q26C9	7.4800	4.2139	.8966	.8644
LE_Q27C9	7.5200	4.0914	.8785	.8807

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .9296

1. Global Leadership Competencies Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 15 Maintaining a Competitive Advantage (Selected 3 items)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LEQ28C10	7.0600	3.3637	.6303	.8251
LEQ29C10	7.3400	3.4535	.7386	.7328
LEQ30C10	7.4000	2.8163	.7234	.7386

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .8314

2. Trust in Leader Inventory

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev.	N of Variables
SCALE	33.5400	107.6004	10.3731	9

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
TR_Q31C1	29.7000	84.7041	.9125	.9692
TR_Q32C1	29.7000	86.9082	.8457	.9720
TR_Q33C1	29.9200	85.9118	.8359	.9724
TR_Q34C2	29.7600	85.2882	.8854	.9703
TR_Q35C2	30.0400	84.0800	.8928	.9700
TR_Q36C2	29.8200	84.5180	.9125	.9692
TR_Q37C3	30.0000	85.1020	.8350	.9726
TR_Q38C3	29.6800	85.6098	.9147	.9692
TR_Q39C3	29.7000	85.5612	.9267	.9687

2. Trust in Leader Inventory (Continued)

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 9

Alpha = .9736

Dimension 1 Ability Reliability score is 0.85 – 0.91 (according to researches)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
TR_Q31C1	7.4600	5.8045	.9068	.9136
TR_Q32C1	7.4600	6.0086	.9136	.9097
TR_Q33C1	7.6800	5.8955	.8583	.9515

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .9487

2. Trust in Leader Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 2 Benevolence Reliability score is 0.87 – 0.92 (according to researches)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
TR_Q34C2	7.2200	6.4200	.8931	.9409
TR_Q35C2	7.5000	5.9286	.9368	.9077
TR_Q36C2	7.2800	6.4098	.8823	.9488

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .9544

2. Trust in Leader Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 3 Integrity Reliability score is 0.82 – 0.90 (according to researches)

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
TR_Q37C3	7.7000	5.6837	.8418	.9749
TR_Q38C3	7.3800	5.9139	.9321	.9016
TR_Q39C3	7.4000	6.0000	.9238	.9086

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .9506

3. Team Effectiveness (Process Criteria) Inventory

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev.	N of Variables
SCALE	32.5800	60.6567	7.7882	9

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
EF_Q40C1	28.6000	52.7755	.5468	.9389
EF_Q41C1	28.7600	48.7167	.7619	.9278
EF_Q42C1	29.1400	49.7555	.6746	.9328
EF_Q43C2	29.2000	47.5510	.8133	.9247
EF_Q44C2	29.1000	47.3163	.7619	.9279
EF_Q45C2	29.3600	47.8269	.7855	.9264
EF_Q46C3	29.0000	46.8980	.8255	.9239
EF_Q47C3	28.8200	46.7629	.8121	.9247
EF_Q48C3	28.6600	47.2086	.8230	.9241

3. Team Effectiveness (Process Criteria) Inventory (Continued)

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 9

Alpha = .9356

Dimension 1 Effort Reliability score is 0.92

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
EF_Q40C1	7.2600	3.5841	.5954	.8190
EF_Q41C1	7.4200	2.8608	.7162	.6974
EF_Q42C1	7.8000	2.8571	.7057	.7091

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .8165

3. Team Effectiveness (Process Criteria) Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 2 Performance strategy Reliability score is 0.90

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
EF_Q43C2	6.7000	4.3776	.8932	.8712
EF_Q44C2	6.6000	4.1633	.8597	.8984
EF_Q45C2	6.8600	4.5718	.8220	.9263

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .9304

3. Team Effectiveness (Process Criteria) Inventory (Continued)

Dimension 3 Knowledge and skill Reliability score is 0.89

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
EF_Q46C3	7.6800	4.5894	.7589	.9256
EF_Q47C3	7.5000	4.1735	.8538	.8473
EF_Q48C3	7.3400	4.3514	.8599	.8434

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 50.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .9119

APPENDIX C

Informed Consent Form (English Version)

The impact of global leadership competency and
trust in leader on team process effectiveness

Natcha (Yui) Niljaeng
The National Institute of Development Administration, Thailand

E-mail: laderyui@gmail.com

This proposal is seeking your participation in a study on the impact of global leadership competencies and trust in leaders on team process effectiveness.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the impact of global leadership competency and trust in leader on team process effectiveness in order to develop a broader knowledge of HRD. Ultimately, the objective of this study is to identify appropriate HRD interventions to help organizations enhance leadership and organizational performance.

Research Design and Details

This study will be conducted using a 30 minutes paper-based or web-based survey. The survey will ask you to respond to four parts, including: 1) global leadership competencies; 2) trust in leaders; 3) team process effectiveness; and 4) participants' information

Procedures

You will be asked to fill out the survey. The first part asks you to evaluate your current direct supervisor's competency by using the following scale in responding to each item (total 30 items). The second part asks you to share your opinion toward current direct superior by using the scale in responding to each item (total 9 items). The third part asks you to share your opinion toward your current team by using the scale in responding to each item (total 9 items). The final part asks you to indicate background information about yourself, such as gender, nationality, and so on. There are 13 questions to answer in this survey if you are local hired and 18 questions if you are expatriate.

Risks & Costs

The only risk is if you do not believe that I will honor my commitment to keep your information totally anonymous; no one besides me, however, will see any of the information in a way that will allow identification of any individual.

Individual Benefits

Participants shall have the right to request a general report from the researcher that does not violate anonymity of respondents.

Withdrawal from the Study

Participants may choose to stop participating in this study at any time. Note that management has agreed that participation in the study is voluntary.

Confidentiality

As explained above, all participation will be anonymous. Any publicly available analyses of these data will not identify any individual by name, nor identify the organization.

Questions or Concerns

If you have any questions or concerns about this study or your participation in it, you are free to contact me, Natcha (Yui) Niljaeng at **66 94 659 5990** or e-mail, leaderyui@gmail.com. You may also contact my advisor, Assistant Professor Oranuch Pruetipibultham (Ph.D.), at juedory@gmail.com or 66 81 565 7938. If you would prefer not to contact either of us, **you are encouraged** to contact the Graduate School of Human Resource Development, at hrd@nida.ac.th or 66 2727 3474-79.

Participant's Certification

I have read and I believe I understand this Informed Consent document. I believe I understand the purpose of the research project and what I will be asked to do. I understand that I may stop my participation in this research study at anytime and that I can refuse to answer any question(s). I understand that the researcher and only the researcher will see the results of this research with individuals identified by name. By participating in the survey, I indicate that I have given my informed and free consent to be a participant in this study.

APPENDIX D

Informed Consent Form (Thai Version)

หนังสือแสดงเจตนายินยอมเข้าร่วมในการวิจัย

หัวข้อวิจัย

ผลกระทบของสมรรถนะความเป็นผู้นำระดับสากลและความไว้วางใจในผู้นำ

ที่มีต่อประสิทธิภาพในด้านกระบวนการของทีมงาน

ผู้วิจัย

นางสาวณัชชา นิลแจ้ง (ยุ้ย)

สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์ (นิด้า) ประเทศไทย

อีเมล: leaderyui@gmail.com

หนังสือฉบับนี้จัดทำขึ้นเพื่อขอความกรุณาท่านเข้าร่วมการวิจัยหัวข้อผลกระทบของสมรรถนะ ความเป็นผู้นำระดับสากล และความไว้วางใจในผู้นำที่มีต่อประสิทธิภาพในด้านกระบวนการของทีมงาน

วัตุประสงค์ของการวิจัย

งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาผลกระทบของสมรรถนะความเป็นผู้นำระดับสากลและความไว้วางใจในผู้นำที่มีต่อประสิทธิภาพของทีมงาน เพื่อต่อยอดองค์ความรู้ในสาขาการพัฒนาทรัพยากรมนุษย์ (Human Resource Development : HRD) และช่วยให้สามารถกำหนดมาตรการแทรกแซงเพื่อพัฒนาทรัพยากรมนุษย์ (HRD Intervention) ที่เหมาะสม ซึ่งจะช่วยให้องค์การต่างๆ สามารถพัฒนาภาวะผู้นำและประสิทธิภาพได้ในที่สุด

การออกแบบงานวิจัยและรายละเอียดโดยสังเขป

งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้เก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลโดยใช้แบบสำรวจทั้งแบบเอกสารและแบบออนไลน์ซึ่งใช้เวลาในการตอบแบบสอบถามประมาณ 30 นาที โดยท่านจะต้องตอบคำถาม 4 ส่วน ได้แก่

1) แบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับสมรรถนะความเป็นผู้นำระดับสากล 2) แบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับความไว้วางใจในผู้นำ 3) แบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับประสิทธิภาพของทีมงาน และ 4) แบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับข้อมูลของผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัย

วิธีวิจัย

ผู้วิจัยขอความกรุณาท่านตอบแบบสอบถามดังต่อไปนี้ ในส่วนแรกเป็นแบบสอบถามให้ท่านประเมินสมรรถนะของหัวหน้างานโดยตรง โดยใช้มาตรวัดที่มีคำถามทั้งสิ้น 30 ข้อ ส่วนที่สองเป็นแบบสอบถามให้ท่านแสดงความเห็นที่มีต่อหัวหน้างานโดยตรง โดยใช้มาตรวัดที่มีคำถามทั้งสิ้น 9 ข้อ ส่วนที่สามเป็นแบบสอบถามให้ท่านแสดงความเห็นที่มีต่อทีมที่ท่านทำงานอยู่ในปัจจุบัน โดยใช้มาตรวัดที่มีคำถามทั้งสิ้น 9 ข้อ

และส่วนสุดท้ายเป็นแบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับข้อมูลของท่าน เช่น เพศ สัญชาติ เป็นต้น ทั้งนี้หากท่านเป็นพนักงานท้องถิ่น (local hired) จะมีคำถามที่ต้องตอบทั้งหมด 13 ข้อ และถ้าท่านเป็นพนักงานต่างชาติ (expatriate) จะมีคำถามที่ต้องตอบทั้งหมด 18 ข้อ

ความเสี่ยงและค่าใช้จ่าย

ความเสี่ยงเพียงประการเดียวในการเข้าร่วมวิจัยครั้งนี้คือกรณีที่ท่านไม่เชื่อว่าผู้วิจัยจะรักษาสัตย์ในการเก็บข้อมูลทุกอย่างเป็นความลับ และไม่มีผู้อื่นใดนอกจากผู้วิจัยที่จะสามารถเห็นข้อมูลซึ่งสามารถระบุตัวตนของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามได้ การเข้าร่วมการวิจัยครั้งนี้ไม่มีค่าใช้จ่ายใดๆ ทั้งสิ้น

ประโยชน์สำหรับผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัย

ผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยมีสิทธิ์ขอดูรายงานสรุปจากงานวิจัยครั้งนี้ ตราบเท่าที่ข้อมูลในรายงานไม่ละเมิดสิทธิ์ในความเป็นส่วนตัวของผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยท่านอื่นๆ

การถอนตัวจากการเข้าร่วมการวิจัย

ผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยมีสิทธิ์ถอนตัวออกจากการวิจัยครั้งนี้ได้ทุกเมื่อ ผู้วิจัยขอเรียนให้ท่านทราบอีกครั้งว่าผู้บริหารตกลงยินยอมให้ท่านเข้าร่วมการวิจัยได้โดยความสมัครใจ

การรักษาข้อมูลเป็นความลับ

ตามที่ได้ชี้แจงไปข้างต้น ข้อมูลของผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยทุกท่านจะถูกเก็บไว้เป็นความลับ ส่วนผลวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลจากงานวิจัยซึ่งอาจมีการนำไปเปิดเผยต่อสาธารณะจะไม่มีการนำเสนอเป็นรายบุคคล แต่จะรายงานผลการวิจัยเป็นข้อมูลส่วนรวม โดยไม่มีการเปิดเผยชื่อและองค์การของผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัย

ข้อสงสัยหรือข้อข้องใจ

หากท่านมีข้อสงสัยหรือข้อข้องใจเกี่ยวกับการวิจัยหรือการมีส่วนร่วมในการวิจัยครั้งนี้ ท่านสามารถติดต่อข้าพเจ้า นางสาวณัชชา นิลแจ้ง (ยุ้ย) ได้ที่เบอร์โทรศัพท์ 094-6595990 หรือที่อีเมล leaderyui@gmail.com นอกจากนี้ท่านยังสามารถติดต่อ ผศ. ดร. *อรนุช* พฤฒิพิบูลธรรม ที่ปรึกษางานวิจัยของข้าพเจ้า ได้ที่เบอร์โทรศัพท์ 081-5657938 หรือที่อีเมล juedory@gmail.com ในกรณีที่ท่านไม่ประสงค์จะติดต่อผู้วิจัยและที่ปรึกษางานวิจัยโดยตรง ท่านสามารถติดต่อคณะพัฒนาทรัพยากรมนุษย์ได้ที่เบอร์โทรศัพท์ 02-7273474-79 หรือที่อีเมล hrd@nida.ac.th

คำรับรองจากผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัย

ข้าพเจ้าได้อ่านข้อความข้างต้นและเข้าใจข้อความในหนังสือแสดงเจตนายินยอมเข้าร่วมการวิจัยฉบับนี้เป็นอย่างดี รวมถึงวัตถุประสงค์และสิ่งที่ผู้วิจัยร้องขอให้ข้าพเจ้าทำ ข้าพเจ้าเข้าใจว่าตนเองสามารถถอนตัวออกจากการมีส่วนร่วมในการวิจัยครั้งนี้ได้ทุกเมื่อ และมีสิทธิ์ปฏิเสธที่จะตอบคำถามข้อหนึ่งข้อใดหรือหลายข้อ ข้าพเจ้าเข้าใจว่ามีเพียงผู้วิจัยเท่านั้นที่จะสามารถเห็นผลของงานวิจัยฉบับนี้และชื่อของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามได้ ข้าพเจ้าขอรับรองว่าข้าพเจ้าเข้าร่วมการวิจัยครั้งนี้ด้วยความสมัครใจโดยการยินยอมตอบแบบสอบถามในงานวิจัยฉบับนี้

APPENDIX E

Final Questionnaire (English Version)

Please answer the following questions

Part 1: Global Leadership Competencies

Instructions: Please evaluate your current direct supervisor's competency by using the following scale in responding to each item:

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Highly Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Highly Satisfied

Item	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1.1 Recognizes the impact of globalization on our business					
1. 2 Demonstrates the adaptability required to succeed in a global environment					
1.3 Makes decisions that incorporate global considerations					
1.4 Builds effective partnerships across the company					
1. 5 Discourages destructive comments about other people or groups					
1. 6 Creates a network of relationship that helps to get things done					
1.7 Defers to others when they have more expertise					
1.8 Strives to arrive at an outcome with others (partnership)					

Item	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1.9 Creates an environment where people focus on the larger good (e.g. focus on company's ultimate goal more than department's goals)					
1.10 Inspires people to commit to achieving the vision					
1.11 Develops an effective strategy to achieve the vision					
1.12 Clearly identifies priorities					
1.13 Asks people what they need to do their work better					
1. 14 Ensures that people receive the training they need to succeed					
1.15 Provides developmental feedback in a timely manner					
1.16 Takes risks in letting others make decisions					
1.17 Gives people the freedom they need to do their job well					
1. 18 Trusts people enough to let go by avoiding micro-management					
1. 19 Involves people who have strengths that he/ she does not possess					
1. 20 Demonstrates effective emotional responses in a variety of situations					
1.21 Demonstrates self-confidence as a leader					
1.22 Accepts constructive feedback in a positive manner					
1.23 Strives to understand the other person's frame of reference					
1.24 Encourages people to challenge the status quo					
1.25 Challenges the system when change is needed					
1. 26 Thrives in ambiguous situations (e. g. demonstrates flexibility when needed)					
1.27 Encourages creativity in others					
1.28 Holds people accountable for their results					
1.29 Successfully eliminates waste					

Item	1	2	3	4	5
1.30 Provides products/services that help our company have a clear competitive advantage					

Part 2: Trust in Leader

Instructions: Please share your opinion toward current direct superior by using the following scale in responding to each item:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

Item	1	2	3	4	5
2.1 My supervisor is very capable of performing his or her job					
2. 2 My supervisor has much knowledge about the work that needs to be done					
2.3 My supervisor has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance					
2.4 My supervisor is concerned about my welfare					
2.5 My supervisor really looks out for what is important to me					
2. 6 My supervisor is willing to go out of his/ her way to help me					
2.7 I never have to wonder whether my supervisor will stick to his/her words					
2.8 My supervisor deals honestly with me					
2.9 My supervisor has a strong sense of justice					

Part 3: Team Process Effectiveness

Instructions: Please share your opinion toward current team by using the following scale in responding to each item:

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Very inaccurate	Somewhat inaccurate	Neither accurate nor inaccurate	Somewhat accurate	Very accurate

Item	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3. 1 Member demonstrate their commitment to our team by putting in extra effort to help it success					
3.2 Everyone on this team is highly motivated to have the team succeed					
3. 3 Members of our team carry their fair share of the overall workload					
3. 4 Our team often comes up with innovative ways of proceeding with the work that turn out to be just what is needed					
3. 5 Our team notices changes that may occur in our situation to adapt our work process or methods to fit with the changes					
3.6 Our team does not have difficulty in carrying out the plans we make for how we will proceed with the task					
3.7 How seriously a member's ideas are taken by others on our team depends more on how much he or she knows than on who the person is					
3. 8 Members of our team actively share their special knowledge and expertise with one another					
3. 9 Our team is quite skilled at capturing the lessons that can be learned from our work experiences					

Part 4: Participant Information

Part 4.1 For all participants

1. What is your gender?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

2. How old are you?

- ☐ 30 or younger
- ☐ 31-40 years
- ☐ 41-50 years
- ☐ 51 or older

3. What is your highest level of education?

- ☐ Below high school
- ☐ High school/Vocational
- ☐ High Vocational
- ☐ Bachelor’s
- ☐ Master’s
- ☐ Higher than master’s

4. What is your nationality?

- ☐ Thai
- ☐ British
- ☐ American
- ☐ Other: please identify_____

5. How many years of experience did you have as a student aboard?

- ☐ None
- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☐ 1-2 year(s)
- ☐ 3-4 years
- ☐ More than 4 years

6. How many years of experience do/did you have as an expatriate?

- ☐ None
- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☐ 1-5 year(s)
- ☐ 6-10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

7. How long have you worked with your current company?

- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☐ 1-5 year(s)
- ☐ 6-10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

8. What is your current position?

- ☐ Higher than senior manager
- ☐ Senior manager
- ☐ Manager
- ☐ Assistant manager
- ☐ Supervisor
- ☐ Staff

9. Have you taken a TOEIC, TOEFL (Internet Base Test), and/or IELTS before?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Yes

10. If your answer for question 9 is yes, what was the latest score that you got?

TOEIC score _____

TOEFL (paper base) score _____

TOEFL (internet base) score _____

IELTS score _____

11. What is your current supervisor's nationality?

- ☐ Thai
- ☐ British
- ☐ American
- ☐ Other: please identify _____

12. What is your current direct supervisor's position?

- ☐ Higher than senior manager
- ☐ Senior manager
- ☐ Manager
- ☐ Assistant manager
- ☐ Supervisor

13. How long have you worked with your current direct supervisor?

- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☐ 1-2 year(s)
- ☐ 3-4 years
- ☐ More than 4 years

Part 4.2 For expatriate only

14. How long have you been working in the current country?

- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☐ 1-2 year(s)
- ☐ 3-4 years
- ☐ More than 4 years

15. Did you receive cultural training from the company prior to your departure to the current location or within the first year in the current location?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

16. If your answer for question 15 is yes, how many hours of cultural training did you obtain from the company?

- ☐ Less than 6 hours
- ☐ 6-12 hours
- ☐ 13-20 hours
- ☐ More than 20 hours

17. Did you receive any local language training from the company prior to your departure to the current location or within the first year in the current location?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

18. If your answer for question 17 is yes, how many hours of local language training did you obtain from the company?

- ☐ Less than 30 hours
- ☐ 30-60 hours
- ☐ More than 60 hours

APPENDIX F

Final Questionnaire (Thai Version)

กรุณาตอบแบบสอบถามดังต่อไปนี้

ส่วนที่ 1 : มาตรวัดสมรรถนะความเป็นผู้นำระดับสากล

คำชี้แจง : กรุณาประเมินสมรรถนะของผู้บังคับบัญชาโดยตรงของท่าน โดยใส่เครื่องหมาย X ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด:

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
ไม่พอใจอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่พอใจ	พอใจและไม่พอใจเท่าๆ กัน	พอใจ	พอใจอย่างยิ่ง

ข้อคำถาม	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1.1 ตระหนักถึงผลกระทบของโลกาภิวัฒน์ (globalization) ที่มีต่อธุรกิจขององค์กร					
1.2 แสดงให้เห็นถึงความสามารถในการปรับตัวซึ่งจำเป็นต่อการประสบความสำเร็จในธุรกิจระดับโลก					
1.3 ทำการตัดสินใจโดยคำนึงถึงปัจจัยต่างๆ ในระดับสากล					
1.4 สร้างความร่วมมือที่มีประสิทธิภาพทั่วทั้งบริษัท					
1.5 ไม่สนับสนุน/ไม่ส่งเสริม คำวิจารณ์ในแง่ลบต่อผู้อื่นหรือกลุ่มบุคคลอื่นๆ					
1.6 สร้างเครือข่ายความสัมพันธ์อันจะช่วยให้ดำเนินงานสำเร็จลุล่วง					
1.7 รับฟังผู้ที่มีความรู้ความชำนาญมากกว่า					
1.8 มุ่งมั่นสร้างผลลัพธ์โดยทำงานร่วมกับผู้อื่น (ความร่วมมือ)					
1.9 สร้างสภาพแวดล้อมให้ทุกคนมุ่งเน้นไปที่ประโยชน์ส่วนรวม (เช่น มุ่งเน้นไปที่เป้าหมายของบริษัทมากกว่าเป้าหมายของฝ่ายงาน)					
1.10 สร้างแรงบันดาลใจให้ผู้อื่นทุ่มเทต่อการบรรลุวิสัยทัศน์					

ข้อคำถาม	1	2	3	4	5
1.11 พัฒนากลยุทธ์ที่มีประสิทธิภาพเพื่อให้บรรลุวิสัยทัศน์					
1.12 กำหนดลำดับความสำคัญของงานต่างๆ ได้อย่างชัดเจน					
1.13 สอบถามบุคลากรว่าต้องการสิ่งที่จำเป็นอะไรบ้างที่จะช่วยให้การปฏิบัติงานดีขึ้น					
1.14 คอยดูแลเพื่อให้มั่นใจได้ว่าบุคลากรได้รับการฝึกอบรมที่จำเป็นต่อการดำเนินงานให้ประสบความสำเร็จ					
1.15 ให้ข้อมูลป้อนกลับในเชิงการพัฒนาต่อบุคลากรในเวลาที่เหมาะสม					
1.16 ยอมรับความเสี่ยงในการปล่อยให้ผู้อื่นตัดสินใจ					
1.17 ให้อิสระแก่บุคลากรตามที่พวกเขาต้องการเพื่อให้ปฏิบัติงานได้ดี					
1.18 ให้ความไว้วางใจบุคลากรมากพอที่จะไม่ใช้วิธีการบริหารงานแบบลงรายละเอียด					
1.19 ขอความช่วยเหลือจากบุคคลอื่นซึ่งมีความรู้ความสามารถที่ตนขาด					
1.20 แสดงการตอบสนองทางอารมณ์ได้อย่างเหมาะสมในสถานการณ์ที่แตกต่างกัน					
1.21 แสดงความมั่นใจในฐานะผู้นำ					
1.22 ยินดีรับฟังข้อมูลป้อนกลับที่เป็นประโยชน์ด้วยท่าทีเชิงบวก					
1.23 พยายามอย่างยิ่งที่จะเข้าใจกรอบแนวคิดของผู้อื่น					
1.24 ส่งเสริมให้บุคลากรกล้าเปลี่ยนแปลงจากสิ่งเดิมๆ ที่ตนคุ้นเคย					
1.25 กล้าที่จะท้าทายกับระบบที่มีอยู่ในเวลาที่จำเป็นต้องมีการเปลี่ยนแปลง					
1.26 ประสบความสำเร็จแม้ในสถานการณ์ที่คลุมเครือ (เช่น แสดงให้เห็นความยืดหยุ่นในยามจำเป็น)					
1.27 ส่งเสริมให้ผู้อื่นคิดริเริ่มสร้างสรรค์					
1.28 ถือว่าบุคลากรต้องรับผิดชอบต่อการกระทำของตน					
1.29 ขจัดความสูญเปล่าสิ้นเปลืองได้อย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ					
1.30 คิดค้นผลิตภัณฑ์หรือบริการซึ่งช่วยให้บริษัทมีข้อได้เปรียบอย่างชัดเจนในการแข่งขัน					

ส่วนที่ 2 : มาตรวัดความไว้วางใจในผู้นำ

คำชี้แจง : กรุณาแสดงความคิดเห็นที่ท่านมีต่อผู้บังคับบัญชาโดยตรงของท่าน โดยใส่เครื่องหมาย X ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด:

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	เฉยๆ	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

ข้อคำถาม	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2.1 หัวหน้าของข้าพเจ้ามีความสามารถอย่างมากในการปฏิบัติงานของเขา/เธอ					
2.2 หัวหน้าของข้าพเจ้ามีความรู้อย่างมากในงานที่ต้องทำ					
2.3 หัวหน้าของข้าพเจ้ามีความสามารถเฉพาะทางซึ่งช่วยเพิ่มผลการปฏิบัติงานของคนในทีมให้ดียิ่งขึ้น					
2.4 หัวหน้าของข้าพเจ้าห่วงใยในสวัสดิภาพของข้าพเจ้า					
2.5 หัวหน้าของข้าพเจ้าคอยช่วยดูแลอยู่เสมอว่าอะไรเป็นสิ่งสำคัญสำหรับข้าพเจ้า					
2.6 หัวหน้าของข้าพเจ้าเต็มใจที่จะช่วยเหลือข้าพเจ้าอย่างเต็มที่					
2.7 ข้าพเจ้าไม่เคยต้องกังวลเลยว่าหัวหน้าของข้าพเจ้าจะรักษาคำพูดหรือไม่					
2.8 หัวหน้าของข้าพเจ้าปฏิบัติต่อข้าพเจ้าอย่างซื่อตรง					
2.9 หัวหน้าของข้าพเจ้ายึดมั่นในความยุติธรรม					

ส่วนที่ 3 : มาตรวัดเรื่องประสิทธิภาพของทีมงาน

คำชี้แจง : กรุณาแสดงความคิดเห็นที่ท่านมีต่อทีมของท่าน โดยใส่เครื่องหมาย X ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด:

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
ไม่ถูกต้องอย่างยิ่ง	ค่อนข้างไม่ถูกต้อง	ถูกต้องและ ไม่ถูกต้องพอๆ กัน	ค่อนข้างถูกต้อง	ถูกต้องอย่างยิ่ง

ข้อคำถาม	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3.1 สมาชิกแสดงให้เห็นถึงความผูกพันต่อทีมโดยพยายามทุ่มเทเพื่อให้ทีมประสบความสำเร็จ					
3.2 ทุกคนในทีมมีแรงจูงใจอย่างมากที่จะช่วยให้ทีมประสบความสำเร็จ					
3.3 สมาชิกทุกคนในทีมต่างแบกรับภาระปริมาณงานที่เหมาะสมเป็นธรรมในภาพรวม					
3.4 ทีมของเรามักสามารถหาวิธีการสร้างสรรค์แปลกใหม่ในการดำเนินงาน ซึ่งมักปรากฏว่าเป็นวิธีที่เหมาะสมต่อการทำงานให้สำเร็จได้อยู่บ่อยๆ					
3.5 ทีมของเราสังเกตเห็นความเปลี่ยนแปลงต่างๆ ซึ่งอาจเกิดขึ้นเพื่อจะได้ปรับกระบวนการหรือวิธีการทำงานให้สอดคล้องกับการเปลี่ยนแปลงดังกล่าว					
3.6 ทีมของเราไม่มีความยากลำบากในการดำเนินงานตามแผนปฏิบัติงานเพื่อที่จะให้ดำเนินงานต่อไปได้					
3.7 สมาชิกคนอื่นๆ ในทีมจะให้น้ำหนักกับความคิดของสมาชิกคนใดคนหนึ่งมากน้อยแค่ไหน ขึ้นอยู่กับความรู้ของบุคคลนั้นมากกว่าการยึดถือว่าบุคคลนั้นเป็นใคร					
3.8 สมาชิกในทีมของเรามีความกระตือรือร้นในการแบ่งปันความรู้และความสามารถพิเศษระหว่างกัน					
3.9 ทีมของเราค่อนข้างมีทักษะในการเรียนรู้จากประสบการณ์ในการทำงานที่ผ่านมาของพวกเรา					

ส่วนที่ 4 : ข้อมูลทั่วไปของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

คำชี้แจง : กรุณาใส่เครื่องหมาย X ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับข้อมูลของท่าน:

ส่วนที่ 4.1 สำหรับผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามทุกท่าน

1. เพศ ☐ ชาย ☐ หญิง

2. อายุ ☐ 30 ปี หรือน้อยกว่า ☐ 31-40 ปี
☐ 41-50 ปี ☐ 51 ปี หรือมากกว่า

3. ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุด ☐ ต่ำกว่ามัธยมศึกษาตอนปลาย ☐ มัธยมศึกษาตอนปลาย/ปวช.
☐ ปวส. ☐ ปริญญาตรี
☐ ปริญญาโท ☐ สูงกว่าปริญญาโท

4. สัญชาติ

☐ ไทย ☐ อังกฤษ ☐ อเมริกัน

☐ อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ) _____

5. ประสบการณ์การศึกษาในต่างประเทศ

☐ ไม่มี ☐ น้อยกว่า 1 ปี ☐ 1-2 ปี ☐ 3-4 ปี ☐ มากกว่า 4 ปี

6. ประสบการณ์การทำงานในต่างประเทศ

☐ ไม่มี ☐ น้อยกว่า 1 ปี ☐ 1-5 ปี ☐ 6-10 ปี ☐ มากกว่า 10 ปี

7. อายุงานในบริษัทที่ทำงานอยู่ในปัจจุบัน ☐ น้อยกว่า 1 ปี ☐ 1-5 ปี ☐ 6-10 ปี ☐ มากกว่า 10 ปี

8. ตำแหน่งงานของท่านในปัจจุบัน

☐ สูงกว่าระดับผู้จัดการอาวุโส ☐ ระดับผู้จัดการอาวุโส

☐ ระดับผู้จัดการ ☐ ระดับผู้ช่วยผู้จัดการ

☐ ระดับหัวหน้างาน ☐ ระดับพนักงาน

9. ท่านเคยสอบ TOEIC, TOEFL (Internet Base Test) และ/หรือ IELTS หรือไม่

☐ ไม่เคย

☐ เคย

10. หากท่านตอบคำถามข้อ 9 ว่า เคยสอบ กรุณาให้ข้อมูลผลคะแนนการทดสอบครั้งล่าสุดของท่าน

คะแนน TOEIC _____

คะแนน TOEFL (paper base) _____

คะแนน TOEFL (internet base) _____

คะแนน IELTS _____

11. สัญชาติของผู้บังคับบัญชาโดยตรงของท่าน

☐ ไทย ☐ อังกฤษ ☐ อเมริกัน

☐ อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ) _____

12. ตำแหน่งงานของผู้บังคับบัญชาโดยตรงของท่านในปัจจุบัน

☐ สูงกว่าระดับผู้จัดการอาวุโส ☐ ระดับผู้จัดการอาวุโส

☐ ระดับผู้จัดการ ☐ ระดับผู้ช่วยผู้จัดการ

☐ ระดับหัวหน้างาน

13. ระยะเวลาที่ท่านทำงานกับผู้บังคับบัญชาโดยตรงของท่าน

☐ น้อยกว่า 1 ปี ☐ 1-2 ปี

☐ 3-4 ปี ☐ มากกว่า 4 ปี

BIOGRAPHY

NAME	Natcha Niljaeng
ACADEMIC BACKGROUND	Bachelor's Degree of Liberal Art with a major in History from Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand in 1997 Master's Degree of Art in Industrial and Organizational Psychology from Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand in 2007 Master's Degree of Science in Organizational Change and Development from University of Manchester, Manchester, UK in 2009
PRESENT POSITION	Head of People Operations, Thailand Grab Taxi (Thailand) Co., Ltd.