THE CONTRIBUTION OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE TO TEAM PROCESSES AND INNOVATION IN MULTICULTURAL TEAMS: THE CASE OF RESTAURANT BUSINESS IN THAILAND

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ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation THE CONTRIBUTION OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCETO TEAM PROCESSES AND INNOVATION IN MULTICULTURAL TEAMS: THE CASE OFRESTAURANT BUSINESS IN THAILAND

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In many big cities characterized by multicultural environments which are also major tourist destinations of Thailand, many restaurants hire multicultural teams to help them achieve successful innovation. Even though cultural diversity among team members can potentially foster the innovative performance of multicultural teams, it can also cause challenges that would inhibit them from successful innovation. In particular, cultural diversity existing in teams can create unpleasant relationships and tension among team members, thereby limiting team synergy, which is a key factor in achieving team innovations. Given that cross-cultural diversity in a team could be productive and counterproductive to team performance, it is crucial to understand some characteristics of members in cross-cultural teams that might motivate them to overcome negative perceptions caused by cultural dissimilarity, and to work together effectively to produce an innovative performance for a restaurant. Among key characteristics that are crucial to enhance cross-cultural collaboration and performance, cultural intelligence (CQ) is frequently proposed in research as a crucial competency that makes members from diverse cultural backgrounds develop healthy relationships with each other thereby facilitating effective cross-cultural interaction and collaboration. Despite this crucial role of CQ, no research investigated the contribution of CQ to team innovation in the restaurant business. Therefore, this research investigated the contributions of team CQ to team innovation by considering the mediating roles of relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing in the context of multicultural teams in the restaurant business. Survey data were collected from 103 cross-cultural teams (a total of 620 team members from diverse cultural backgrounds) of restaurants located in five popular tourist cities in Thailand, including Bangkok, Pattaya, Chiang Mai, Krabi, and

Phuket. Data were collected from multiple sources to prevent common method bias. The data that measured team CQ, team relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing were collected from all members in each team and were averaged to create the aggregate measures at the team-level. Team innovative performance was evaluated by the team supervisor. Partial least squares structural equation modeling was used for data analysis. The results indicated that the teams demonstrating high CQ tended to exhibit a lower degree of team relationship conflict and the higher degree to intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing, and received a higher degree of innovative performance evaluation than the team demonstrating low CQ. The results also showed that team conflict and team knowledge-sharing mediated the relationship between team CQ and team innovation. Besides, intra-team trust can indirectly connect team CQ to team innovation by either reducing team conflict or increasing team knowledge sharing, as well as team relationship conflict that can also indirectly help team CQ to increase team innovation that a lower degree of team relationship conflict driven by a higher degree of team CQ can increase team knowledge-sharing that eventually foster team innovation. The contribution of CQ in the cross-cultural team using team-level CQ provided additional evidence to prior CQ research that rarely investigated CQ at the aggregate level, especially the contribution of CQ at the team level to innovation in intercultural teams as well as the mechanism between them focusing on the roles of relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and knowledge sharing. Moreover, this research also provided insight and a guideline for restaurant management and human resource teams to promote the innovative performance of their multicultural teams. The research suggested that CQ should be integrated into the process of talent discovering and acquisition, performance management and reward systems, and human resource management routines. This could enable organizations to develop and retain the global talents needed in maintaining their competitive advantages in today's business environment.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Over the past few decades, globalization along with rapid technological advancements has made the world smaller than ever. People are no longer limited to only their home countries but also allowed to connect with others living in different parts of the world. Globalization allows people to learn and experience more about other cultures and simultaneously share theirs with others across the globe (Kluver, 2010; Matthews & Thakkar, 2012; Sorrells, 2015; Yevtushenko, 2016). This makes education and job opportunities abroad open to them, and that can potentially guarantee them opportunities for higher incomes (Altbach, 2015). They can also enjoy opportunities to relocate to a new country where they are happier to live their lives. Globalization does not only benefit individuals but organizations as well. For example, Yordanova (2011) stated that globalization drives international organizations to grow rapidly throughout the world. Andersen, Nordeste, Duarte, Lassen, Ekblad, Pach, Amborski, and Dittmann (1997) argued that, with features of globalization and technological advancements, especially the internet and international transportation, organizations can expand their ventures across continents to increase business opportunities and generate more revenue.

However, globalization also brings organizations challenges such as varying customer demands and increased competition among businesses around the world (Khan, Aslam, & Riaz, 2012). And to cope with these challenges, innovation has long been recognized and highlighted by organizations and scholars as a key factor for sustainable competitiveness and success (Bartel & Garud, 2009; R. M. Kanter, 1983; Peters, Waterman, & Jones, 1982; Tushman, 1997). Noted by Ireland and Hitt (1999), innovation enables organizations to gain competitive advantages over their business

rivals and maximize customer satisfaction. In other words, without the consistent flow of innovative products and services offered over time, organizations cannot remain viable, and this would eventually lead to their decline or demise (Amabile, 1997; Peter F Drucker, 2003).

According to many studies, organizations mainly count on their work teams in achieving successful innovations because team members are varied in background and experience, so they can contribute diverse knowledge and skills to the innovation development of their teams (Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; Lovelace, Shapiro, & Weingart, 2001; Perry-Smith & Shalley, 2003). Because teams are widely recognized as the drivers of innovation in organizations, the interest in team innovation has grown rapidly in the past few decades (N. Lee & Nathan, 2010; Peltokorpi & Hasu, 2014a)

In this study, the innovation of cross-cultural teams in the foodservice industry which is constituted of culturally diverse team members is emphasized. Even though the foodservice industry is often viewed as part of the hospitality industry as well as the tourism industry, in fact, this industry has its own unique characteristics especially in terms of financial turnover and volatility in business and trends, when compared with the hotel and tourism industries (Johns & Pine, 2002; Kotler, Bowen, Makens, & Baloglu, 2006). The restaurant business is an attractive venture for many individuals and has continued to grow significantly around the world because of the shifts in people's lifestyle, such as spending more time outside of their homes, eating out more than cooking at home, and the increase in social needs and networking (Edwards, 2013; Joung, Goh, Huffman, Yuan, & Surles, 2015). Moreover, restaurants, unlike other businesses, require a relatively low initial investment, and the business is easy to enter and establish (Y.-J. Lee & Hwang, 2014; Yoon, 2015). Due to the low barrier of entry the competition is high, thereby making many restaurants likely to go out of business (S. Choi, Lee, Choi, & Sun, 2018). In order to achieve and survive in the industry, restaurants must continue to create new ideas and innovative work processes, service, and menus to stay competitive and be able to effectively respond to the rapid changes in consumer behavior and needs (Cho, Bonn, Han, & Kang, 2018; Ivkov, Blesic, Simat, Demirovic, Bozic, & Stefanovic, 2016; Craig Lee, Hallak, & Sardeshmukh, 2016; Olsen, 2015).

Well established cross-cultural teams have been found to enhance business performance and innovation in the restaurant and other hospitality businesses (Changuk Lee & Chon, 2000; Means, MacKenzie Davey, & Dewe, 2015). Previous studies indicate that cultural diversity fosters team performance as well as increasing creativity and innovation in the workplace (Cox, 1994; Kirchmeyer & McLellan, 1991; G. K. Stahl, Mäkelä, Zander, & Maznevski, 2010; Sung & Choi, 2012; Tung, 1993). This is because cultural diversity helps to expand the existing knowledge base by providing a greater pool of diverse information and knowledge contributed by culturally diverse team members (Østergaard, Timmermans, & Kristinsson, 2011; Sung & Choi, 2012). Therefore, it can be concluded that cross-cultural teams with a higher degree of cultural diversity tend to be more innovative and enjoy greater benefits (Dosi, 1982; N. Lee & Nathan, 2010; Nelson & Winter, 2009; Quintana-García & Benavides-Velasco, 2008). As for restaurant businesses, cross-cultural teams can help create new products such as new business models, new menus, new service models, and even new work processes that give them competitive advantages over their rivals; this particularly happens when diverse knowledge, experience, and skills are contributed by each team member (M.-L. M. Hu, Horng, & Sun, 2009; Craig Lee, Sardeshmukh, & Hallak, 2016; N. Lee & Nathan, 2010; Palmer & Griswold, 2011). This argument is supported by Janssens and Brett (2006) who mentioned that the fusion cooking of intercultural culinary teams is the method that combines cooking knowledge and techniques from different cultures to create new dishes that provide new alternatives for customers while preserving some traditional features.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite the benefits that organizations receive from employing culturally diverse workforces, much existing literature indicates that cultural diversity can also cause threats to team performance and team innovation (Brett, 2007; Dougherty, 1992; P. C. Earley & Gibson, 2002; Østergaard, Timmermans, & Kristinsson, 2011; Suliman & Abdulla, 2005; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). Cultural diversity can increase levels of conflict and decrease social integration in cross-cultural teams when compared to monocultural teams whose members share the same values and

enjoy less conflict and stronger group identity (P. C. Earley & Gibson, 2002; G. K. Stahl, Mäkelä, Zander, & Maznevski, 2010). For example, Cox (1994) argued that increased cultural diversity can lower team cohesiveness and cause communication difficulties among team members. As a result, to achieve innovations, organizations strive to overcome the barriers inherent in the cultural differences, such as miscommunication and conflict existing in their cross-cultural teams, by developing shared values among team members (Adair, Hideg, & Spence, 2013; Mishra & Gupta, 2010; G. K. Stahl, Mäkelä, Zander, & Maznevski, 2010; Swann Jr, Kwan, Polzer, & Milton, 2003). In other words, effective communication and understanding of the cultures of other members, as well as an appreciation of their identities and differences such as personalities and behavior, are required (Triandis & Singelis, 1998; Wheelan, Buzaglo, & Tsumura, 1998).

Therefore, a cross-cultural competency that can help develop effective communication and better cultural understanding should be proposed to empower cross-cultural teams to improve cooperation among team members and overcome problems rooted in cultural diversity (Adair, Hideg, & Spence, 2013; Matveev & Nelson, 2004). Cultural intelligence, also known as CQ, is proposed in this study as the key cultural competence to help cross-cultural teams develop shared values among their members. According to P. C. Earley and Ang (2003), CQ is the ability that allows people to perform effectively in such environments characterized by cultural diversity. People with cultural intelligence can well adapt to others from different cultures (Earley, 2002; Earley & Ang, 2003). Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, and Chandrasekar (2007) stated that cultural diversity can cause challenges and difficulties in work teams if there is insufficient CQ. Ng, Van Dyne, and Ang (2009) argued that CQ helps the team address cultural diversity issues and brings them competitive advantages. Moreover, it has been argued that in cross-cultural teams, leaders and team members with a high level of CQ could well facilitate team learning, knowledge sharing, and communication (Soon Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009). Adair, Hideg, and Spence (2013) noted that CQ allows cross-cultural teams to develop shared values among their culturally diverse team members by facilitating their understanding, adaptation, communication, and coordination. Soon Ang and Inkpen

(2008) summarized that once multicultural team members have CQ, they are believed to perform their task knowledge-sharing more effectively together because they can communicate and share knowledge more effectively with less conflict and distrust among team members. These benefits of CQ in facilitating cross-cultural team processes are believed to link to successful team innovation (De Clercq, Thongpapanl, & Dimov, 2009; L. Hu & Randel, 2014; Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009).

1.3 Research Gaps

Even though prior studies have highlighted the contribution of CQ across several domains and diverse disciplines at individual level, such as cross-cultural interaction (P. C. Earley & Ang, 2003), cross-cultural conflict (N. Hu, Wu, & Gu, 2017; Ramirez, 2010), and cross-cultural stress (Ramsey, Nassif Leonel, Zoccal Gomes, & Rafael Reis Monteiro, 2011), and team level, such as team performance (Dogra & Dixit, 2016; Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Henning, 2017; Lamarão, 2016; Presbitero & Toledano, 2017), team creativity (Bogilović, Černe, & Škerlavaj, 2017; R. Y. Chua & Ng, 2017), team knowledge-sharing (M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013) team shared values (Adair, Hideg, & Spence, 2013), the direct relationship between CQ and team innovation has not yet been investigated in detail. To date, there are only a limited number of studies that link CQ to innovation. For example, a study of Korzilius, Bücker, and Beerlage (2017) which emphasized the role of CQ at the individual level found a positive association between CQ and the innovative work behavior of workers in an international staffing agency in the Netherlands. Joupari and Far (2015) explored the link between CQ and innovation at the organizational level and found a significant positive relationship between the variables. Elenkov and Manev (2009) studied the effects of senior expatriates' visionary–transformational leadership on organizational innovation and found that CQ positively moderates the relationship.

However, this research is different from previous researches in several ways. This study will explore the linkage of CQ and innovation at the team level, which is still scarce, as well as apply team process variables such as relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing as a mechanism in the relationship between

the two constructs. Moreover, this study will apply the concept of CQ in the foodservice industry context, which has not empirically been studied.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between CQ and innovation at the team level in cross-cultural settings as well as its mechanical process. This research assumes that team CQ can drive team innovation to expect that CQ may reduce ineffective team processes rooted in cultural diversity and eventually drive team innovation. The relationship between CQ and team innovation is expected to be explained by the selected team process variables including relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and knowledge-sharing. In particular, this research aims to analyze the relationship between CQ and these three mediating variables.

This research applies the social identification and social classification theories to explain problems concerning team process variables that may negatively affect team innovation. The two theories are also used to develop hypotheses in this study. According to the two theories, people tend to favor others with whom they share cultural backgrounds while separating themselves from others who are different from them (Jang, 2017; Y.-t. Lee, Masuda, Fu, & Reiche, 2017; Lisak, Erez, Sui, & Lee, 2016). Because CQ with its features that enable individuals to adapt and adjust themselves to fit and get along well with others as well as to perform effectively in cross-cultural environment (Soon Ang, Rockstuhl, & Tan, 2015; Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008; P. C. Earley & Ang, 2003), it is expected to help reduce the differences and separation among team members, thereby increasing communication and understanding efficiency within teams. Thus, it is expected that innovation can easily happen because of this.

1.5 Research Questions

In this study, the following questions will be answered. Can teams with a higher level of CQ develop more innovation than those teams with a lower level of CQ? Can team processes, including relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and knowledge-sharing, influence team innovation? Can team CQ affect these team

processes? Can these team processes explain the linkage between team CQ and team innovation?

1.6 Contributions of the Study

1.6.1 Academic Contribution

This study provides an additional academic contribution to existing CQ studies. Given the limited number of studies about the relationship between CQ and workplace innovation, especially for cross-cultural teams, this research investigates the relationships between CQ and innovation at the team level and further explores the roles of team process variables as mediators linking team CQ and team innovation. In addition, this research applies the concept of CQ in the context of the foodservice industry for the first time. This study may contribute new knowledge in both CQ and innovation study domains that would fill the gap in the literature well. Moreover, most of the prior studies associated with CQ tend to aim at the individual level (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007; Elenkov & Manev, 2009; Thomas, 2008). But empirical studies focusing on CQ at the team level are still scarce (Adair, Hideg, & Spence, 2013; Soon Ang, Rockstuhl, & Tan, 2015; Janssens & Brett, 2006; Shokef & Erez, 2008).

1.6.2 Practical Contribution

This study also provides practical contributions to organizations and cross-cultural teams, especially in the foodservice industry. As mentioned earlier, cross-cultural teams can cause problems despite the benefits they provide. Since members of cross-cultural teams are usually diverse in cultural backgrounds, teams may experience difficulty in communication, understanding, and sharing knowledge, as well as confronting conflict and separation among team members. This may result in lowering team performance and discouraging team innovation. The results of this research may help to provide some implications to handle these problems. First of all, the results of this research can be applied to encourage team innovation, to reduce conflict, and to create more shared values among both culinary and service team members. The results can also be used by human resource departments and restaurant

managers in recruiting new employees and developing effective training programs to develop cross-cultural competency that can help solve problems as well as improve team processes that enable multicultural teams to achieve innovations. Finally, the final outcome may provide some guidance to help restaurants effectively utilize their culturally diverse workforce to create positive outcomes for their businesses.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The Concept of Cultural Intelligence

In 2003, the concept of cultural intelligence (CQ) was initially introduced by P. Christopher Earley, a professor and chair of the department of organizational behavior at the London Business School, and Soon Ang, a professor and chair of the division of strategy, management, and organization at the Nanyang Technological University, Singapore, to measure and predict the cross-cultural performance of individuals, teams, organizations, and even nations (P. C. Earley & Ang, 2003). Later, the concept was further developed by David Livermore, a famous American social scientist, in his book "Leading with Cultural Intelligence" (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2015; Livermore, 2009). P. C. Earley and Ang (2003) defined CQ as the capability that enables individuals to perform effectively in cross-cultural contexts. David Livermore (2009) viewed CQ beyond just a cross-cultural competence, but more a form of intelligence that can be measured and developed in individuals. It can also be considered as an individual's capability to adapt to fit in and get along well with others in unfamiliar cultures (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008). DC Thomas and K. (2004) viewed CQ as a person being culturally skillful and flexible as well as understanding different cultures and interacting appropriately with others from different cultures. P. C. Earley and Mosakowski (2004) also considered CQ as an ability to interpret, understand, and predict the messages and behaviors of others from unfamiliar cultures. Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne, and Annen (2011) looked at CQ as not only the capability to understand cultural diversity but also the capability to bridge those differences.

According to P. C. Earley and Ang (2003), the concept of CQ was developed based on the multiple-loci of intelligence theory proposed by Sternberg and

Detterman (1986). Given the traditional definition of intelligence as the ability to solve problems, Sternberg and Detterman (1986) argued that intelligence is not necessarily something that takes place only in classrooms. This fosters an interest in *real-world intelligence* such as social intelligence (SQ), emotional intelligence (EQ), and practical intelligence (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007). Nonetheless, these types of intelligence focus on specific domains, and they are culturally limited (P. C. Earley & Ang, 2003). To take EQ, which is the capability of individuals to manage their own and others' emotions, as an example, studies have shown that individuals with a high level of EQ tend to have better job performance, greater mental health, and higher leadership skills (Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). However, in the cross-cultural context, individuals with high EQ who effectively perform in one particular culture do not always effectively perform in other cultures or in intercultural environments (Leung, 2005). Soon Ang and Inkpen (2008) argued that since norms and social interaction are different from one culture to another, EQ is unlikely to be automatically interpreted into cross-cultural contexts. For example, Leung (2005) found that effective Western managers with a high level of EQ measured in their home countries may not perform effectively in Chinese culture because of their cultural differences. Ilangovan, Scroggins, and Rozell (2007) argued American managers with high EQ would encounter difficulties in working with Indian employees because these employees prefer a more directive and task-oriented leadership style to the American participative-style of working. It can be summarized that in such a globalized era, intercultural competencies are necessary to help people interact effectively with others from different cultures by lowering the chances of misinterpretation and misunderstanding that may eventually lead to undesired conflict while increasing understanding and connecting them (Pusch, 2009).

In order to have a better understanding of the concept of CQ, there are 2 approaches that should be initially explored. They are emic and etic approaches that are widely applied to explain the scope of researches within a culture and across cultures respectively. The emic approach is applied when a culture is studied from native points of view with rich and in-depth detail and information (Morris, Leung, Ames, & Lickel, 1999). Feleppa (1986) stated that emic is culturally specific because

of its limitation within a culture. Thus, emic constructs are those inherent within a particular culture such as behaviors and beliefs that are only found and fully appreciated in that culture (Morris, Leung, Ames, & Lickel, 1999). On the other hand, the etic approach is less detailing and employs only external observation on more than one cultural group; hence constructs considered etic are generally recognized, shared, and valued universally across cultures, such as self-efficacy, marriage, and mourning for loss of loved ones (Berry, 1990; P. C. Earley & Ang, 2003; Harris, 1976). According to Feleppa (1986), in contrast with emic, etic is considered cross-culturally valid which helps extend studies across cultural boundaries.

Applying emic and etic to the intelligence context, general intelligence (IQ) and EQ, for example, are viewed as emic because they are culturally specific and they cannot be applied across cultures due to cultural diversity (S Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2011; Cartwright & Pappas, 2008; Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne, & Annen, 2011). On the other hand, CQ can fulfill the intercultural aspects that IQ and EQ miss out because it is uniquely relevant to intercultural contexts (S Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2011; Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, Rockstuhl, Tan, & Koh, 2012). Soon Ang, Van Dyne, and Tan (2008) argued that CQ is not culture-specific, which means it is not specific to any particular culture, yet it is specific to cross-cultural types of situations. According to Soon Ang, Van Dyne, and Tan (2008), CQ integrates cross-cultural competencies such as cultural knowledge, cultural mindfulness, and cultural adaptability. Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, and Chandrasekar (2007) discussed that CQ targets situations where cross-cultural interactions take place involving multi-dimensional factors, such as race, ethnicity, and nationality. Thus it can be derived that CQ is a cultural-free construct or etic since it can be applied generally in several cultures (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007; S Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2011; Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne, & Annen, 2011).

2.1.1 The Four-factor Model of Cultural Intelligence

P. C. Earley and Ang (2003) originally theorized that CQ was a multi-dimensional concept that had 3 facets including cognitive, motivational, and behavioral facets. Later, the concept of CQ was extended by David Livermore (2009),

and he developed the four-factor model of CQ by adding one more dimension to the original model. Instead of including metacognitive in the cognitive facet, it was pulled out as another key dimension of the CQ concept. This is why CQ now has 4 dimensions, which are cognitive CQ, meta-cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ (Livermore, 2009).

2.1.1.1 Cognitive CQ

Cognitive CQ refers to an individual's degree of knowledge about cultures and cultural environments (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). According to Van Dyne, Ang, and Livermore (2010), cognitive CQ can also be referred to as not only the degree of knowledge but also the understanding of cultures, and their roles in shaping the thoughts and behavior of people in the cultures. It also includes knowledge about how individuals from different cultures would interact in cross-cultural situations and how cultures vary from one another (Van Dyne, Ang, & Livermore, 2010). Soon Ang and Van Dyne (2015) argued that cognitive CQ includes both the knowledge of cultural universals based on basic human needs, such as technological innovations, economic activities, and social interaction patterns, and the knowledge of cultural differences comprising cultural institutions, norms, practices, and conventions of different cultural settings. This knowledge can be gained from schools and life experiences (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008; Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, Rockstuhl, Tan, & Koh, 2012). People with high cognitive CQ are more knowledgeable about cultures and can apply their cultural knowledge to help themselves interact more effectively in cross-cultural situations than those with lower cognitive CQ (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008).

2.1.1.2 Metacognitive CQ

Metacognitive CQ is defined as an individual's level of cultural mindfulness, which includes being culturally conscious and aware in cross-cultural situations (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). Metacognitive CQ reflects mental processes allowing individuals to strategically acquire, understand, apply, and control their cultural knowledge in cross-cultural situations (S Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2011; Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, Rockstuhl, Tan, & Koh, 2012). It allows individuals to develop novel and appropriate interactions with other individuals from different cultures by promoting dynamic learning processes; including active thinking about how people

would interact, and how they would be able to cope with cultural complexity and unexpected cross-cultural situations (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008; P. C. Earley & Ang, 2003). This characteristic of CQ is crucial because, in every culture, there are sub-cultures hidden under the larger cultural umbrella. Gordon (1947) argued that within a culture, a certain set of gained knowledge may not be able to explain all individuals from that culture. Without this dimension of CQ, there would be issues of stereotyping because individuals would characterize others based only on their existing cultural knowledge (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007). Therefore, individuals with a high level of metacognitive CQ are mindful of cross-cultural situations and tend to question their own cultural assumptions (S Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2011). They are also open to new and unexpected intercultural interactions, and they adjust their cultural knowledge according to the actual cross-cultural situations for the best possible outcomes (P. C. Earley, 2002). On the other hand, people with less or no metacognitive CQ tend to be less flexible and fail to address unexpected cultural interactions and situations. They are likely to stereotype people with only their preexisting cultural knowledge that cannot solely handle the complexity of culturally diverse situations (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 2006; B. Peterson, 2011).

2.1.1.3 Motivational CQ

Motivational CQ is defined as an individual's capability to direct their attention and energy towards cultural learning, engaging, and functioning in cross-cultural situations (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007). It reflects the passion and self-efficacy of individuals to engage and take challenges with new cross-cultural experiences as well as to accommodate the unexpected interactions during cross-cultural encounters (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008; Livermore, 2011; Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2006). Templer, Tay, and Chandrasekar (2006) also argued that motivational CQ drives individuals to actively learn and apply their cultural knowledge to put them into action in cross-cultural situations. P. C. Earley (2002) pointed out that without motivation, individuals may not be able to tolerate possible failures occurring during cross-cultural interactions. People with a high level of motivational CQ tend to have more interest and confidence to approach and interact with people from different cultures

(Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008; Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, Rockstuhl, Tan, & Koh, 2012). David Livermore (2011) stated that these individuals with high motivational CQ tend to enjoy new challenges and be comfortable getting involved in culturally diverse situations. They can handle and recover from failures in cross-cultural interactions such as inappropriate actions caused by misinterpretation or limitation of the cultural knowledge possessed, and get themselves back on track with even greater efforts (P. C. Earley, 2002; P. C. Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). P. C. Earley and Mosakowski (2004) also argued that, in contrast, individuals with low motivational CQ are likely to give up when they encounter obstacles or difficulties caused by cultural diversity.

2.1.1.4 Behavioral CQ

Behavioral CQ refers to the capability of individuals to perform appropriately both verbally and non-verbally in cross-cultural situations (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008). P. C. Earley (2002) raised the issue that people need appropriate behavior, both verbal and non-verbal, in order to interact effectively in unfamiliar cultural environments because a set of behaviors that is appropriate in one culture may not be appropriate in others. For example, facial touching is one of the most common greetings in French culture, but in other cultures, a person getting too close, especially different genders, is unacceptable or would cause uncomfortable feelings because of their belief that men and women should maintain a certain distance, so once individuals engage in an interaction with others from different cultures, they should behave properly according to the cross-cultural situations and their counterparts' cultures in order to avoid misinterpretation and possible conflict (P. C. Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). According to Soon Ang and Inkpen (2008), behavioral CQ is a very important dimension of CQ because when individuals engage in cross-cultural interactions, they only perceive and rely on what they see and hear from their counterparts' external expressions. Hall (1959) argued that no matter how much knowledge people have, or how motivated they are, they still need appropriate actions to help them perform effectively in cross-cultural situations. Non-verbal behaviors are especially crucial because they are the silent language that can be seen and interpreted directly by counterparts when interacting (Soon Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Hall, 1959). People with a high level of behavioral CQ are more likely to have

flexibility in both their verbal and non-verbal actions while interacting face-to-face with others from different cultures, and they would choose the best appropriate actions according to their cultural knowledge as well as adjusting and adapting their behavior when needed for the best outcomes (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008; P. C. Earley & Ang, 2003; Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, Rockstuhl, Tan, & Koh, 2012). For example, for flexibility in verbal actions, some Americans with high CQ tend to speak English with a British accent when interacting with people from England. As for flexibility in non-verbal actions, westerners with a high level of CQ tend to modestly and carefully present their business cards to their Asian counterparts (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008).

2.1.2 Linkages between the 4 Dimensions of CQ

Initially, CQ literature suggested that individuals have to possess all four dimensions of CQ to be considered as a high CQ person (Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, Rockstuhl, Tan, & Koh, 2008; Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, Rockstuhl, Tan, & Koh, 2012). Early studies of CQ tend to focus on the aggregate conceptualization of CQ as a whole without focusing on each dimension (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008; P. C. Earley & Ang, 2003; Ott & Michailova, 2016). However, according to scholars, there are interrelationships existing among the four dimensions of CQ (Van Dyne, Ang, & Livermore, 2010; Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, Rockstuhl, Tan, & Koh, 2012). D. C. Thomas (2006) argued that CQ as a multidimensional construct would lose its utility if the relationships between its dimensions and aggregate construct cannot be specified. For example, M. L. Chen and Lin (2013) revealed that motivational CQ is more fundamental than the other dimensions of CQ because they are likely to result from motivational CQ. D. C. Thomas, Elron, Stahl, Ekelund, Ravlin, Cerdin, Poelmans, Brislin, Pekerti, and Aycan (2008) viewed metacognitive CQ as the linking mechanism that compensates the other three dimensions. Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, Rockstuhl, Tan, and Koh (2012) suggested that the four factors of CQ are interrelated as four steps starting from motivational CQ followed by cognitive CQ, metacognitive CQ, and behavioral CQ respectively towards overall CQ. Later on, there have been many studies focusing only on individual dimensions of CQ because not all dimensions can explain all phenomena in intercultural contexts (Adair, Hideg, &

Spence, 2013; M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013; X.-P. Chen, Liu, & Portnoy, 2012). Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, and Chandrasekar (2007) argued that metacognitive CQ and behavioral CQ have a positive influence on task performance, while the effects of cognitive CQ and motivational CQ were not statistically significant. Peng, Van Dyne, and Oh (2015) emphasized only the motivational dimension of CQ and empirically found that motivational CQ increases cultural effectiveness by enhancing the international experience. Malek and Budhwar (2013) found that while cognitive CQ and metacognitive CQ positively influence all general adjustment, interactional adjustment, and work adjustment, behavioral CQ and motivational CQ had a negative relationship with work adjustment and positive relationships with general adjustment and interactional adjustment.

2.1.3 Conceptualization of CQ at a Different Level of Analysis

According to Soon Ang, Rockstuhl, and Tan (2015), although early researches conceptualized CQ as a cultural competency at the individual level, which has four sub-dimensions including metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ, the concept of CQ was later developed and analyzed at the team and organizational levels.

Since teams are widely recognized as a key driver for organizational success, CQ has been conceptualized as a team-level variable to examine its contribution to team-level outcomes (Soon Ang, Rockstuhl, & Tan, 2015; Gluesing & Gibson, 2004; Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; G. K. Stahl, Mäkelä, Zander, & Maznevski, 2010). Many studies investigating CQ at team level use the aggregation of individual CQ measured from team members to derive team CQ (Adair, Hideg, & Spence, 2013; Soon Ang, Rockstuhl, & Tan, 2015; M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013; Eisenberg & Williams, 2012; Moon, 2013). For example, Adair, Hideg, and Spence (2013) aggregated the CQ of team members to compute team CQ and found positive effects of team CQ on the team shared values. Soon Ang, Rockstuhl, and Tan (2015) employed the average CQ of all team members to measure team CQ and found that teams with greater CQ have a higher level of team cohesion. Moon (2013) measured team CQ from the CQ of members of international student teams at a large business school in Korea and revealed significant impacts of team CQ on team performance.

At Organizational level, the concept of CQ has been growing rapidly since more and more organizations are becoming intercultural by hiring individuals from different cultures, expanding their ventures abroad, and dealing with counterparts from different cultures (Soon Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Moon, 2010b; Yitmen, 2013b). Soon Ang and Inkpen (2008) argued that organizational CQ, based on the resource-based view, is a multi-dimensional construct including managerial CQ, competitive CQ, and structural CQ enabling organizations to effectively manipulate their businesses in such complex intercultural environments. Moon (2010b) also conceptualized organizational CQ as a multi-dimensional factor, but comprising different capabilities, which are processes, positions, and path capabilities, and, in this research, found a positive relationship between organizational CQ and organizational performance. X.-P. Chen, Liu, and Portnoy (2012) argued that the average individual CQ in each firm represents CQ at the organizational level. In addition, Lima, West, Winston, and Wood (2016) argued that organizational CQ is more than just aggregating individual CQ, and, instead, proposed that CQ at the organizational level has five factors, which are leadership behavior, adaptability, training and development, organizational intentionality, and organizational inclusion. Yitmen (2013a) regarded organizational CQ as a multidimensional construct comprising process capability, positions capability, and paths capability, which represent nine aspects including cross-cultural coordination and integration, cross-cultural learning, cross-cultural reconfiguration, cross-cultural managerial, cross-cultural competitive, cross-cultural structural, cross-cultural initiation, cross-cultural experience, and cross-cultural resource fungibility.

2.1.4 Contributions of CQ

The concept of CQ has continued to gain substantial interest from scholars due to the impact of globalization, especially organizations becoming culturally diverse which makes cross-cultural interaction inevitable (L.-Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, & Roy, 2014). Studies focus on the contributions of CQ at different levels in organizations including individual, team, and organizational levels (Adair, Hideg, & Spence, 2013; Soon Ang, Rockstuhl, & Tan, 2015; Moon, 2010b). In cross-cultural environments where cultural diversity exists, CQ has been

investigated and proved to be a key factor that helps individuals, teams, and organizations to cope with challenges resulting from cultural diversity (Soon Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007; Moon, 2010a; Yitmen, 2013a). CQ enables individuals to adapt and adjust to better fit and perform in such situations characterized by cultural diversity (Soon Ang, Rockstuhl, & Tan, 2015; Huff, Song, & Gresch, 2014; Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2006; Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, Rockstuhl, Tan, & Koh, 2008; Van Dyne, Ang, & Tan, 2017). Many CQ studies found that CQ has a positive contribution on cultural adjustment and the work performance of expatriates in unfamiliar cultures (A. S.-y. Chen, Wu, & Bian, 2014; Guðmundsdóttir, 2015; Huff, Song, & Gresch, 2014; L.-Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010).

CQ has a positive and significant relationship with work performance and cross-cultural effectiveness (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007; A. S.-y. Chen, Lin, & Sawangpattanakul, 2011; L.-Y. Lee, Veasna, & Wu, 2013). Bücker, Furrer, Poutsma, and Buyens (2014) reveal that CQ has a positive and significant relationship with communication effectiveness. CQ has been found to have a positive influence on cross-cultural and cross-border leadership effectiveness (Deng & Gibson, 2009; Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne, & Annen, 2011). Bücker, Furrer, Poutsma, and Buyens (2014) revealed a negative association between CQ and the level of anxiety of individuals during cross-cultural interactions. Research empirically confirmed that CQ positively affects cross-cultural cooperation and creative collaboration with others (R. Y. Chua, Morris, & Mor, 2012; Mor, Morris, & Joh, 2013). Individual CQ also positively influences intercultural negotiation performance (Groves, Feyerherm, & Gu, 2015; Imai & Gelfand, 2010). Peng, Van Dyne, and Oh (2015) argue that CQ promotes the learning performance of individuals during an international experience.

In cross-cultural contexts, research also found substantial benefits of CQ that both, directly and indirectly, contribute to the success of teams and organizations (M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013; X.-P. Chen, Liu, & Portnoy, 2012; Moon, 2010b; Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008). At team level, CQ helps improve team processes such as communication, team trust, knowledge-sharing, team shared values, and team cooperation that would lead to an increase in desired outcomes such as innovation and team performance

(Adair, Hideg, & Spence, 2013; Charoensukmongkol, 2019a; Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Shokef & Erez, 2008). Adair, Hideg, and Spence (2013) found that CQ has a significant influence on the shared team values of intercultural teams. Groves and Feyerherm (2011) found that the CQ of the team leader is positively associated with multicultural team performance. Janssens and Brett (2006) proposed a fusion model of collaboration derived from fusion culinary data and empirically proved that CQ has a positive relationship with decision-making and creativity in cross-cultural teams. At the organizational level, CQ is considered an organizational capability required in culturally diverse environments that potentially fosters the organizational performance and competitive advantages of companies (Akgün, Byrne, & Keskin, 2007; Yitmen, 2013a). Moon (2010b) found that organizational CQ has significant effects on the organizational performance and international performance of organizations as a whole. Yitmen (2013a) found that organizational CQ has a positive relationship with the strategic alliance in the international construction industry. X.-P. Chen, Liu, and Portnoy (2012) found that motivational CQ at company level significantly moderates the relationship between motivational CQ at the individual level and employee work performance. The summary of the benefits of CQ found in research is presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Research Outcomes Associated with CQ

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, and Chandrasekar (2007)	Undergraduate students in the USA and Singapore	Metacognitive and behavioral CQ has a direct positive relationship with task performance.
Bücker, Furrer, Poutsma, and Buyens (2014)	Chinese managers working for foreign multinational enterprises in China	CQ is positively related to communication effectiveness and job satisfaction and has negative associations with anxiety.
Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne, and Annen	Swiss military officers with both domestic and	CQ is the strongest predictor of cross-border

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
(2011)	cross-border leadership responsibilities	leadership.
Puyod and Charoensukmongkol (2019a)	Call center representatives in the Philippines	Call center representatives with high CQ tend to demonstrate good interaction involvement and have high performance in cross-cultural communication
Mor, Morris, and Joh (2013)	American MBA students	CQ has a positive influence on intercultural cooperation.
Groves, Feyerherm, and Gu (2015)	Fully employed MBA students participated in a negotiation exercise	CQ has a positive influence on intercultural negotiations.
R. Y. Chua, Morris, and Mor (2012)	Middle-level managers attending an executive MBA course at a large west coast US university	CQ has a positive influence on intercultural creative collaborations.
Bücker, Furrer, Poutsma, and Buyens (2014)	Chinese managers working for foreign multinational enterprises in China.	CQ plays an important role in reducing anxiety and influencing both communication effectiveness and job satisfaction positively.
M. L. Chen and Lin (2013)	Employee teams in large and multinational high-tech firms in a well-known science park in north Taiwan	Metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, and motivational CQ are significantly related to knowledge-sharing at the team level.
Adair, Hideg, and Spence (2013)	Undergraduate students enrolled in an organizational psychology course at a large Canadian university	Behavioral and metacognitive CQ has a positive effect on shared values in culturally heterogeneous teams while motivational and metacognitive CQ have a negative effect on shared values in culturally homogeneous teams.
Ahmadi, Hoseini, and Hoseini (2017)	Students of the Medical University of Mazandaran	CQ has a significant and positive relationship with mental health.
L.-Y. Lee, Veasna, and Wu (2013)	Expatriate managers of Taiwanese multinational company subsidiaries	CQ has a positive and significant direct impact on job performance and cross-

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
	operating in China	cultural effectiveness.
Korzilius, Bücker, and Beerlage (2017)	Employees of a large, international, Dutch-based staffing agency	CQ fully mediates the effect of multiculturalism on innovative work behaviors.
Barakat, Lorenz, Ramsey, and Cretoiu (2015)	Global managers from multinational firms in Brazil	Overall CQ has a positive relationship with both job satisfaction and job performance, but, at the dimensional level of CQ, cognitive CQ has negative results to both job satisfaction and performance.
Charoensukmongkol (2016a)	Small and medium-sized firms in Thailand	An indirect positive relationship between CQ and export performance
Joupari and Far (2015)	Employees working in the Supreme Audit Court	Behavioral, motivational and cognitive CQ have a significant and positive relationship with organizational innovation.
N. Hu, Wu, and Gu (2017)	International students in China	CQ has a significant and positive relationship with individual creativity.
Huff, Song, and Gresch (2014)	Expatriates in Japan	Motivational CQ has a significant and positive relationship with interaction, and work adjustment.
Malek and Budhwar (2013)	Expatriates working for multinational corporations in Malaysia	CQ has a direct influence on general, interaction, and work adjustments.
H. Le, Jiang, and Nielsen (2016)	Currently-employed adult migrant workers who moved to Australia originally from non-English speaking countries	Cognitive CQ has a positive indirect relationship with life satisfaction and an impact on career engagement.
Sozbilir and Yesil (2016)	Managers in charge of international business activities at companies in the textile industry operating within the district of Kahramanmaraş in Turkey	CQ is positively related to cross-cultural job satisfaction and partially affects international related performance.
L.-Y. Lee and Sukoco	Expatriates of Taiwanese	CQ has indirect positive

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
(2010)	MNC firms which operate in at least three countries	effects on expatriate performance.
Charoensukmongkol (2015)	Firms listed in the directory of Thai exporters	The CQ of entrepreneurs has a positive association with the quality of the relationships that small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) had with foreign customers, foreign suppliers, and foreign competitors.
Anvari, Irum, Ashfaq, and Atiyaye (2014)	Faculty members in the University of Technology Malaysia	Leaders' CQ has a significant relationship with staff organizational commitment.
S. Hu, Liu, and Gu (2018)	International students from three public universities in China	Self-efficacy effectively mediates the relationship between social media usage and CQ.
Suthatorn and Charoensukmongkol (2018)	Thai airline cabin crew members	Intercultural communication competence and service attentiveness mediated the linkage between CQ and lower cabin crew anxiety.
Castañeda, Huang, and Avalos (2018)	Individuals with multicultural experience	Motivational and behavioral CQ positively influence multicultural creativity.
Rachmawaty, Wello, Akil, and Dollah (2018)	Students of the English Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education at Mulawarman University in East Kalimantan	CQ has a significant relationship with a language learning strategy.
Baltaci (2017)	Elementary school principals in Ankara	CQ is positively related to prejudice and entrepreneurship.
Yunlu, Clapp-Smith, and Shaffer (2017)	Working adults recruited from a Qualtrics panel	Metacognitive, cognitive, and motivational CQ has positive relationships with creativity.
Groves, Feyerherm, and Gu (2015)	MBA students	CQ is positively associated with negotiation performance, and interest-based negotiation behaviors partially mediated the relationship.

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, and Chandrasekar (2007)	International managers participating in an executive development program at a public university in Singapore	Metacognitive and cognitive CQ predict cultural judgment and decision making. Motivational and behavioral CQ predict cultural adaptation. And metacognitive and behavioral CQ predict task performance.
Fakhreldin (2018)	SMEs in Switzerland	Overall CQ has a significant effect on actual internationalization. All CQ dimensions are significant, except for the behavioral CQ.
Rahmatsyah Putranto, Nuraeni, Gustomo, and Ghazali (2018)	Business school students	CQ has a significant positive relationship with EQ except in the area of learner performance.
Pandey and Charoensukmongkol (2019)	Salespersons in International Tradeshows	CQ has a significant positive relationship with customer-oriented selling behaviors and adaptive selling behaviors

2.2 Team Innovation

In such globalized environments where people, investments, and capitals move and change rapidly, organizations strive to manage and cope with both expected and unexpected challenges affecting their wellbeing and survival. Therefore, abilities to introduce novel products and work processes that can help these organizations perform better are needed. Innovation has been defined as the process of creating and implementing new ideas used in developing new products, services, processes, and even business models that can help generate and improve efficiency, effectiveness, and the competitive advantages of organizations (Dobni, Klassen, & Nelson, 2015; Oskarsson, 2003; Scozzi, Bellantuono, & Pontrandolfo, 2017). According to many empirical studies, innovation is vital for organizations in achieving their performance, competitiveness, and success in the long run, especially in business environments that

keep changing rapidly and uncertainly (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005; Bartel & Garud, 2009; Bogilović, Černe, & Škerlavaj, 2017; Eisenbeiss, van Knippenberg, & Boerner, 2008; George, 2007). In such situations, innovations are crucial for organizations because they allow organizations to differentiate themselves from others, as well as to adapt and adjust themselves to well modify inconsistent situations and conditions (Gibson & Gibbs, 2006; Schoonhoven, Eisenhardt, & Lyman, 1990). Innovation has also been found to be an effective driver of organizational progress as it generates wealth for organizations by utilizing their existing resources (Peter Ferdinand Drucker, 1985; R. Kanter, 1985; Nonaka & Yamanouchi, 1989). According to Ireland and Hitt (1999), innovation allows organizations to enjoy competitive advantages enabling them to lead the market and also maintain their customers' loyalty. Bartel and Garud (2009) argue that innovation is a vital factor that fosters the ventures of organizations. Without innovation, it is difficult for organizations to be successful or even survive in such competitive business environments (Amabile, 1997; F Drucker, 2003).

Innovation has also been defined as processes of interaction among people allowing them to introduce new ideas, new products, and new processes that benefit their organization as a whole (Drach-Zahavy & Somech, 2001; Van Offenbeek, Koopman, & West, 1996; West, 1990). Østergaard, Timmermans, and Kristinsson (2011) pointed out that innovations within organizations tend to be generated by the different knowledge and ideas of their employees. Jiménez-Jiménez and Sanz-Valle (2008) added that the ability to continuously innovate novel products, services, and processes is crucial, and it is mainly contributed by the employees of organizations. There are numerous innovation studies that focus on the innovative contributions of employees within organizations (Andries & Czarnitzki, 2014; Karlsson & Skålén, 2015; H.-F. Lin, 2007; T. Wang, Zhao, & Thornhill, 2015).

A concept that is widely used to measure individual-level innovation is innovative work behavior, which refers to actions of individuals that generate, promote, and realize novel ideas, products, processes, and methods in workplaces (Janssen, 2000; R. M. Kanter, 2000; Scott & Bruce, 1994; West & Farr, 1989). At team level, the concept of team innovation has been increasingly important and has been highlighted in the past decade because organizations rely heavily on working

teams to pursue novel ideas and innovations which are greatly contributed to by their team members who have diverse backgrounds and experience (Dumaine, 1994; Eisenbeiss, van Knippenberg, & Boerner, 2008; Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005; Lovelace, Shapiro, & Weingart, 2001; Perry-Smith & Shalley, 2003). West and Wallace (1991) defined team innovation as ‘‘the intentional introduction and application within a team, of ideas, processes, products or procedures new to the team, designed to significantly benefit the individual, the team, the organization, or wider society’’. Peltokorpi and Hasu (2014b) argued the interest in team innovation has grown significantly because most of the innovations found in organizations are developed and driven by work teams. At the organizational level, innovation refers to openness and adoption of new processes and technologies that can help enhance the performance and effectiveness of organizations as a whole, as well as the capability to develop new products and services that increase their business opportunities (Daft, 1982; Damanpour, 1991; Damanpour & Evan, 1984). Abdi and Senin (2014) viewed innovation at the organizational level as the application of novel ideas in different forms including work processes, management, products and services, and marketing strategies that provides organizations sustainable competitive advantages. According to Østergaard, Timmermans, and Kristinsson (2011), innovations at the organizational level are mainly developed by the diversity of people with a variety of knowledge, experience, and skills.

2.2.1 Innovation in a Cross-cultural Team

Even though innovation has empirically been investigated at all levels in organizations, this study emphasizes cross-cultural team innovation which is assumed to be a key driver for intercultural organizations’ performance and effectiveness (Gibson & Gibbs, 2006). G. K. Stahl, Mäkelä, Zander, and Maznevski (2010) defined a cross-cultural team as a group of individuals with different cultural backgrounds joining together to work towards their mutual goals and for the benefits of organizations. Cross-cultural teams have become significantly more common and important for organizations in achieving high performance and innovation (Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; Lovelace, Shapiro, & Weingart, 2001; Peltokorpi &

Hasu, 2014a; Perry-Smith & Shalley, 2003). According to several studies, teams with the cultural diverse structure, or cross-cultural teams, tend to be more innovative and enjoy greater benefits (Dosi, 1982; N. Lee & Nathan, 2010; Nelson & Winter, 2009; Quintana-García & Benavides-Velasco, 2008). Nathan and Lee (2013) revealed that, compared with monocultural teams, cross-cultural teams with a higher degree of cultural diversity among their members tend to be more innovative and have better performance. Sung and Choi (2012) suggested that cultural diversity among team members provides new and various information and knowledge contributed by each member that would help expand existing team knowledge. Scholars argued that innovations developed in groups are created from the synergy of group members by pooling a variety of ideas and integrating together different knowledge, and skills fostered by their diverse backgrounds (Østergaard, Timmermans, & Kristinsson, 2011; Quintana-García & Benavides-Velasco, 2008; West, 2002). Synergy happens when team members share and transfer knowledge from one to another, which would enhance team collective knowledge (Cabrera, Collins, & Salgado, 2006; Grant, 1996; Liu & Phillips, 2011; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). N. Lee and Nathan (2010) also found significant empirical support that the synergy among cross-cultural team members can greatly contribute to the development of team innovations.

Nevertheless, much-existing literature indicates that cultural diversity can also cause threats as well as challenges to multi-cultural teams by diminishing team performance and innovation (Brett, 2007; Dougherty, 1992; P. C. Earley & Gibson, 2002; Østergaard, Timmermans, & Kristinsson, 2011; Suliman & Abdulla, 2005; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). Adair, Hideg, and Spence (2013) stated that conflicts that arise in cross-cultural teams are likely to be rooted in cultural diversity among team members. Cultural diversity can increase levels of conflict and decrease social integration in cross-cultural teams compared to monocultural teams whose members share common values and enjoy a lower degree of conflict and stronger group identity (P. C. Earley & Gibson, 2002; G. K. Stahl, Mäkelä, Zander, & Maznevski, 2010). For example, Cox (1994) argued that a rise in cultural diversity can decrease team cohesiveness and cause communication difficulties among team members. Brett (2007) also stated that cultural diversity among team members causes undesired conflict that would weaken team performance and team innovativeness.

Hofstede (1980) argued that a team comprising people from different cultures with different cultural backgrounds would encounter challenges in developing shared values among themselves. According to G. K. Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt, and Jonsen (2010), these teams with culturally diverse members who have different values and work styles would face challenges of communication effectiveness, relationship conflict, and group identity development. On the other hand; teams with a lower level of diversity, which have a higher degree of team shared values enjoy more innovation and better performance, benefitted from less conflict and greater group identity (P. C. Earley & Gibson, 2002; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2005; Klein, Knight, Ziegert, Lim, & Saltz, 2011; McGrath, Berdahl, & Arrow, 1995). Schwartz (2011) noted that, compared to cross-cultural teams, monocultural teams have more shared cultural values among team members that allow them to enjoy better cooperation, more stability, and a higher degree of coordination.

Team Process Variables that Foster Team Innovation

This research proposes three team process variables that determine team innovation in a cross-cultural team, which are (1) relationship conflict, (2) intra-team trust, and (3) knowledge-sharing (L. Hu & Randel, 2014; Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; Paul, He, & Dennis, 2018). These three variables are chosen because they have empirically been proven to be critical to the team innovation development process (Desivilya, Somech, & Lidgoster, 2010; M.-L. M. Hu, Horng, & Sun, 2009; Szabo, Ferencz, & Pucihar, 2013).

2.3 Relationship Conflict

Organizations are increasingly counting on teamwork for their success, yet there are inevitable challenges that they have to face. Conflict is, of course, one of them, and it can be caused by tension among team members with diverse backgrounds and opinions (De Dreu, Harinck, & Van Vianen, 1999; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003b; Thomas & Dunnette, 1992; Wall Jr & Callister, 1995). Team conflict, also known as Intra-group conflict, refers to a process emerging from tension among team members

when they are aware of disagreement and incompatibility between their own interests and values and those of other team members (DeChurch, Mesmer-Magnus, & Doty, 2013; Martínez-Moreno, González-Navarro, Zornoza, & Ripoll, 2009; Santos, Uitdewilligen, & Passos, 2015). In addition, it is widely acknowledged that conflict is inevitable in workplaces and groups because of the diversity of people, and that is not easy to compromise (Adams, 2009; Kei & Yazdanifard, 2015). De Dreu and Weingart (2003b) argued that conflict tends to lower teamwork performance since it fosters tension, opposition, and distracts team members from performing their tasks effectively. There have been several studies supporting a negative relationship between conflict and team performance (Auh, Spyropoulou, Menguc, & Uslu, 2014; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003b; X. Jiang, Flores, Leelawong, & Manz, 2016). The concept of conflict has widely been studied as a multi-dimensional concept (Huczynski & Buchanan, 2004; Iorio & Taylor, 2014; Jehn, 1995). According to a number of studies, the concept of conflict in teams has been broken down into three concepts which are task conflict, relationship conflict, and process conflict (Amason & Schweiger, 1997; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003b; Jehn, 1995; Jehn, Chadwick, & Thatcher, 1997; Kabanoff, 1991; Kuypers, Guenter, & Van Emmerik, 2015).

Task conflict refers to disagreement among group members focusing on work-related goals and specific task aspects and involving discussions about strategies of teams or organizations and how to address complex work issues (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Kuypers, Guenter, & Van Emmerik, 2015). De Dreu and Weingart (2003b) also stated that task conflict concerns diverse work opinions, work styles, work procedures, work policies, work judgments, and interpretation. Researches indicated that a certain level of task conflict can benefit teams and organizations if people learn to synergize their different thoughts and opinions and wisely use them to create new and better ideas at work (Hansen, 2015; Levine, Resnick, & Higgins, 1993; Nemeth, 1986; Sinha, Janardhanan, Greer, Conlon, & Edwards, 2016). Simons and Peterson (2000) summarized that teams with task conflict among their members tend to have better decision making because the conflict enhances the cognitive process of the teams by pooling divergent ideas. There have been empirical studies that supported task conflict being positively related to team performance and team innovation because it enhances a team's knowledge base and decision-making (De Dreu, 2006;

Farh, Lee, & Farh, 2010; Guenter, van Emmerik, Schreurs, Kuypers, van Iterson, & Notelaers, 2016). However, some studies revealed contradictory results showing that task conflict has a negative relationship with team performance and team-member satisfaction (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003b; Martínez-Moreno, González-Navarro, Zornoza, & Ripoll, 2009). Therefore, it can be concluded that in some situations task conflict does not always produce desired outcomes (Martínez-Moreno, González-Navarro, Zornoza, & Ripoll, 2009).

Relationship conflict refers to emotionally driven disagreement concerning personal and political preferences, values, and beliefs, as well as interpersonal styles, that are not work-related (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003b; Guenter, van Emmerik, Schreurs, Kuypers, van Iterson, & Notelaers, 2016; Jehn, 1995; Jehn, Chadwick, & Thatcher, 1997; X. Jiang, Flores, Leelawong, & Manz, 2016; Tekleab & Quigley, 2014). Scholars characterized relationship conflict as tension, frustration, anger, hostility, animosity, annoyance, or distrust among group members (Furumo, 2009; Leon-Perez, Medina, Arenas, & Munduate, 2015; Marques, Lourenço, Dimas, & Rebelo, 2015; Tekleab & Quigley, 2014; D. M. Thomas & Bostrom, 2010; Wakefield, Leidner, & Garrison, 2008; Wickramasinghe & Nandula, 2015). Prior studies revealed that relationship conflict can cause dissatisfaction and frustration among team members leading to negative reactions, which may even make them want to leave their groups (Edmondson & Smith, 2006; Tekleab & Quigley, 2014). Once relationship conflict is detected in teams, team members tend to cooperate less, reduce information exchange, and have less intention to remain in their teams, causing harm to team cohesion and performance (Au & Marks, 2012; Stark, Bierly, & R. Harper, 2014; Wickramasinghe & Nandula, 2015). Teams with unresolved relationship conflict tend to find their team members distracted from their task knowledge-sharing and this would lower team cooperation and team productivity (Gibson & Cohen, 2003; Griffith, Mannix, & Neale, 2003; Martínez-Moreno, González-Navarro, Zornoza, & Ripoll, 2009). It is inevitable for teams encountering relationship conflict among their members to have to deal with the steady fall of the individual work performance of their team members (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003b; Nifadkar & Bauer, 2016).

Process conflict refers to disagreement on the process to accomplish task knowledge-sharing concerning what task should be done, who should take responsibility, and the work delegation structure within teams (Lê & Jarzabkowski, 2015; Martínez-Moreno, González-Navarro, Zornoza, & Ripoll, 2009; Santos, Uitdewilligen, & Passos, 2015). Process conflict involves issues like time management, work, responsibility allocation, and deadline agreement, which all support team collaboration (Behfar, Mannix, Peterson, & Trochim, 2011; Goncalo, Polman, & Maslach, 2010; Karn, 2008; Kurtzberg, 2005; Lê & Jarzabkowski, 2015). Martínez-Moreno, González-Navarro, Zornoza, and Ripoll (2009) argued that process conflict happens when team members have different perspectives and opinions about who should do what in their work team, so it may distract team members from task issues and lower team productivity and performance. Lê and Jarzabkowski (2015) argued that teams facing process conflict tend to function ineffectively, be distracted from task accomplishment, and have poor productivity. Evidence of the impacts of process conflict has been reported in the literature. For example, Behfar, Mannix, Peterson, and Trochim (2011) found that process conflict has negative significant effects on team performance, team member satisfaction, and team coordination of MBA students at a US business school.

However, even though all three types of conflict are viewed as important team processes that organizations and their work teams must bring into account (Behfar, Peterson, Mannix, & Trochim, 2008; Martínez-Moreno, González-Navarro, Zornoza, & Ripoll, 2009), only relationship conflict has been chosen to be emphasized in this study. Since the main focused outcome of this study is team innovation, which has been proven to be fostered by integration and synergy among members in work teams, compared with task conflict, which tends contribute positive outcomes, and process conflict which is less concerned with this context, relationship conflict has often been viewed as a more serious challenge or issue in team operation and process in achieving higher team performance and innovation, and it is this conflict that would be a useful study for further research (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003b; Desivilya, Somech, & Lidgoster, 2010; Guenter, van Emmerik, Schreurs, Kuypers, van Iterson, & Notelaers, 2016; Kuypers, Guenter, & van Emmerik, 2015).

2.4 Intra-Team Trust

Trust is a very important concept that explains different levels of social phenomena especially the process of social interactions (Adolphs, 2002; Balliet & Van Lange, 2013). In literature, the concept of trust has been applied in a variety of contexts at different levels including individual, team, organization, or even society (Charoensukmongkol, Daniel, & Chatelain-Jardon, 2013, 2015; Costa, 2003; Kanawattanachai & Yoo, 2002; Koirala & Charoensukmongkol, 2018; Phungsoonthorn & Charoensukmongkol, 2018). However, this study only focuses on interpersonal trust at the team level. Trust is viewed by scholars as a very important factor for developing effective team processes and high-performance teams (Ashleigh & Prichard, 2012; Mach & Baruch, 2015). According to McAllister (1995), interpersonal trust at the individual level generally refers to "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another". In extension to this classical definition of trust, which has been widely referred to by many scholars, team trust is defined focusing more on relationships among team members (Boies, Fiset, & Gill, 2015; de Jong, Dirks, & Gillespie, 2015; Mach & Lvina, 2017; Tschannen-Moran, 2014; Williams Middleton & Nowell, 2018). Scholars generally conceptualized team trust as the integration of interpersonal trust, which includes expectations of trustworthiness and the willingness to accept vulnerability in all team members to others in the team (Costa & Anderson, 2011; Costa, Fulmer, & Anderson, 2018; De Jong, Dirks, & Gillespie, 2016; De Jong & Elfring, 2010; Langfred, 2007). For example, Jarvenpaa, Knoll, and Leidner (1998) argued that team trust is a positive mutual belief among team members that other members will behave according to their mutual commitments, and be honest and not take advantage of other team members under any circumstances.

Scholars have conceptualized interpersonal trust at team level as a multi-dimensional construct including two dimensions which are affective and cognitive foundations (Barczak, Lassk, & Mulki, 2010; B. K. Choi, Moon, & Nae, 2014; Kanawattanachai & Yoo, 2002; Son, Kim, & Kim, 2014; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). Scholars refer cognition-based as calculative and rational characteristics demonstrated

by trustees such as reliability, accountability, integrity, transparency, competence, expertise, and responsibility, which is mainly focusing on work teams (Barczak, Lassk, & Mulki, 2010; Kanawattanachai & Yoo, 2002; Son, Kim, & Kim, 2014; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). According to Kanawattanachai and Yoo (2002), the level of cognition-based trust will increase when trustees keep their promises in timely and professional ways; otherwise, a high level of control will be needed. Thus, cognition-based trust mainly counts on information such as trackable records and reputations developed and acknowledged among team members (R. Y. J. Chua, Ingram, & Morris, 2008; Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012; Kanawattanachai & Yoo, 2002; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014).

On the other hand, affect-based trust is more related to the emotions and social skills of trustees such as caring, mindfulness, and friendship between and among group members (Barczak, Lassk, & Mulki, 2010; Son, Kim, & Kim, 2014; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). Unlike cognition-based trust which mainly focuses on the context of work teams, affect-based trust highlights the context of close social exchange relationships such as friends, informal groups, couples, and family members where individuals can informally and freely share and discuss personal topics, issues, and problems with other individuals (Barczak, Lassk, & Mulki, 2010; Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012; Oreg, Bartunek, Lee, & Do, 2018; Son, Kim, & Kim, 2014; W. Wang, Qiu, Kim, & Benbasat, 2016; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). Even though affect-based trust is typically established and recognized as a crucial element in the context of close social relationships, studies found that it has significant effects on the performance of formal work teams and the well-being of their team members as well as relationships in professional network knowledge-sharing (Barczak, Lassk, & Mulki, 2010; R. Y. J. Chua, Ingram, & Morris, 2008; McAllister, 1995; Son, Kim, & Kim, 2014). Barczak, Lassk, and Mulki (2010) summarized that both affective and cognitive trust foster desirable team processes and outcomes such as team cooperation, team knowledge-sharing, and team performance since teams require a high level of interdependence among team members to achieve their goals.

In literature, team trust has dominantly been found to play a vital role in facilitating team performance and innovation, which are the final desired outcomes of work teams (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013; De Jong, Dirks, & Gillespie,

2016; Grossman & Feitosa, 2017; Williams Middleton & Nowell, 2018). According to studies, trust has been found to be significantly beneficial to work teams in a variety of ways (Charoensukmongkol, Murad, & Gutierrez-Wirsching, 2016; De Jong, Dirks, & Gillespie, 2016; Fung, 2014; Grossman & Feitosa, 2017; Williams Middleton & Nowell, 2018). Team trust encourages team members to take risks, to rely on other team members, and to engage in team processes more openly and cooperatively (Costa, 2003; De Jong, Dirks, & Gillespie, 2016; Grossman & Feitosa, 2017). Thus, trust among team members enables smooth workflow in teams by fostering their cooperative behaviors, collaboration, and teamwork as well as team cohesion among team members (Barczak, Lassk, & Mulki, 2010; De Jong, Dirks, & Gillespie, 2016; Fung, 2014; Grossman & Feitosa, 2017; Hempel, Zhang, & Tjosvold, 2009; Salas, Sims, & Burke, 2005). Trust also promotes an appreciation of team belongings and satisfaction of team members (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013; Costa, 2003; Den Hartog, De Hoogh, & Keegan, 2007; Pinto, 2015). In addition, trust encourages knowledge-sharing among team members, and this would foster the development of new knowledge (Fung, 2014). Teams with a high level of trust tend to deal with less conflict among team members (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Grossman & Feitosa, 2017; R. S. Peterson & Behfar, 2003; Salas, Sims, & Burke, 2005). Fung (2014) also added that, with high levels of trust, teams tend to have better interaction patterns, problem-solving, and productivity.

2.5 Team Knowledge-sharing

Knowledge-sharing can be defined as social interaction involving exchanging the knowledge, experiences, and skills of team members to enhance collaboration, to mutually address issues, to jointly develop new knowledge and ideas, and to implement policies and work processes that benefit their own teams (Cummings, 2004; Jackson, DeNisi, & Hitt, 2003; H.-F. Lin, 2007; Van den Hooff & de Leeuw van Weenen, 2004; S. Wang & Noe, 2010). At team level, knowledge-sharing primarily involves the concept of demand and supply for new knowledge, allowing team members to contribute their knowledge and abilities to expand the team knowledge base, foster innovation, and gain competitive advantages (Ardichvili,

Page, & Wentling, 2003; Jackson, Chuang, Harden, & Jiang, 2006; S. Wang & Noe, 2010).

According to prior research, knowledge benefits team knowledge-sharing in a variety of ways by enhancing preferred team characteristics. Knowledge-sharing enables teams to integrate the knowledge, expertise, and skills possessed by team members and develop new knowledge and ideas to gain competitive advantage and improve their performance (M.-L. M. Hu, Horng, & Sun, 2009; Kamaşak & Bulutlar, 2010; Voelpel, Eckhoff, & Förster, 2008). New knowledge and ideas developed through the process of knowledge-sharing are regarded as a sustainable resource for maintaining competitive advantages and team achievement (Bouncken, Pick, & Hipp, 2006; Voelpel, Eckhoff, & Förster, 2008). Knowledge-sharing among team members can improve team coordination and the relationships among team members (Huang, 2013; Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). According to Janus (2016), knowledge-sharing among team members enables organizations and their work teams to benefit substantially from extensive knowledge-based resources. Teams with high knowledge-sharing tend to have superior performance in addressing issues and problem-solving (M.-L. M. Hu, Horng, & Sun, 2009; Yukl, 2009). Teams with a high level of knowledge-sharing tend to have high team collective learning because knowledge-sharing enables teams to accumulate the meaningful knowledge and information that is necessary for organizational ability improvement (Huang, 2013; Yukl, 2009; Zellmer-Bruhn & Gibson, 2006). Janus (2016) also added that teams without knowledge-sharing will fall behind others. There are several studies in literature empirically supporting the evidence that knowledge-sharing has a positive relationship with desired team outcomes such as cost-effectiveness, team performance, and innovation (Arthur & Huntley, 2005; Collins & Smith, 2006; H.-F. Lin, 2007; Mesmer-Magnus & DeChurch, 2009; S. Wang & Noe, 2010).

2.6 Social Identification Theory

The social identity theory (SIT) is rooted in social psychology. It has widely been adopted by scholars to explain the dynamics of diverse cultural teams (Brickson, 2008; Gundlach, Zivnuska, & Stoner, 2006; Hogg, 2016; Ting-Toomey & Dorjee,

2015). SIT was first introduced by Henri Tajfel, a Polish social psychologist, and his student John Charles Turner (Turner & Reynolds, 2010). SIT has been applied in several studies to explain the undesirable outcomes of team diversity. According to Billig and Tajfel (1973), SIT explains how individuals tend to define and differentiate themselves and others according to their group memberships, and they tend to stay close to their own types of people with whom they share values and favor them more than those members who belong to other groups. According to SIT, there are 2 main processes which are (1) identification and (2) classification of themselves and others (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg, 2016; Henri Tajfel & Turner, 2004). In the identification process, individuals identify themselves and others by using groups to which they belong, such as membership, religious affiliation, gender, social class, and even ethnicity and nationality (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg & Terry, 2000; H Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Moreover, the sense of belonging to particular groups fosters pride and self-esteem among group members (Hogg, 2016; McLeod, 2008; Henri Tajfel & Turner, 2004). In the classification process, individuals classify themselves and others by their groups and consider people in their own group as 'in-group' and others who do not belong to their own group as 'out-group', and this is the main concept of social classification (Hogg & Terry, 2000). SIT assumes that individuals prefer to be associated with others from, or who belong to, their own social or cultural categories or groups where they share values and beliefs, which is called in-group (Gundlach, Zivnuska, & Stoner, 2006; Kankanhalli, Tan, & Wei, 2006; Wickramasinghe & Nandula, 2015). On the other hand, individuals who are classified as out-group tend to be treated unequally with other members and encounter barriers separating them from other team members (Hogg, 2016; Rhee, Wong, & Kim, 2016; Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015).

In cross-cultural work teams where individuals belonging to diverse cultural groups work together, SIT can help explain the challenges and issues often found in cross-cultural teams. According to SIT, cross-cultural team members belonging to different cultural groups tend to find barriers among themselves, since they likely regard their teammates as out-group or even view themselves as out-group to others, and this would result in incompatibility in the team, and harm team cohesion and eventually team performance as a whole (C. P. Earley & Mosakowski, 2000;

Halverson & Tirmizi, 2008; Van Der Zee, Atsma, & Brodbeck, 2004). For example, Ting-Toomey and Dorjee (2015) employed SIT to explain the social and personal identities of team members that affect communication competence in cross-cultural teams. Caputo and Ayoko (2016) used SIT to explain that teams with greater cultural diversity among members tend to encounter poor team integration and team cohesion, and that would foster conflict and undesirable team processes and outcomes that might be addressed by conflict and negotiation strategies developed from CQ. Moon (2013) applied SIT, especially the classification process, to expand the understanding of how cultural diversity existing in cross-cultural teams causes unexpected poor team performance and how CQ can help address the issue.

2.7 Hypotheses Development

2.7.1 Relationship Conflict and Team Innovation

Relationship conflict is supposed to be negatively associated with team innovation since negative emotions caused by relationship conflict distract team members from performing their tasks and knowledge–sharing, and thus decrease the cognitive ability that enables team innovation (De Clercq, Thongpapanl, & Dimov, 2009; Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009). In addition, relationship conflict reduces the satisfaction of team members and team cohesion and damages teamwork prohibiting team members from exchanging their knowledge and working together to create new useful and beneficial ideas that is the essence of innovation (De Clercq, Thongpapanl, & Dimov, 2009; De Dreu, 2006; Denti; N. Hu, Chen, Gu, Huang, & Liu, 2017; Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; Lu, Zhou, & Leung, 2011). Studies show empirical evidence of the negative relationship between relationship conflict and team innovation (Collewaert & Sapienza, 2016; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003b; De Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012; Mortensen & Hinds, 2001). For example, He, Ding, and Yang (2014) found that relationship conflict had a direct negative relationship with the team innovation of telecommunication project teams in China. Relationship conflict can also affect innovation indirectly through other variables. For example, Desivilya, Somech, and Lidgoster (2010) found that relationship conflict had negative impacts on team integrating patterns, which in turn lowered team

innovation. Ries, Diestel, Wegge, and Schmidt (2010) revealed negative impacts of relationship conflict on the innovation of teams of clerks of a major state administration in Germany. De Clercq, Thongpapanl, and Dimov (2009) showed empirical evidence of the negative impact of relationship conflict on the innovation of Canadian companies in diverse industries. Considering previous evidence about the linkage between relationship conflict and innovation at the team level, this hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 1: There is a negative association between relationship conflict and team innovation.

2.7.2 Intra-team Trust and Team Innovation

Intra-team trust is considered an important player in team innovation study since new ideas and innovations are contributed from all team members, and trust is needed in encouraging team members to collaborate and share their knowledge with other members (Barczak, Lassk, & Mulki, 2010; Cheung, Gong, Wang, Zhou, & Shi, 2016; MacCurtain, Flood, Ramamoorthy, West, & Dawson, 2008; Nooteboom, 2013; Szabo, Ferencz, & Pucihar, 2013). Trust facilitates effective interaction and collaboration among members by allowing team members to have the confidence to open themselves to each other to mutually address issues and solve problems (Krawczyk-Bryłka, 2016; Paul, He, & Dennis, 2018). This fosters effective communication, information flow, and participation in the team decision-making processes which enable team members to share and exchange the knowledge and useful information that play vital roles in facilitating team innovations (Cheung, Gong, Wang, Zhou, & Shi, 2016; Krawczyk-Bryłka, 2016; Shazi, Gillespie, & Steen, 2015). In contrast, the absence of trust in teams prohibits collaboration among team members, and limits team performance and innovations in cross-cultural teams (Krawczyk-Bryłka, 2016; Paul, He, & Dennis, 2018). Prior research provides empirical evidence of positive influences of intra-team trust on team innovation. For example, Barczak, Lassk, and Mulki (2010) found that members of teams with a higher level of trust are better able to focus, communicate and support each other leading to increased team creativity. Szabo, Ferencz, and Pucihar (2013) provided empirical evidence that trust has a significant and positive relationship with

innovation. In addition, Shazi, Gillespie, and Steen (2015) found that the three sub-dimensions of trustworthiness, which are ability, benevolence, and integrity are positively associated with idea generation and idea realization which are sub-dimensions of innovation. Considering previous evidence about the linkage between intra-team trust and innovation at the team level, this hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive association between intra-team trust and team innovation.

2.7.3 Association between Team Knowledge-sharing and Team Innovation

Since teams are widely recognized as a key element in driving innovation success, getting to know and understand the relationship between knowledge-sharing and team innovation is crucial (N.-W. Chi, Huang, & Lin, 2009; L. Hu & Randel, 2014). One of the most important roles of knowledge-sharing is to maintain the key mechanisms in driving the innovation processes of organizations (L. Chi & Holsapple, 2005; Hussein, Singh, Farouk, & Sohal, 2016; Namhyun Kim & Shim, 2018). Generally, research suggested that team innovation depends on the ability to share knowledge and the vision of team members to their teams in contributing to generate new ideas (L. Hu & Randel, 2014; M.-L. M. Hu, Horng, & Sun, 2009; Y. Jiang & Chen, 2018; H.-F. Lin, 2007; Pearce & Ensley, 2004; Z. Wang & Wang, 2012). According to Liu and Phillips (2011), knowledge-sharing would increase team innovation since it develops the process of transactive memory or group-thinking that collects and retrieves all knowledge gained from all team members, which will provide the resources needed such as novel ideas and new product development. L. Hu and Randel (2014) argued that teams with a higher level of knowledge-sharing tend to be more innovative because sharing knowledge among team members with diverse backgrounds fosters the mutual learning that encourages team innovation. L. Hu and Randel (2014) also added that the successful integration of information and knowledge contributed by team members is the mechanism of mutual team-learning and knowledge-sharing that promotes team innovation achievements. This contribution of knowledge-sharing to innovation has been empirically supported. For example, H.-F. Lin (2007) found that the knowledge-sharing of employees working

for large organizations in Taiwan enables their companies to improve innovation capability as a whole. M.-L. M. Hu, Horng, and Sun (2009) found a strong and significant relationship between knowledge-sharing within international hotel employee teams and their service innovation performance. Kamaşak and Bulutlar (2010) found that the level of knowledge-sharing in groups of workers in organizations in Turkey positively influences the level of innovation success of their teams. Liu and Phillips (2011) empirically supported the positive relationships between knowledge-sharing in R&D teams of companies in Taiwan and their innovation. Considering previous evidence about the linkage between knowledge-sharing and innovation at the team level, this hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive association between team knowledge-sharing and team innovation.

2.7.4 Intra-team Trust and Relationship Conflict

Once a multicultural team has been set up, team members with diverse cultural backgrounds have to work closely with one another, and trust among themselves is considered necessary in order to enable effective cooperation and smooth workflow (Balliet & Van Lange, 2013; Christ, Sedatole, Towry, & Thomas, 2008; Fiore, Carter, & Asencio, 2015). However, cultural diversity can also lead to relationship conflict among team members (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999). Researchers argued that relationship conflict can harm trust in the team because without good and strong relationships and positive attitudes, trust cannot be well-developed among team members (Chuang, Chou, & Yeh, 2004; Costa & Anderson, 2017; Langfred, 2007; Lynn, Polat, & Reilly, 2016). For example, Langfred (2007) stated that individuals tend to perceive other team members whom they dislike as unhelpful and less cooperative resulting in lowering the level of their trust in them. Prior studies showed negative impacts of relationship conflict on intra-team trust (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003a; Han & Harms, 2010; Langfred, 2007; Osmonbekov, 2015). For example, Curşeu and Schruijer (2010) found a negative influence of relationship conflict on the intra-team trust of international BA student teams from a Dutch university. Langfred (2007) found a significant negative impact on the intra-team trust of relationship conflict in MBA student teams at a university in

the Midwest of the US. On the other hand, many researchers argued that intra-team trust can also cause lower relationship conflict because trust among team members can be broken and once it is broken it will create negative emotions that can eventually increase relationship conflict within teams (Han & Harms, 2010; Raes, Heijltjes, Glunk, & Roe, 2006). Previous researches showed results supporting the negative influences of team trust on relationship conflict within teams (Costa, Roe, & Taillieu, 2001; Han & Harms, 2010; Raes, Heijltjes, Glunk, & Roe, 2006). For example, Han and Harms (2010) found that team trust had negative impacts on relationship conflict in R&D teams of US top companies. Simons and Peterson (2000) found a negative association between intra-team trust and relationship conflict among executive officers (CEOs) of multi-site U.S.-based hotel companies. In addition, Curşeu and Schruijer (2010) found that intra-team trust contributed to negative impacts on relationship conflict in teams of students from a Dutch university. According to the studies, it can be concluded that relationship conflict and intra-team trust have bi-directional causality, which means that both variables can cause each other to decrease (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; Greer, Jehn, Thatcher, & Mannix, 2007; Han & Harms, 2010; R. S. Peterson & Behfar, 2003; Simons & Peterson, 2000). Considering previous evidence about the linkage between intra-team trust and relationship conflict, this hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 4: There is a negative association between relationship conflict and intra-team trust.

2.7.5 Intra-team Trust and Team Knowledge-sharing

Individuals will work well together in groups and make contributions to their teams when good relationships and trust exists among the members, and they will not be reluctant to share their knowledge and useful information with others (Fung, 2014; Park & Lee, 2014). MacCurtain, Flood, Ramamoorthy, West, and Dawson (2008) argued that trust among team members enables effective communication, which in turn fosters knowledge and information exchanging in teams. Team members will share their knowledge and information when they feel secure and trust their teammates (Fung, 2014; Park & Lee, 2014; Paul, He, & Dennis, 2018). The research found a positive impact of trust on knowledge-sharing (Cheng, Yeh, & Tu, 2008;

Moghavvemi, Sharabati, Klobas, & Sulaiman, 2018; Möller & Svahn, 2004; Soekijad & Andriessen, 2003). MacCurtain, Flood, Ramamoorthy, West, and Dawson (2008) found a significant positive relationship between intra-team trust and knowledge-sharing in the top management teams of Irish software companies. Cheung, Gong, Wang, Zhou, and Shi (2016) found that trust in teams is positively related to knowledge-sharing in R&D teams of IT firms in China. Ding, Ng, and Li (2014) found strong impacts of trust on knowledge-sharing in architectural design teams in China. Kucharska and Kowalczyk (2016) also found that trust among team members has a positive influence on knowledge-sharing in Polish professional construction management teams. Moreover, Park and Lee (2014) found significant and positive associations between team trust and team knowledge-sharing of project teams in IT companies in Korea. Considering previous evidence about the linkage between intra-team trust and knowledge-sharing at the team level, this hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive association between intra-team trust and team knowledge-sharing.

2.7.6 Relationship Conflict and Team Knowledge-sharing

It is difficult for teams as a whole to perform well without good relationships among team members (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003a). The absence of conflict also allows teams to develop collaboration among team members thereby encouraging them to share their information, knowledge, and skills with other team members to develop new products, services, and work processes (Dong, Bartol, Zhang, & Li, 2017; Kakar, 2018; Liao, Chen, & Hu, 2018; Parke, Campbell, & Bartol, 2014). Relationship conflict is a key challenge for knowledge-sharing among members since relationship conflict makes members reluctant to communicate, interact, and dedicate their efforts to the teams (Z. J. Chen, Zhang, & Vogel, 2011; N. Hu, Chen, Gu, Huang, & Liu, 2017; Panteli & Sockalingam, 2005). There are empirical studies supporting the negative relationship between relationship conflict and knowledge-sharing. For example, Moye, Gilson, and Langfred (2005) found that knowledge sharing reduced relationship conflict among team members and consequently benefited team performance. W.-T. Wang and Chang (2015) found an indirect negative relationship between relationship conflict and knowledge-sharing among

employees of organizations in the manufacturing industry in Taiwan. Shih, Farn, and Ho (2008) found a negative association between the relationship conflict and knowledge-sharing of senior information management students. Considering previous evidence about the linkage between relationship conflict and knowledge-sharing, this hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 6: There is a negative association between relationship conflict and team knowledge-sharing.

2.7.7 CQ and Team Innovation

In this study, CQ is proposed to help enhance innovation in cross-cultural teams. Prior research suggested that the CQ of team members could help multicultural teams achieve successful innovation (Elenkov & Manev, 2009; Korzilius, Bücker, & Beerlage, 2017). CQ allows multicultural team members to better express their thoughts and opinions, as well as share and exchange their knowledge, experience, and information with other team members instead of limiting themselves; and this would lead to new ideas development and successful team innovation (Castañeda, Huang, & Avalos, 2018; M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013; L. Hu & Randel, 2014; M.-L. M. Hu, Horng, & Sun, 2009; H.-F. Lin, 2007; Pearce & Ensley, 2004; Z. Wang & Wang, 2012). Research showed positive contributions of CQ on creativity, which is a vital component of innovation (Castañeda, Huang, & Avalos, 2018; N. Hu, Wu, & Gu, 2017; Yunlu, Clapp-Smith, & Shaffer, 2017). Even though the relationship between CQ and innovation at the team level is still considered limited in literature, there are studies at individual and organizational levels to be found (Joupari & Far, 2015; Korzilius, Bücker, & Beerlage, 2017). For example, Korzilius, Bücker, and Beerlage (2017) found that CQ had a direct positive contribution to innovation at the individual level of employees of a large, international, Dutch-based staffing agency. Joupari and Far (2015) revealed the positive impacts of CQ on innovation at the organizational level in the Supreme Audit Court. Considering previous evidence about the linkage between CQ and innovation at the team level, this hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 7: There is a positive association between CQ and team innovation.

The Role of CQ in Cross-cultural Teams

In addition to the direct relationship between CQ and team innovation hypothesized earlier, this research proposes that CQ could also explain the team process variables that are related to team innovation. According to SIT, cultural diversity causes problems to cross-cultural teams (Hamamura, 2017). SIT suggested that individuals tend to favor their kind of people or people with whom they share cultural backgrounds and, at the same time, classify themselves and others or separate themselves from others who belong to other cultures (Hamamura, 2017; Hofhuis, van der Zee, & Otten, 2012). In cross-cultural teams where members are separated by their cultural backgrounds, they are challenged with undesired team process issues such as relationship conflict, low levels of trust among team members, and low levels of knowledge-sharing that would discourage team innovation (He, Ding, & Yang, 2014; L. Hu & Randel, 2014; Krawczyk-Bryłka, 2016; Szabo, Ferencz, & Pucihar, 2013). The cultural diversity and separation can cause conflict, reduce trust, and prohibit team members to exchange and share their knowledge (JAKOB, 2012; Krawczyk-Bryłka, 2016; G. Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt, & Jonsen, 2007). According to Janssens and Cappellen (2008), cultural diversity among team members is likely to foster relationship conflict within teams because team members tend to be attached to their own cultures and not to accept others who are different from them. JAKOB (2012) argued that consistent with SIT and the social categorization theory, members of intercultural teams would be reluctant to share and exchange their knowledge with other team members because of their cultural dissimilarity. In order to cope with these undesirable challenges caused by cultural diversity, an effective cultural competency is needed to develop a desirable team process that would foster team innovation. Studies successfully employed CQ as a key cultural competency to improve team processes in intercultural teams where cultural diversity takes place since CQ helps individuals to adapt and adjust themselves to get along and perform effectively in cross-cultural contexts (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2015; Flaherty, 2015; Moon, 2013).

2.7.8 CQ and Relationship Conflict

This research proposes that the CQ of team members will negatively explain relationship conflict in teams. CQ is known as an effective cultural competency to facilitate cultural diversity in cross-cultural teams (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008; Groves, Feyerherm, & Gu, 2015). P. C. Earley and Peterson (2004) argued that CQ is important in developing the strategies used in dealing with diverse cultural issues. Caputo and Ayoko (2016) argued that CQ can help decrease the level of conflict existing in teams resulting from cultural diversity. Moon (2013) argued that a high level of CQ can decrease the degree of conflict in multicultural teams. Considering previous evidence about the linkage between CQ and relationship conflict at the team level, this hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 8: CQ has a negative association with relationship conflict.

2.7.9 CQ and Intra-team Trust

This research proposes that the CQ of team members will positively explain trust among them. CQ is proposed to facilitate challenges resulting from cultural dissimilarity and develop mutual trust among cross-cultural team members and group cohesiveness (Moon, 2013; Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008; Shokef & Erez, 2008). Prior researches found an association between CQ and team trust. For example, Trong Luu and Rowley (2016) found that CQ had positive effects on the level of trust in foreign-invested firms in a Vietnam business setting. Rockstuhl and Ng (2008) showed that CQ reduced the negative effects of cultural diversity on the intra-team trust of project teams in a large business school in Singapore. Considering previous evidence about the linkage between CQ and intra-team trust at the team level, this hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 9: CQ has a positive relationship with intra-team trust.

2.7.10 CQ and Team Knowledge-sharing

This research proposes that team level CQ will encourage knowledge-sharing among team members. CQ is known as an effective cultural competency that can break through cultural barriers by facilitating better interaction and quality relationships among team members, and this is believed to help encourage team

members to exchange and share useful information and knowledge (M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013; N. Hu, Wu, & Gu, 2017). The relationship between CQ and knowledge-sharing was found in previous studies. For example, M. L. Chen and Lin (2013) found that CQ had positive impacts on knowledge-sharing among team members of large and multinational high-tech companies in Taiwan. Tsai, Joe, Lin, Wu, and Cheng (2017) found that CQ indirectly influenced knowledge-sharing through different dimensions of social capital. Considering previous evidence about the linkage between CQ and knowledge-sharing at the team level, this hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 10: CQ is positively associated with team knowledge-sharing.

2.7.11 Mediating Effects

Finally, this research also proposes that relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and knowledge-sharing are hypothesized to mediate the positive relationship between CQ and team innovation. The three-team process variables are assumed to indirectly link team CQ to team innovation. CQ is proposed to reduce relationship conflict while increasing trust and knowledge-sharing among team members (M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013; N. Hu, Wu, & Gu, 2017; Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008). Consequently, when team members trust one another, have less relationship conflict, and are more willing to share more knowledge with other members, innovation can easily happen (He, Ding, & Yang, 2014; L. Hu & Randel, 2014; N. Hu, Wu, & Gu, 2017; Szabo, Ferencz, & Pucihar, 2013). Hence, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 11: Relationship conflict positively mediates the relationship between CQ and team innovation.

Hypothesis 12: Intra-team trust positively mediates the relationship between CQ and team innovation.

Hypothesis 13: Team knowledge-sharing positively mediates the relationship between CQ and team innovation.

To summarize all of the hypotheses proposed in this study, all of the hypotheses are listed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 The Summary of Research Hypotheses

	Hypothesis
H1	There is a negative association between relationship conflict and team innovation.
H2	There is a positive association between intra-team trust and team innovation.
H3	There is a positive association between team knowledge-sharing and team innovation.
H4	There is a negative association between intra-team trust and relationship conflict.
H5	There is a positive association between intra-team trust and team knowledge-sharing.
H6	There is a negative association between relationship conflict and team knowledge-sharing.
H7	There is a positive association between CQ and team innovation.
H8	There is a negative association between CQ and relationship conflict.
H9	CQ has a positive relationship with intra-team trust.
H10	CQ is positively associated with team knowledge-sharing.
H11	Relationship conflict positively mediates the relationship between CQ and team innovation.
H12	Intra-team trust positively mediates the relationship between CQ and team innovation.
H13	Team knowledge-sharing positively mediates the relationship between CQ and team innovation.

All the hypotheses are summarized in Figure 2.1

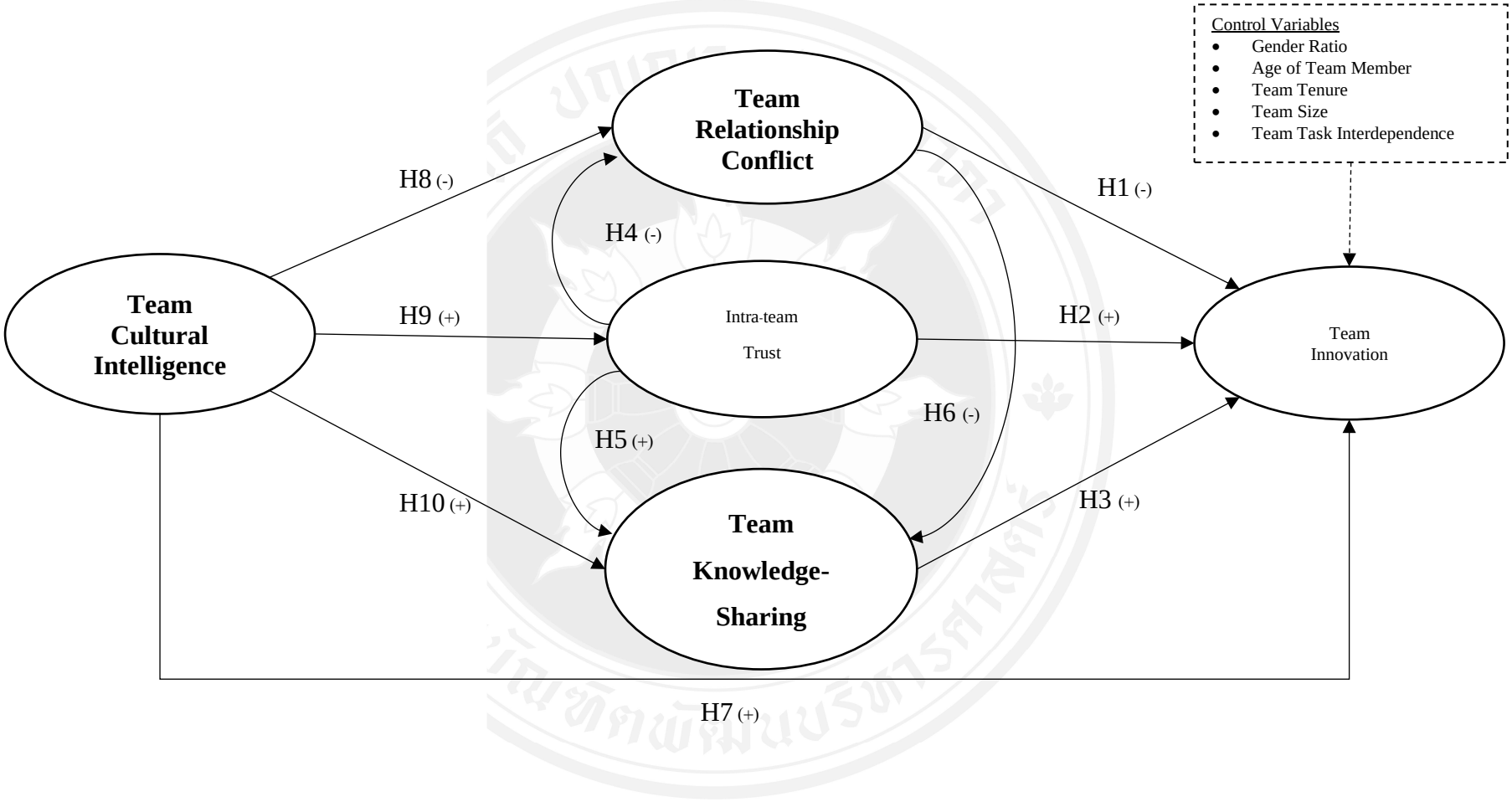


Figure 2.1 Conceptual Model

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, approaches that were employed to investigate and test the hypotheses proposed in this study are discussed in detail. The following content consists of the research context, sample selection, data collection, questionnaire development, measurements, and data analysis method.

3.1 Population of Interest

This study focuses on intercultural teams working for international restaurants in Thailand. Thailand, as a popular destination to millions of tourists from around the world, has become intercultural, especially in big cities as well as tourist cities such as Bangkok, Pattaya, Chiang Mai, Krabi, and Phuket where service industries have been growing significantly, particularly in the foodservice industry (Božić, Jovanović, Dragin, Spasojević, & Lukić, 2018; Henkel, Henkel, Agrusa, Agrusa, & Tanner, 2006; Pongwat, 2017; Route; Thanksooks, 2014; YAIPRASERT, 2018). Since Thai society is becoming more international with the extensive expansion of foreign cultures, immigration of expat workers, and a growing number of tourists from all over the world, the number of international restaurants has been growing rapidly.

According to the Department of Business Development (2017), there are 11,945 registered restaurants in Thailand with an investment volume of 77,423,000 baht and 4,627 restaurants, or 38.65% of the total number of registered restaurants in the country, owned by foreigners. These tend to be international restaurants that use multicultural teams to staff their businesses. These international restaurants tend to rely on intercultural teams to create novel international fusion, or hybrid, menus and innovate new creative dishes as well as effective work processes and services as competitive advantages to stay sustainably competitive and enjoy long-term success.

International restaurants in Thailand are a suitable research population for this study because they are growing significantly in using cross-cultural teams as a key for their long-term business success. Since Thailand is becoming multicultural, with millions of tourists visiting each year, many of them stay for long periods of time and may even decide to live and settle in this culturally rich country. It is also the center of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) attracting flows of capital, investment, and labor to the region. Many investors and workers, both skilled and non-skilled, from both inside and outside the region, come and live throughout the country, especially in Bangkok and other big cities.

3.2 Sampling Selection

As suggested by the research model, the units of analysis in this study are multicultural teams working for international restaurants. To approach sample groups that can truly represent the target population, five popular tourist destination cities, including Bangkok, Pattaya, Chiang Mai, Krabi, and Phuket, were selected. These cities were selected for several reasons. First, they are popular tourist destination cities where many people with diverse cultural backgrounds visit all year round (Henkel, Henkel, Agrusa, Agrusa, & Tanner, 2006; Sahadev & Islam, 2005). Second, they are home to international hotels and restaurants where migrant workers and multicultural teams are employed (Phiromyoo, 2011; Thanksooks, 2014). Finally, they are growing significantly in cultural diversity (Thanksooks, 2014).

Purposive or judgment sampling was employed in this study to select qualified restaurant businesses (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016; Tongco, 2007). At least 100 qualified intercultural-culinary and service teams working for international restaurants located in Bangkok, Pattaya, Chiang Mai, Krabi, and Phuket were initially approached by the researcher with the quota of 20 teams for each city (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Flynn & Pearcy, 2001; Hair, 2010; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Even though purposive sampling is a nonprobability sampling method that has a limitation when it comes to generalization, it is selected in this study for several reasons. Although there are lists of restaurant businesses registered in each of the cities, they do not provide any information about

the employment of intercultural teams. Given that this research focuses on multicultural teams, it is important to ensure that the restaurants have these characteristics before they can be selected. According to Crotty and Brett (2012), teams are required to consist of at least three members with different cultural backgrounds and use English as the language medium in communicating, so that the teams can be regarded as multicultural teams. Thus, the restaurants will have to be prescreened prior to the sample selection to ensure that all participating teams meet the criteria. This is the main reason why purposive sampling was chosen.

3.3 Data Collection

In order to avoid the potential issues for common method bias (CMB) caused by collecting data from only a single source, this research collected data from both team members and their managers (Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010; Vishwanath, 2017). Self-report surveys in the form of structured questionnaires were chosen as the method of data collection in this study. These were chosen because they enable researchers to collect data from a considerable number of participants in a limited period of time (Bryman & Bell, 2015). In addition, this type of data collection method is anonymous and self-facilitated, so it encourages participants to be more confident in sharing their personal information and provide more accurate judgments (Bryman, 2015; Bryman & Bell, 2015).

The researcher identified target restaurants by pre-scanning as to whether they meet the criteria. After restaurants are identified, the researcher approached their managers to inform and request permission to proceed with data collection before arranging a time to distribute questionnaires. The managers were told in detail about the objectives of the study as well as the process and procedure for cooperation. The researcher distributed the self-report questionnaires to managers and team members in person and asked them to complete the questionnaires before returning them. All of the completed questionnaires were kept anonymously to protect participants' identity (Tourangeau, 2018; Vannette, 2018).

3.4 Questionnaire Development

This research uses structured questionnaires to collect the required data. The questionnaires are in English since the targeted samples, which are intercultural teams, mostly used English as their language medium for communicating. All scales used in this study are adopted from existing scales used in prior studies, which were shown to have good validity and reliability. These scales have been tested and proven by many types of research to be accurate and consistent (Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997; Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). They are also widely adopted in previous studies (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007; Kucharska & Kowalczyk, 2016).

3.5 Measurement

The questionnaire items of each variable were adopted from measurements of existing researches in the literature. Some items were modified to suit the context and characteristics of the foodservice industry. The measurement of each construct is discussed in detail in the following:

3.5.1 Team CQ

Team CQ is measured using the team CQ scale developed by M. L. Chen and Lin (2013). The scale was modified from the individual CQ scale of Soon Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, and Chandrasekar (2007). It was applied to measure CQ at the team level. The scale consists of sixteen items measuring all the four sub-dimensions of CQ: meta-cognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ. Each dimension consists of four items. The reliability and validity of this scale have been confirmed in prior research (M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013). All items are to be measured using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). All questionnaire items are presented below:

Metacognitive CQ

1) We are conscious of the cultural knowledge we use when interacting with our co-workers with different cultural backgrounds.

2) We adjust our cultural knowledge as we interact with co-workers from a culture that is unfamiliar to us.

3) We are conscious of the cultural knowledge we apply to cross-cultural interactions.

4) We check the accuracy of our cultural knowledge as we interact with people from different cultures.

Cognitive CQ

1) We know the legal and economic systems of other cultures that our co-workers are from.

2) We know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages that our co-workers use.

3) We know the social systems of other cultures that our co-workers are from.

4) We know the arts and values of other cultures that our co-workers are from.

Motivational CQ

1) We are sure we can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to us.

2) We enjoy learning about cultures that are unfamiliar to us.

3) We are confident that we can get accustomed to the working conditions influenced by a different culture.

4) We are confident that we can socialize with people in a culture that is unfamiliar to us.

Behavioral CQ

1) We change our verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

2) We use different tones or manners of speaking to suit different cross-cultural situations.

3) We vary the rate of our speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.

4) We change our nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it.

3.5.2 Team Innovation

Team innovation is measured using the four-item team innovation scale drawn from Lovelace, Shapiro, and Weingart (2001). The scale was shown to have good reliability and validity in prior studies (L. Hu & Randel, 2014; W. Jiang, Gu, & Wang, 2015; Y. Jiang & Chen, 2018; Lovelace, Shapiro, & Weingart, 2001). All items are rated on five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). All questionnaire items are listed below:

1) The products or services of the team are innovative.
2) The quantity of innovative products or services (or ideas) by the team is large.
3) The team's ability to be responsive to changes is high.
4) The overall technical performance of the team is high.

3.5.3 Relationship Conflict

Relationship conflict is measured using the four-item relationship conflict scale drawn from Jehn (1995). The reliability and validity of this scale have been confirmed in prior research (De Dreu, 2006; O'Neill, Hancock, Zivkov, Larson, & Law, 2016; Pearson, Ensley, & Amason, 2002; Santos, Uitdewilligen, & Passos, 2015). All items are rated on five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). All questionnaire items are listed below:

1) There is friction among members of your team.
2) There are personality conflicts evident in your team.
3) There is tension among members of your team.
4) There is emotional conflict among members of your team.

3.5.4 Intra-team Trust

Intra-team trust is measured using the six-item interpersonal trust scale adopted from the study of Kucharska and Kowalczyk (2016). The scale was adapted based on prior studies (Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Park & Lee, 2014). The scale was shown to have good reliability and validity in previous studies (Kucharska & Kowalczyk, 2016; Park & Lee, 2014). All items are rated on five-point Likert scales

ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). All questionnaire items are listed below:

1) My partners were open and honest when problems occurred.
2) My partners helped me make critical decisions.
3) My partners were always willing to provide assistance.
4) My partners were always sincere.
5) My partners could be trusted completely.
6) I have great confidence in my partners.

3.5.5 Team Knowledge-sharing

Knowledge-sharing is measured using the four-item knowledge-sharing scale adopted from H.-F. Lin (2007). Good reliability and validity of this scale have been confirmed in prior research (M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013; C.-P. Lin & Joe, 2012; H.-F. Lin, 2007). All items are rated on five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). All questionnaire items are listed below:

1) We share our job experience with each other.
2) We share our expertise at the request of other members.
3) We share our ideas about jobs with one another.
4) We share work reports and official documents with one another.

3.5.6 Control Variables

This study includes five control variables: gender, age, team tenure, team size, and team task interdependence, which have been found to impact team processes and innovation (W. Jiang, Gu, & Wang, 2015; Y. Jiang & Chen, 2018; Mitchell & Boyle, 2015). The control variables are presented as the following:

3.5.6.1 Gender Ratio

The gender of team members may affect levels of team innovation in intercultural teams. Gender composition of team members can generate diverse perspectives, capabilities, and knowledge, which can create new knowledge and encourage the development of innovation (Díaz-García, González-Moreno, & Jose Sáez-Martínez, 2013; Hottenrott, 2018; Ruiz-Jiménez & del Mar Fuentes-Fuentes,

2016). Previous studies showed empirical evidence of a significant relationship between gender and innovation (Cady & Valentine, 1999; Ljunggren, Alsos, Amble, Ervik, Kvidal, & Wiik, 2010; Miron-Spektor, Erez, & Naveh, 2011; Rogelberg & Rumery, 1996). At the team level of study, gender ratio, like the proportion of men among team members, is often used to measure gender (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992; Miron-Spektor, Erez, & Naveh, 2011). Hence, in this research, the gender ratio is measured using the percentage calculation of men in teams.

3.5.6.2 Age of Team Members

The age of team members can be a good indicator of their team performance and innovation because older workers should have more experience and knowledge, which are the necessary elements in the innovation process (Frosch, 2011; Kunze, Boehm, & Bruch, 2013). According to prior research, the age of team members is assumed to be positively associated with team innovation. For example, Frosch (2011) investigated the relationship between age of workforce on innovation, and concluded that older workers tend to produce more innovation than younger workers who are at the beginning of their careers; however, the rate of innovation tends to hit a peak at the age of 40 and remain for years before starting to slightly decline. Parsons (2015) found that age has a positive association with the ability to implement and capitalize on the innovation of employees. The age of individual team members is measured in years. They are averaged to present the mean age of the team.

3.5.6.3 Team Tenure

Team tenure is another control variable used in previous studies at the team level (Bornay-Barrachina & Herrero, 2018; Dong, Bartol, Zhang, & Li, 2017; Fong, Men, Luo, & Jia, 2018; J. Hu, Erdogan, Jiang, Bauer, & Liu, 2018). It is suggested to have a positive linkage with team performance and influence team innovation (Miron-Spektor, Erez, & Naveh, 2011; Mitchell & Boyle, 2015). Team tenure is measured using the number of months that team members have been working in their teams. Individual team tenure is averaged to the team level.

3.5.6.4 Team Size

Team size is selected as a control variable in this research because previous studies found that team size is a significant predictor of various team

outcomes (S. S. Kim & Vandenberghe, 2017; Lisak, Erez, Sui, & Lee, 2016; G. K. Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt, & Jonsen, 2010). In particular, researchers found that the success of team innovation was determined by team size (Desivilya, Somech, & Lidgoster, 2010; Eisenbeiss, van Knippenberg, & Boerner, 2008; Hossain, 2015; Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; Namkuk Kim, Kim, & Lee, 2015; Stewart, 2006; Weiss & Hoegl, 2016). For example, Namkuk Kim, Kim, and Lee (2015) argued that team size can significantly determine the rate of innovation success. Given a bigger pool of knowledge and other resources such as time, energy, and expertise of members at their disposal, teams with a greater number of members tended to achieve a higher rate of innovation (Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; Kearney, Gebert, & Voelpel, 2009; Stewart, 2006). On the other hand, some scholars argued that smaller team size can facilitate a greater rate of innovation (Blank & Naveh, 2014; Sethi & Sethi, 2009; Weiss & Hoegl, 2016). For example, Tucker (2017) stated that smaller teams tend to gain a higher rate of innovation because communication effectiveness within teams starts to decline when teams have more than five members, and they tend to lose their team engagement. There is also empirical evidence confirming the association between team size and team innovation (Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; West, Borrill, Dawson, Brodbeck, Shapiro, & Haward, 2003). For instance, Peltokorpi and Hasu (2014a) confirmed that team size was positively related to team innovation of a multi-technological contract research organization providing high-end technology solutions and innovation services to their customers. Y. Jiang and Chen (2018) found a negative relationship between team size and team innovation, which means that smaller teams tend to achieve a higher rate of innovation. Team size is measured by the total number of team members.

3.5.6.5 Team Task Interdependence

Team task interdependence within teams is selected as another control variable. Task interdependence has been argued to be associated with team innovation (De Dreu, 2006; Desivilya, Somech, & Lidgoster, 2010; W. Jiang, Gu, & Wang, 2015). Team task interdependence is measured using a three-item scale adopted from Campion, Medsker, and Higgs (1993). The scale was shown to have good reliability and validity in previous studies (Aubé & Rousseau, 2005; Barnett & McCormick, 2016; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003a; LeDoux, 2009; Rossi, 2008). All items are rated

on five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The scores at the individual level are averaged to create the mean score at the team level. All questionnaire items are listed below:

1) I cannot accomplish my task knowledge-sharing without information or materials from other members of my team.

2) Other members on my team depend on me for the information or materials needed to perform their task knowledge-sharing.

3) Within my team, jobs performed by team members are related to one another.

3.6 Data Analysis Method

To test the hypotheses proposed in this study, partial least squares (PLS) regression is used for data analysis. PLS generalizes and combines features from principal component analysis and multiple regression (Abdi, 2003). It has been applied as an important research tool in many different areas of social science research such as psychology (Charoensukmongkol, 2016b; Charoensukmongkol & Aumeboonsuke, 2017; Nongpong & Charoensukmongkol, 2016), international business (Nicole Franziska Richter, Sinkovics, Ringle, & Schlaegel, 2016), management (Charoensukmongkol, 2017; Puyod & Charoensukmongkol, 2019b; Nicole F Richter, Cepeda, Roldán, & Ringle, 2015, 2016; Tanchaitranon & Charoensukmongkol, 2016), marketing (Charoensukmongkol & Sasatanun, 2017; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012; Sasatanun & Charoensukmongkol, 2016), and tourism and hospitality (Ali, Rasoolimanesh, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Ryu, 2018; do Valle & Assaker, 2016).

There are several reasons why PLS is appropriate and chosen for data analysis in this study: First, PLS is known for its capability to predict a set of dependent variables from a large set of independent variables, or test multiple hypotheses simultaneously that can well facilitate this research, which has a complex model of study investigating associations of many latent variables (Abdi, 2003; Charoensukmongkol, 2019b; Charoensukmongkol & Sasatanun, 2017; F. Hair Jr, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & G. Kuppelwieser, 2014; Joseph F Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, &

Sarstedt, 2016; Tarsakoo & Charoensukmongkol, 2019). This is the main reason why PLS is suitable for this research. Second, PLS requires a smaller sample size than other techniques. This feature of PLS suits this research well since it emphasizes on team-level analysis, so its sample size will be considerably smaller than those focusing on individual-level analysis. (Joseph F Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016; Kock, 2011). Third, PLS does not require normally distributed data, so it requires fewer statistical specifications than the covariance-based strategy (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Kock, 2013). Furthermore, PLS analysis is performed by using WarpPLS version 6.0 (Kock, 2017).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Data

This chapter presents a series of characteristics of the data collected in this study including demographic characteristics of the samples, details of how the data were collected, prepared, and analyzed, and the results of hypotheses testing.

The data were collected from teams under the conditions that one chef or manager who is in charge of the team completes a set of questionnaires designed especially for supervisors and the rest of the team members complete the other set of questionnaires designed for staff. The questionnaires were distributed in both paper and online forms. The paper questionnaires were distributed in a package including (1) a copy of the cover letter to introduce the researcher and inform about the study, (2) a copy of instruction in detail on how the data collection would proceed, and (3) questionnaires for supervisor and staff. Because the target samples of this research are multinational teams that require at least three members with different nationalities in each team, the restaurants had to be pre-screened to meet this criterion before they were selected for data collection. At the start of the project, the researcher approached managers, or owners of restaurants located in Bangkok, Chiangmai, Pattaya, Krabi, and Phuket to ask whether their teams comprise members that meet this criterion. HR managers, restaurant owners, chefs, and managers who had the authorization to make the decision for their teams were approached to request permission for the teams to participate in the study. Participation in the survey was conducted on a voluntary basis. After permission was granted, they were given options to complete the questionnaires on either paper or online. Packages of paper questionnaires were distributed to team supervisors. They were asked to distribute the questionnaires, including the one to be filled by themselves as team supervisors. The paper questionnaire packages were distributed in June 2018. The questionnaire data

collection was anonymous. Participants were not required to report their names, and there is no item that could refer to their identity at work. Team members of the participating teams were asked to complete their questionnaires in their private time over a few days. In order to ensure confidentiality and anonymity, the participants were also asked to return their completed questionnaires in the sealed envelopes which were provided. It took one month on average to retrieve the completed questionnaires. For teams whose owner or manager preferred their staff to complete questionnaires online, the link to the online survey was distributed to them by email and also social media such as Line and Facebook. It took, on average, one week to receive the data after the request. The questionnaire distribution was completed in September 2018; however, overall, the data collection was not completed until November 2018: a total of six months.

The researcher initially planned to collect data from 100 multicultural teams working in restaurants located in the five most popular tourist cities: Bangkok, Chiangmai, Pattaya, Krabi, and Phuket. A total of 195 teams was asked to participate in the study. Among them, 120 teams were asked to complete the paper questionnaires, and 75 teams were asked to complete the online questionnaires. After the process of data collection was over, the data from 103 teams were returned. Among them, 53 were in paper form and 48 in an online form. The total response rate for both paper-based and online survey was 52.82%.

Even though some items were left unanswered, the amount of missing data still accounted for much lower than 10% of the total number of questionnaire items. According to Little and Rubin (2014), in the case of missing raw data of less than 10%, the missing data can be replaced by the mean of each column. Since this research emphasizes the team level, the raw data at the individual level had to be computed and summarized to the team level prior to the analysis. Instead of using the mean of overall raw data at the individual level, the mean of other members in the same team was used. Basic personal information items of the participants, such as gender, age, ethnicity, nationality, number of years at work, team tenure, and number of years with the supervisor, are reported in Tables 4.1 to 4.9.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics

The data were collected in both individual and team levels. The demographic characteristics of each level are reported as follows:

At the individual level, the respondents were divided into two groups which were supervisors and staff. The data reported in this level were gender, age, ethnicity, nationality, number of years at work, team tenure, number of years with supervisor, and team type in order. All of them were reported for both supervisor and staff groups except the number of years with a supervisor, which was only reported for the staff group. At the team level, only two data items were reported, which were team size and team type.

4.2.1 Individual-level Data

From all 620 respondents, 370 (60 percent) are male and 250 (40 percent) are female. And out of 103 supervisors, there are 91 male respondents (88.35 percent) and 12 female respondents (11.65 percent). Among 517 staff, there are 279 male respondents (53.97 percent) and 238 female respondents (46.03 percent).

Table 4.1 Gender of the Respondents in Both Supervisor and Staff Groups

Variables	Categories	Supervisor		Staff		Total	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	91	88.35	279	53.97	370	60
	Female	12	11.65	238	46.03	250	40
	Total	103	100	517	100	620	100

Age is reported in the form of minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation for both groups. Supervisors' age ranges between 24 to 58 years old with a mean value of 40, and standard deviation equal to 7.7 (none of the supervisor respondents, or 0 percent, refused to report their age). Age of staff ranges from 18 to 51 years old with the mean value of 28.21, and standard deviation equal to 6.58 (there were 2 staff respondents, or 0.004 percent, who did not report their age).

Table 4.2 Age of the Respondents in both Supervisor and Staff Groups

Variable (Age)	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Supervisor	24	58	40	7.7
Staff	18	51	28.21	6.58

The body of 620 respondents represents a diversity of ethnicity, 77 (12.42 percent) of them are white, 13 (2.10 percent) of them are black, 8 (1.29 percent) of them are Hispanic, 516 (83.23 percent) of them are Asian, 5 (0.81 percent) of them are Pacific Islander, and 1 (0.16 percent) of them is 'others'. For supervisors, 103 respondents, 37 respondents (35.92 percent) are white, 3 respondents (2.91 percent) are Hispanic, 61 respondents (59.22 percent) are Asian, and 2 respondents (1.95 percent) are Pacific Islander. At staff level, 517 respondents, 40 respondents (7.74 percent) are white, 13 respondents (2.51 percent) are black, 5 respondents (0.97 percent) are Hispanic, 455 respondents (88.01 percent) are Asian, 3 respondents (0.58 percent) are Pacific Islander, and 1 respondent (0.19 percent) is 'others'.

Table 4.3 Ethnicity of Respondents in both Supervisor and Staff Groups

Variables	Categories	Supervisor		Staff		Total	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ethnicity	White	37	35.92	40	7.74	77	12.42
	Black	0	0	13	2.51	13	2.10
	Hispanic	3	2.91	5	0.97	8	1.29
	Asian	61	59.22	455	88.01	516	83.23
	Pacific Islander	2	1.95	3	0.58	5	0.81
	Others	0	0	1	0.19	1	0.16
	Total	103	100	517	100	620	100.01

The respondents in both level groups represent 55 nationalities from all over the world. Out of the total number of 620 respondents, the majority is Thai, which count for 307 (49.52 percent), followed by Filipino: 41 respondents (6.61 percent).

Among the supervisors, Thai has the highest number of 25 respondents (24.27 percent) followed by American with 12 respondents (11.65 percent). At the staff level, Thai is also the highest with 282 respondents (54.55 percent) followed by Filipino with 38 respondents (7.35 percent).

Table 4.4 Nationality of Respondents in both Supervisor and Staff Groups

Variables	Categories	Supervisor		Staff		Total	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Nationality	Albanian		0.00	1	0.19	1	0.16
	American	12	11.65	4	0.77	16	2.58
	Australian	3	2.91	3	0.58	6	0.97
	Austrian		0.00	1	0.19	1	0.16
	Bangladeshi		0.00	3	0.58	3	0.48
	Brazilian	1	0.97		0.00	1	0.16
	British	1	0.97	1	0.19	2	0.32
	Cambodian		0.00	4	0.77	4	0.65
	Cameroonian		0.00	1	0.19	1	0.16
	Canadian	2	1.94		0.00	2	0.32
	Chinese	1	0.97	18	3.48	19	3.06
	Danish	1	0.97		0.00	1	0.16
	Dominican		0.00	4	0.77	4	0.65
	Ecuadorian		0.00	1	0.19	1	0.16
	Egyptian	1	0.97	1	0.19	2	0.32
	Filipino	3	2.91	38	7.35	41	6.61
	French	2	1.94	3	0.58	5	0.81
	German	3	2.91	2	0.39	5	0.81
	Greek	1	0.97	1	0.19	2	0.32
	Guamanian		0.00	1	0.19	1	0.16
	Hong Kong	6	5.83	2	0.39	8	1.29
	Indian	4	3.88	6	1.16	10	1.61
	Indonesian		0.00	14	2.71	14	2.26
	Iranian	1	0.97	2	0.39	3	0.48
	Irish	0	0.00	1	0.19	1	0.16
	Italian	1	0.97	2	0.39	3	0.48
	Jamaican		0.00	1	0.19	1	0.16

Variables	Categories	Supervisor		Staff		Total	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
	Japanese	10	9.71	7	1.35	17	2.74
	Jordanian		0.00	1	0.19	1	0.16
	Kazakh	1	0.97		0.00	1	0.16
	Korean	1	0.97	2	0.39	3	0.48
	Laotian	1	0.97		0.00	1	0.16
	Malaysian	2	1.94	18	3.48	20	3.23
	Mexican		0.00	3	0.58	3	0.48
	Mongolian		0.00	5	0.97	5	0.81
	Moroccan	1	0.97		0.00	1	0.16
	Myanmar		0.00	20	3.87	20	3.23
	Nepali		0.00	5	0.97	5	0.81
	New Zealand	1	0.97		0.00	1	0.16
	Norwegian	1	0.97		0.00	1	0.16
	Porto Rican		0.00	1	0.19	1	0.16
	Russian	2	1.94	12	2.32	14	2.26
	Scottish		0.00	1	0.19	1	0.16
	Singaporean		0.00	4	0.77	4	0.65
	Spanish	3	2.91	1	0.19	4	0.65
	Swedish	1	0.97	2	0.39	3	0.48
	Swiss	6	5.83	1	0.19	7	1.13
	Taiwanese	3	2.91	9	1.74	12	1.94
	Thai	25	24.27	282	54.55	307	49.52
	Turkish	1	0.97	3	0.58	4	0.65
	Ukrainian		0.00	4	0.77	4	0.65
	Uzbek		0.00	1	0.19	1	0.16
	Vietnamese		0.00	15	2.90	15	2.42
	Welsh	1	0.97		0.00	1	0.16
	Zimbabwean		0.00	1	0.19	1	0.16
	Not Specified		0.00	4	0.77	4	0.65
	Total	103	100.00	517	100.00	620.00	100.00

Besides these characteristics of the respondents, the period they have been at work is presented in Table 4.5. Out of all 620 respondents, 90 respondents (14.52 percent) have worked at their workplace for less than 1 year. 106 respondents (17.10 percent) have worked at their workplace for 1 year. 133 respondents (21.45 percent)

have worked at their workplace for 2 years. 105 respondents (16.94 percent) have worked at their workplace for 3 years. 60 respondents (9.68 percent) have worked at their workplace for 4 years. 12 respondents (1.94 percent) have worked at their workplace for 5 years. 110 respondents (17.74 percent) joined their team for more than 5 years before. And out of these respondents, there are 4 of them (0.65 percent) left blank.

Among supervisors, 6 respondents (5.83 percent) have worked at their workplace for less than 1 year. 4 respondents (3.88 percent) have worked at their workplace for 1 year. 11 respondents (10.68 percent) have worked at their workplace for 2 years. 18 respondents (17.48 percent) have worked at their workplace for 3 years. 13 respondents (12.62 percent) have worked at their workplace for 4 years. 7 respondents (6.80 percent) have worked at their workplace for 5 years. 44 respondents (42.72 percent) have worked at their workplace for longer than 5 years. At the staff level, 84 respondents (16.25 percent) have worked at their workplace for less than 1 year. 102 respondents (19.73 percent) have worked at their workplace for 1 year. 122 respondents (23.60 percent) have worked at their workplace for 2 years. 87 respondents (16.83 percent) have worked at their workplace for 3 years. 47 respondents (9.09 percent) have worked at their workplace for 4 years. 5 respondents (0.97 percent) have worked at their workplace for 5 years. 66 respondents (12.77 percent) joined their team for more than 5 years before. And out of these staff respondents, there are 4 of them (0.77 percent) left blank.

Table 4.5 Number of Years at Work of Respondents in both Supervisor and Staff Groups

Variables	**Categories**	**Supervisor**		**Staff**		**Total**	
		Frequency	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**
Time at work	Less than 1 year	6	5.83	84	16.25	90	14.52
	1 year	4	3.88	102	19.73	106	17.10
	2 years	11	10.68	122	23.60	133	21.45
	3 years	18	17.48	87	16.83	105	16.94
	4 years	13	12.62	47	9.09	60	9.68
	5 years	7	6.80	5	0.97	12	1.94

Variables	Categories	Supervisor		Staff		Total	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
	More than 5 years	44	42.72	66	12.77	110	17.74
	Not specified			4	0.77	4	0.65
	Total	103	100.01	517	100.01	620	100.02

The period they have been in their team is presented in Table 4.6 below. With a total of 620 respondents, 97 respondents (15.65 percent) have been in their team for less than 1 year. 110 respondents (17.74 percent) have been in their team for 1 year. 124 respondents (20.00 percent) have been in their team for 2 years. 117 respondents (18.87 percent) have been in their team for 3 years. 47 respondents (7.58 percent) have been in their team for 4 years. 15 respondents (2.42 percent) have worked at their workplace for 5 years. 105 respondents (16.94 percent) have worked at their workplace for longer than 5 years. And out of these respondents, there are 5 of them (0.81 percent) left blank. (100.01%)

Among supervisors, 9 respondents (8.74 percent) have been in their team for less than 1 year. 4 respondents (3.88 percent) have been in their team for 1 year. 12 respondents (11.65 percent) have been in their team for 2 years. 20 respondents (19.42 percent) have worked at their workplace for 3 years. 9 respondents (8.74 percent) have worked at their workplace for 4 years. 8 respondents (7.77 percent) have worked at their workplace for 5 years. 41 respondents (39.81 percent) have worked at their workplace for longer than 5 years. (100.01%) At the staff level, 88 respondents (17.02 percent) have worked at their workplace for less than 1 year. 106 respondents (20.50 percent) have been in their team for 1 year. 112 respondents (21.66 percent) have been in their team for 2 years. 97 respondents (18.76 percent) have been in their team for 3 years. 38 respondents (7.35 percent) have been in their team for 4 years. 7 respondents (1.35 percent) have worked at their workplace for 5 years. 64 respondents (12.38 percent) have worked at their workplace for longer than 5 years. And out of these staff respondents, there are 5 of them (0.97 percent) left blank. (99.99%)

Table 4.6 Number of Years with a Team of Respondents in both Supervisor and Staff Groups

Variables	Categories	Supervisor		Staff		Total	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Time with team	Less than 1 year	9	8.74	88	17.02	97	15.65
	1 year	4	3.88	106	20.50	110	17.74
	2 years	12	11.65	112	21.66	124	20.00
	3 years	20	19.42	97	18.76	117	18.87
	4 years	9	8.74	38	7.35	47	7.58
	5 years	8	7.77	7	1.35	15	2.42
	More than 5 years	41	39.81	64	12.38	105	16.94
	Not specified		0.00	5	0.97	5	0.81
	Total	103	100.01	517	99.99	620	100.01

The period staff respondents have been under their current supervisors is presented in Table 4.7 below. 104 respondents (20.12 percent) have with their boss for less than 1 year. 97 respondents (18.76 percent) have been under the supervision of their supervisors for 1 year. 129 respondents (24.95 percent) have worked with their supervisors for 2 years. 107 respondents (20.70 percent) have worked for their boss for 3 years. 30 respondents (5.80 percent) have been in their bosses for 4 years. 6 respondents (1.16 percent) have been with their bosses for 5 years. 41 respondents (7.93 percent) have stayed with the same boss for longer than 5 years. And out of these staff respondents, there are 3 of them (0.58 percent) left blank.

Table 4.7 Number of Years with the Boss of Respondents in Staff Groups

Variables	Categories	Staff	
		Frequency	%
Time with current supervisor	Less than 1 year	104	20.12
	1 year	97	18.76
	2 years	129	24.95
	3 years	107	20.70
	4 years	30	5.80
	5 years	6	1.16

Variables	Categories	Staff	
		Frequency	%
	More than 5 years	41	7.93
	Not specified	3	0.58
	Total	517	100

4.2.2 Team-level Data

Team size is reported in the form of minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation. Team size ranges between 3 to 75 team members with a mean value of 16.54, and the standard deviation equals 13.85.

Table 4.8 Team Size

Variable (Team size)	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Team	3	75	16.54	13.85

From 620 respondents, 274 (44.19 percent) of them work for culinary teams and 344 (55.81 percent) of them work for service teams. Out of 103 supervisors, there are 48 respondents (46.60 percent) working for culinary teams and 55 respondents (53.40 percent) working for service teams. Among 517 staff respondents, there are 226 respondents (43.71 percent) working for culinary teams and 291 respondents (56.29 percent) working for service teams. At the team level, from a total of 103 teams, 48 respondents (46.60 percent) work for culinary teams and 55 respondents (53.40 percent) work for service teams.

Table 4.9 Types of the Teams to Which the Respondents in both Supervisor and Staff Groups belong

Variables	Categories	Supervisor		Staff		Total		Team	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Team type	Culinary	48	46.60	226	43.71	274	44.19	48	46.60
	Service	55	53.40	291	56.29	346	55.81	55	53.40
	Total	103	100	517	100	620	100	103	100

4.3 Measurement Model Assessment

Prior to the main part the analysis, reliability, validity, and multicollinearity tests are required to ensure that the collected data are sufficiently valid, reliable, and not suffering from serious multicollinearity issues for the further analysis (F. Hair Jr, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & G. Kuppelwieser, 2014; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012; Joseph F Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016). In this study, two types of validity tests were conducted which were convergent and discriminant validity; these two assessments are performed to confirm the validity of the measurement model. Moreover, two types of reliability indicators were evaluated which were Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability. These two indicators are used to ensure an acceptable level of reliability. Lastly, the full collinearity Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) is used to indicate whether the data has serious multicollinearity issues.

4.3.1 Validity Test

The validity testing evaluates how well the constructs are measured (Joseph F Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016). Bolarinwa (2015) stated that validity tests help ensure that the questions used in the questionnaires accurately measure what they are supposed to measure. Therefore, researchers are required to perform a validity test on all sets of questions employed in their studies. There are two types of construct validity which are convergent and discriminant validity (Ali, Rasoolimanesh, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Ryu, 2018; Joseph F Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016).

4.3.1.1 Convergent Validity Test

According to Hair, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2011), convergent validity evaluates how well questions or indicators measure their constructs. The correlation among the question items measuring the same construct is expected to be high (Ab Hamid, Sami, & Sidek, 2017). The convergent validity can be examined by using factor loading values. The ideal value of factor loadings is 0.7 or above (Hair, 2010). However, a value of factor loading above 0.5 is considered an acceptable level of convergent validity (Chin, 1998; F. Hair Jr, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & G. Kuppelwieser, 2014; Jayasinghe-Mudalige, Udugama, & Ikram, 2012).

The test of factor loadings and cross-loadings of 16 question items measuring the 4 elements of team CQ, including metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ was conducted. The result presents the ideal level of convergent validity since all the factor loadings range from 0.707 to 0.920, all of which are higher than 0.7. Relationship conflict has 4 items; all of them have factor loadings ranging from 0.942 to 0.961, which are higher than 0.7. Intra-team trust has 6 items; all of their factor loadings range from 0.891 to 0.943, which are higher than 0.7. Team knowledge-sharing was assessed with 4 items; all of them have factor loadings ranging from 0.936 to 0.967, which are higher than 0.7. Team innovation was measured using 4 items; they all have factor loadings ranging from 0.816 to 0.867, which are higher than 0.7. Moreover, team task interdependence was measured with 3 items; they all have factor loadings ranging from 0.926 to 0.928, which are higher than 0.7. Therefore, given that all factor loadings are above 0.7, all questionnaire items are ideally valid to be used as indicators for this analysis. The values of factor loadings and cross-loadings of all question items are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 The Combined Factor Loadings and Cross-loadings of all Constructs Including Team CQ, Team Conflict, Team Trust, Team Innovation, Team Interdependence, Gender Ratio, average Age, average Team Tenure, and Team Size

Variables	Team CQ	Team conflict	Team trust	Knowledge-sharing	Team innovation	Team task interdependence
TMCCQ1	**(0.896)**	-0.022	0.076	-0.372	0.033	-0.164
TMCCQ2	**(0.903)**	0.049	0.136	-0.408	0.216	-0.192
TMCCQ3	**(0.912)**	-0.041	-0.014	-0.155	-0.057	-0.068
TMCCQ4	**(0.888)**	-0.026	0.189	-0.198	-0.075	-0.155
TCCQ1	**(0.707)**	-0.170	0.132	-0.224	-0.201	0.171
TCCQ2	**(0.791)**	-0.068	0.453	-0.201	-0.234	0.192
TCCQ3	**(0.800)**	-0.067	0.284	-0.345	-0.003	0.191
TCCQ4	**(0.850)**	-0.183	0.146	-0.154	-0.228	0.281
TMCQ1	**(0.913)**	-0.099	0.239	-0.199	-0.029	-0.157
TMCQ2	**(0.890)**	-0.046	-0.040	-0.009	-0.024	-0.110
TMCQ3	**(0.913)**	-0.046	-0.116	0.074	0.106	-0.087
TMCQ4	**(0.920)**	-0.049	-0.020	-0.020	0.036	0.042
TBCQ1	**(0.820)**	0.213	-0.365	0.539	0.104	-0.134
TBCQ2	**(0.843)**	0.222	-0.281	0.572	0.074	-0.047

Variables	Team CQ	Team conflict	Team trust	Knowledge-sharing	Team innovation	Team task interdependence
TBCQ3	**(0.865)**	0.167	-0.322	0.468	0.154	0.114
TBCQ4	**(0.869)**	0.151	-0.452	0.637	0.062	0.219
CONF1	-0.145	**(0.951)**	0.104	0.099	-0.034	-0.049
CONF2	0.125	**(0.942)**	-0.114	-0.050	0.007	0.006
CONF3	0.133	**(0.961)**	0.030	-0.139	0.121	-0.111
CONF4	-0.114	**(0.943)**	-0.022	0.092	-0.095	0.157
TRUST1	0.008	-0.034	**(0.938)**	0.014	0.057	0.004
TRUST2	-0.021	-0.092	**(0.941)**	0.081	0.041	0.040
TRUST3	0.147	0.068	**(0.920)**	0.131	0.009	-0.041
TRUST4	0.056	-0.023	**(0.937)**	0.021	-0.025	-0.012
TRUST5	-0.095	0.024	**(0.891)**	-0.202	0.019	-0.063
TRUST6	-0.096	0.059	**(0.943)**	-0.053	-0.099	0.068
KS1	0.046	-0.016	0.065	**(0.961)**	-0.010	-0.036
KS2	0.019	0.022	-0.084	**(0.967)**	0.004	0.011
KS3	0.000	0.061	0.050	**(0.962)**	0.035	-0.062
KS4	-0.065	-0.069	-0.031	**(0.936)**	-0.030	0.089
TINNO1	0.113	-0.128	-0.298	0.162	**(0.867)**	0.119
TINNO2	0.004	0.093	-0.105	0.342	**(0.849)**	0.072
TINNO3	-0.131	-0.056	0.214	-0.141	**(0.857)**	-0.130
TINNO4	0.013	0.098	0.202	-0.379	**(0.816)**	-0.066
TIND1	-0.084	-0.071	0.025	-0.010	-0.071	**(0.928)**
TIND2	-0.011	0.010	0.097	-0.111	0.039	**(0.926)**
TIND3	0.095	0.061	-0.122	0.121	0.032	**(0.928)**

Note: TMCCQ = team metacognitive CQ, TCCQ = team cognitive, TMCQ = team motivational CQ, TBCQ = team behavioral CQ, CONF = relationship conflict, TRUST = intra-team trust, KS = team knowledge-sharing, TINNO = team innovation, TIND = team task interdependence

4.3.1.2 Discriminant Validity Test

The discriminant validity evaluates how well a construct discriminates from others, thus the intercorrelations between constructs are expected to be low (Ali, Rasoolimanesh, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Ryu, 2018; Farrell, 2010). The discriminant validity can be tested by evaluating the value of Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of all constructs (Ab Hamid, Sami, & Sidek, 2017; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), the discriminant validity is present when the square root of AVE of each construct is higher than other correlations involving that particular construct. The results of the discriminant validity test of all constructs are reported in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Correlation among Constructs VS. Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Variables	TCQ	CONF	TRUST	KS	TINNO	TIND	GEN	AGE	TENURE	MEMBER
TCQ	**(0.863)**									
CONF	-0.560	**(0.949)**								
TRUST	0.811**	-0.543**	**(0.929)**							
KS	0.793**	-0.596**	0.837**	**(0.957)**						
TINNO	0.655**	-0.598**	0.591**	0.636**	**(0.848)**					
TIND	0.540**	-0.386**	0.521**	0.388**	0.434**	**(0.927)**				
GENDER	0.156	-0.204*	0.111	0.107	0.098	0.234*	**(1.000)**			
AGE	0.346**	-0.286**	0.314**	0.275**	0.188	0.324**	0.371**	**(1.000)**		
TENURE	0.297**	-0.061	0.218*	0.150	0.121	0.289*	0.283*	0.521**	**(1.000)**	
SIZE	-0.134	0.213*	-0.181	-0.265**	0.063	-0.175	-0.238*	-0.172	-0.023	**(1.000)**

Note: TCQ = team CQ, CONF = relationship conflict, TRUST = intra-team trust, KS = team knowledge-sharing, TINNO = team innovation, TIND = team task interdependence, GEN = gender ratio, TENURE = team tenure, MEMBER = team size
* p-value < 0.05, ** p-value < 0.01
The square root values of AVE are displayed in the parentheses.

4.3.2 Reliability Test

The reliability test is required to ensure the adequate quality of a measurement instrument used in research. The question items measuring a construct should be consistent with one another by producing the same or similar results and understood in the same way by all respondents. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), the reliability of a measurement instrument can be measured using two values which are the Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability.

4.3.2.1 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient

Cronbach's alpha is a convenient indicator used to estimate the reliability or internal consistency of scales and constructs (F. Hair Jr, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & G. Kuppelwieser, 2014). It measures whether a scale is reliable under the assumption that all question items measure the same construct. It ranges from 0 to 1, and its acceptable value is recommended at 0.7 and above (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

4.3.2.2 Composite Reliability

Composite reliability is an alternative way to assess the internal consistency of scales recommended by scholars to perform in PLS analysis since it brings factor-loading values into consideration (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). According to Joe F Hair Jr, Matthews, Matthews, and Sarstedt (2017), the acceptable value of composite reliability is also recommended at 0.7 and higher.

In this research, both Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability were conducted to examine the reliability of the research model. The results show that the Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability of all constructs are higher than 0.7. Therefore, the scales used to measure all of the constructs in this research are reliable. The results of Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability of all constructs are presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient and Composite Reliability of all Constructs Including Team CQ, Team Conflict, Team Trust, Team Innovation, And Team Interdependence

	TCQ	CONF	TRUST	KS	TINNO	TIND
Cronbach's alpha (α)	0.977	0.964	0.968	0.969	0.869	0.918
Composite reliability (CR)	0.979	0.973	0.974	0.977	0.911	0.948

Note: TCQ = team CQ, CONF = relationship conflict, TRUST = intra-team trust, KS = team knowledge-sharing, TINNO = team innovation, TIND = team task interdependence

4.3.3 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is a statistical phenomenon that two or more constructs in a research model are highly correlated (Farrar & Glauber, 1967; Mansfield & Helms, 1982; Yoo, Mayberry, Bae, Singh, He, & Lillard Jr, 2014). In PLS analysis, the full collinearity Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) is widely used as an indicator to examine whether a research model has serious multicollinearity issues (Kalnins, 2018; Kock & Lynn, 2012). According to Kock and Lynn (2012), the full collinearity VIFs is a more robust indicator of multicollinearity issues compared with the traditional VIF since it assesses both vertical and lateral collinearity simultaneously. Moreover, the full collinearity VIFs can also be used to investigate whether the model has the possibility of common method bias (CMB) (Kock & Lynn, 2012). Kock (2017) suggested that if the value of full collinearity VIFs is higher than 3.3, there is a high possibility of multicollinearity issues. The results show that most constructs have full collinearity VIFs with a value lower than 3.3, except team CQ (4.117), intra-team trust (4.483), and team knowledge-sharing (4.922). However, it is still considered acceptable since all values are still lower than 5, which is still considered a more relaxed criterion for the average full variance inflation factor (Kock, 2017). The results of full collinearity VIFs are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13 Full Collinearity VIFs Statistics of all Variables

	TCQ	CONF	TRUST	KS	TINNO	TIND	GEN	AGE	TENURE	MEMBER
Full VIF	4.117	1.971	4.483	4.922	2.446	1.708	1.267	1.636	1.538	1.358

Note: TCQ = team CQ, CONF = relationship conflict, TRUST = intra-team trust, KS = team knowledge-sharing, TINNO = team innovation, TIND = team task interdependence, GEN = gender ratio, TENURE = team tenure, MEMBER = team size

4.3.4 Normal Distribution

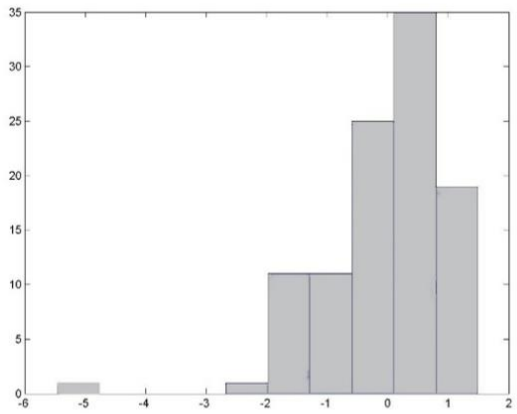
To examine the normality of the data, WarpPLS 6.0 provides two tests for normality, which are the Jarque-Bera test of normality (Normal-JB) and Robust Jarque-Bera test of (Normal-RJB). The results indicate that none of the main variables is normally distributed as shown in Table 4.14 below.

Table 4.14 The Normalization of the Data

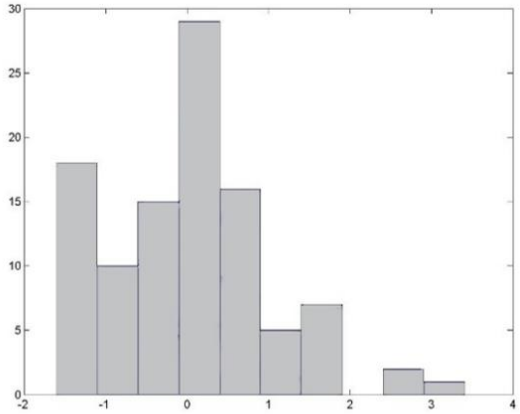
	TCQ	CONF	TRUST	KS	TINNO	TIND	GEN	AGE	TENURE	MEMBER
Normal-JB	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Normal-RJB	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No

Note: TCQ = team CQ, CONF = relationship conflict, TRUST = intra-team trust, KS = team knowledge-sharing, TINNO = team innovation, TIND = team interdependence, GEN = gender ratio, TENURE = team tenure, MEMBER = team size

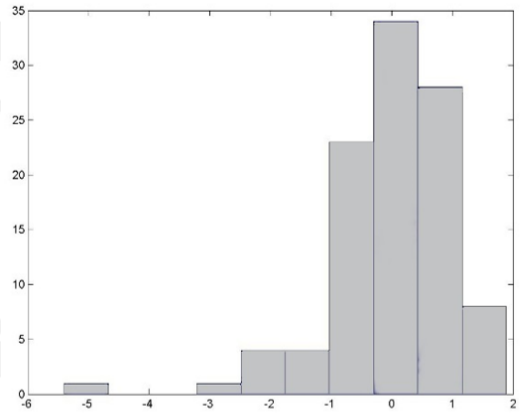
To interpret the results, “Yes” indicates that the data are normally distributed. On the other hand, “No” indicates that the data are not normally distributed. Therefore, the results show that only gender ratio, the average age of team members, and team tenure, which are control variables in this study, are normally distributed while the rest of the variables are not normally distributed. This allows PLS analysis to optimize its features and provide solid support to the assumption that PLS is an appropriate analysis method for this research, in addition to the sample size limitation issue (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012; Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009; Suthatorn & Charoensukmongkol, 2018).



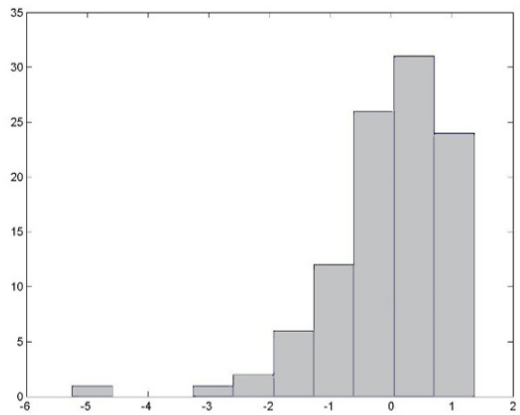
Team Cultural Intelligence



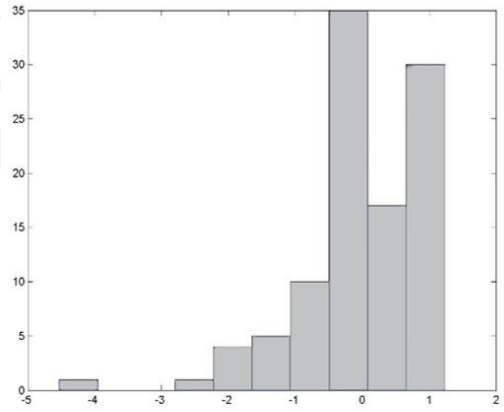
Team Relationship Conflict



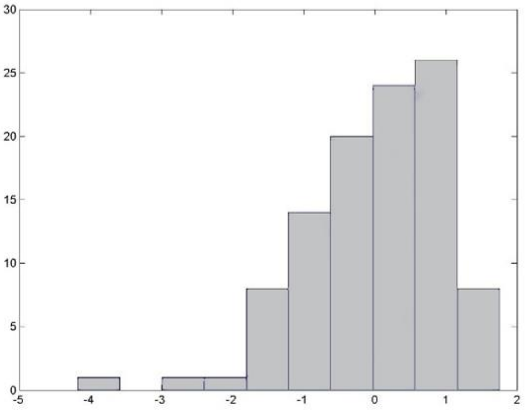
Intra-team Trust



Team Knowledge-sharing



Team Innovation



Team Task Interdependence

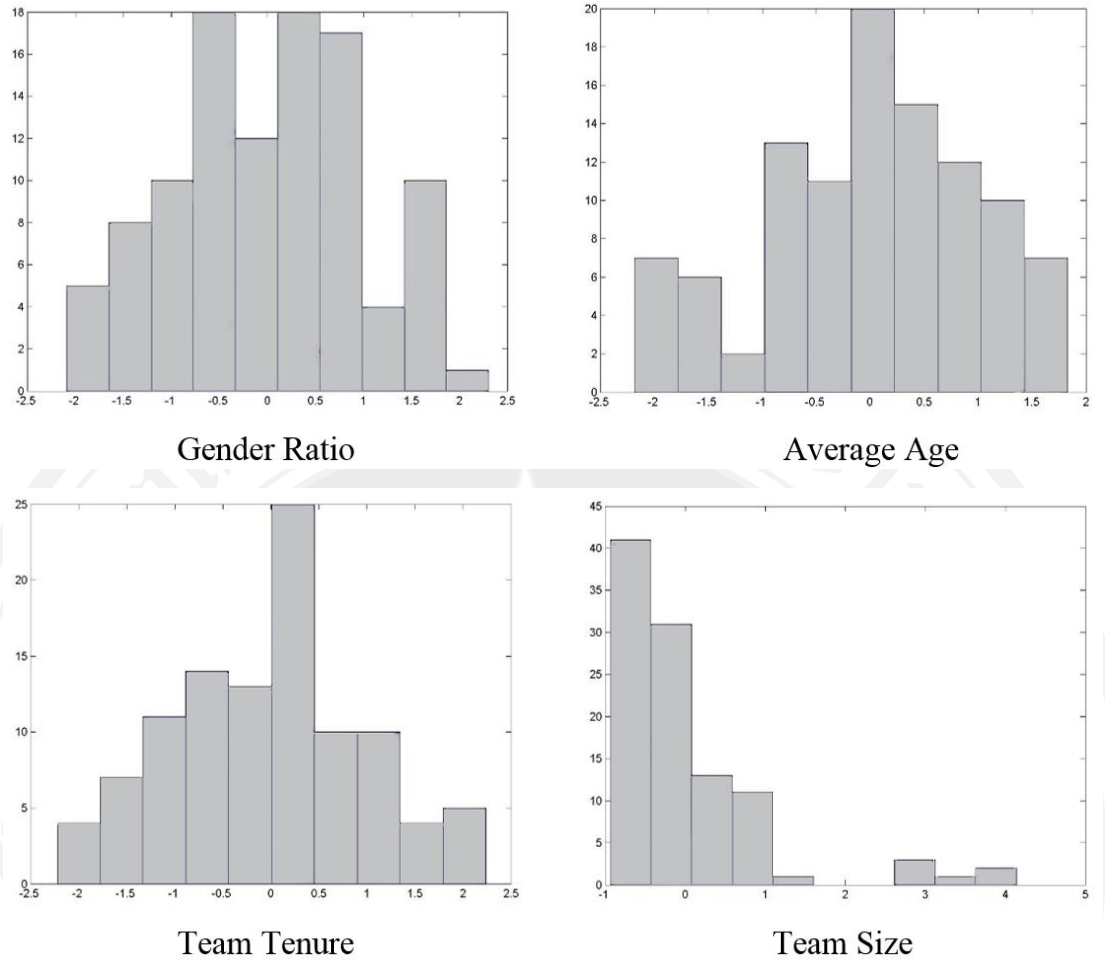


Figure 4.1 The Histograms for Data Distribution

4.4 Structural Regression Model

4.4.1 Test of Hypotheses

In this research, a total of 13 hypotheses were proposed earlier as presented in Table 2.2. The results of all the hypothesis testing computed using the PLS analysis is reported in this section. The terms of measurement used to explain the results are beta coefficient, p-value, and R-square respectively. First, the beta coefficient (β) is widely used as the indicator of the path coefficient in regression analysis. The beta coefficient (β) has two important parts to be considered, which are its sign and value. The sign of the beta coefficient indicates the direction of the relationship. A positive beta

coefficient indicates the positive relationship between two variables; on the other hand, a negative sign indicates a negative relationship between them. The beta coefficient value indicates how strongly two variables are related. Second, the p-value is used to determine whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis proposed. According to Kline (2004), this p-value is generally determined at 0.05 significant level. Hence, if the computed p-value is equal or less than 0.05, the null hypothesis can be rejected, and, at the same time, the alternative hypothesis can be accepted (Kline, 2004, 2015; Rice, 1989). Thus, it can be concluded that the proposed hypothesis is statistically supported. On the other hand, if the computed p-value is higher than 0.05, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, and, therefore, the proposed alternative hypothesis cannot be accepted. Thus it can be concluded that the proposed hypothesis is not statistically supported (Rice, 1989; Sarstedt & Mooi, 2019; Trafimow, 2019). Third, the R-square coefficient, which indicates how much a dependent variable can be explained by all related independent variables. Therefore, the higher the R-square value is, the better explanatory and predictive power the model has.

Another feature of PLS analysis that was applied in this study is using only ranked data for analysis function. This function ranks data prior to the analysis to eliminate outliers without reducing the sample size (Kock, 2017). With the small size of the sample, this function helped this study ensure a better result by eliminating outliers while maintaining the sample size.

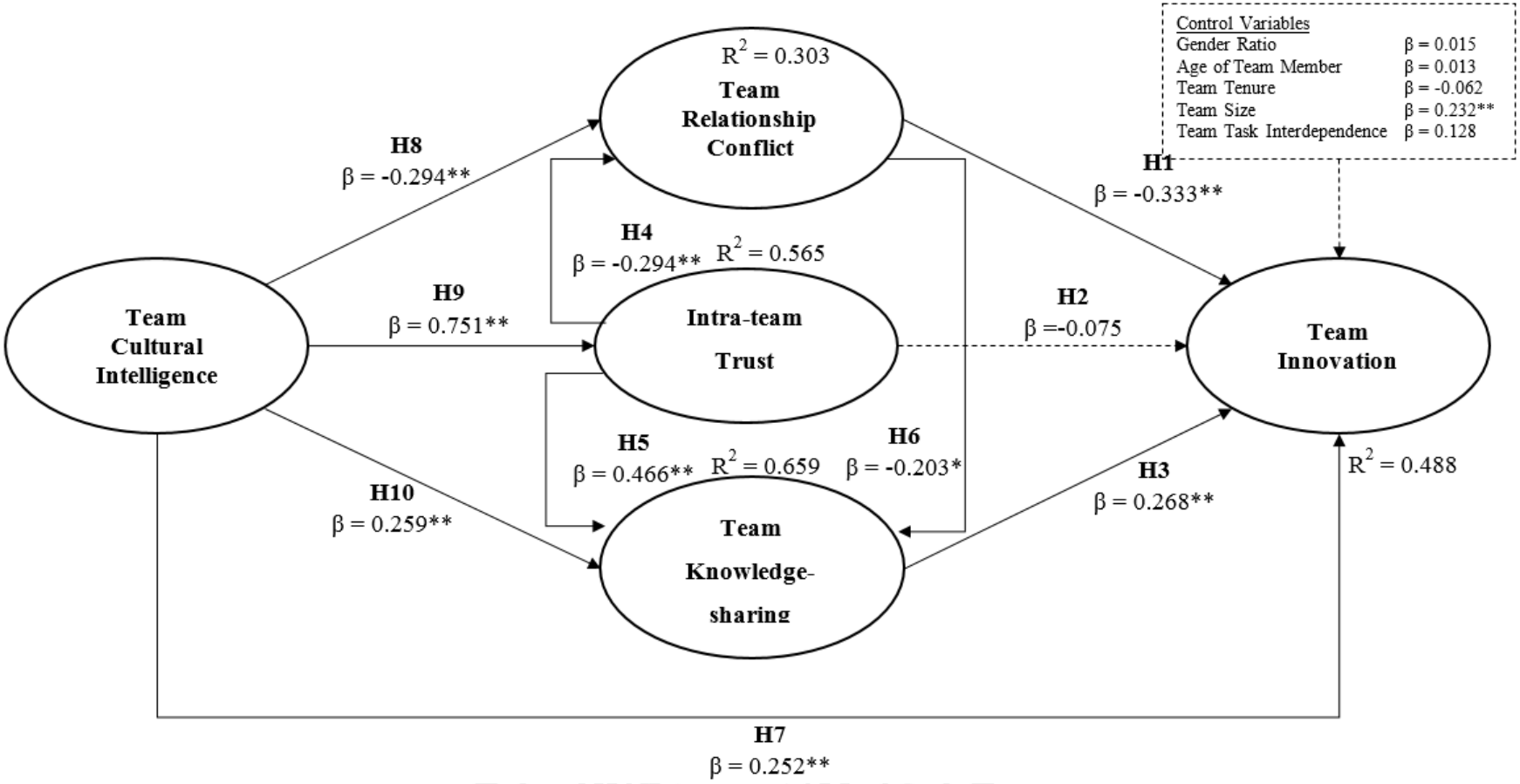


Figure 4.2 Main Model Results

Note: - ** and * means p-value <0.01 and ≤0.05
- Solid lines refer to significant paths and dashed lines refer to non-significant paths

Hypothesis 1: There is a negative association between relationship conflict and team innovation.

The results show that they are negatively related, which means that the teams with a higher level of relationship conflict among their team members tend to be less innovative and produce fewer innovations than those with a lower level of relationship conflict. The result is also significant (β=-0.333; $p<0.001$). This suggests that there is a low potential that their negative association may occur purely by chance. Thus, Hypothesis 1 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive association between intra-team trust and team innovation.

The results show that these two variables are negatively related, which means that teams with a high level of intra-team trust have less innovation than those teams with a higher level of intra-team trust. However, the beta coefficient (β) is small and the p-value is above 0.05 which made this relationship not significant (β=-0.075; $p=0.219$). The sign of the beta coefficient is opposite to the hypothesis. However, this result contradicts the correlation between the two variables which showed that they have a positive correlation, which is also statistically significant ($r=0.591$; $p<0.001$). This contradictory result could possibly be explained by the suppression effect in multiple regression analysis, which can be observed when the association between two variables can be reversed, diminished, or enhanced when another variable is added to the analysis (Tu, Gunnell, & Gilthorpe, 2008). This suppression effect may be caused by the high correlation between two or more independent variables in the model, and one can explain the dependent variable better than others (Lancaster, 1999). Nonetheless, given that the result from PLS estimation is not statistically significant, Hypothesis 2 is not statistically supported.

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive association between team knowledge-sharing and team innovation.

The results reveal a positive relationship between the two variables, which can be interpreted as teams with a higher degree of knowledge-sharing among members who are likely to be more innovative and produce more innovations. The result is significant (β=0.268; $p=0.002$). This suggests that there is a low potential that their

positive relationship would happen accidentally. Hence, Hypothesis 3 is significantly supported.

Hypothesis 4: There is a negative association between intra-team trust and relationship conflict.

The results show a negative relationship between the two variables. This can be interpreted as teams with a higher degree of relationship conflict are likely to have a lower level of trust among their members. The result is significant (β=-0.294; $p<0.001$). This suggests that the negative relationship between intra-team trust and relationship conflict is unlikely to happen by chance. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive association between intra-team trust and team knowledge-sharing.

The results indicate a positive association between the two variables. This means that teams with a high level of trust among their members tend to share more knowledge with one another than those with less trust. This association is significant (β=0.466, $p<0.001$). This means that there is limited opportunity for this positive association to happen by chance. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 6: There is a negative association between relationship conflict and team knowledge-sharing.

The results show that relationship conflict and team knowledge-sharing have a negative association. This means that teams with more relationship conflict among members are likely to share less information among their members. The result is also significant (β=-0.203; $p=0.016$). This tells us that this negative association has a limited possibility to occur by chance. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 7: There is a positive association between CQ and team innovation.

The results confirmed a positive association between the two variables. This finding suggests that teams with higher CQ tend to be more innovative and develop more innovations than teams with lower CQ. This association is proven significant (β=0.252; $p=0.004$). This confirms that it is unlikely that the positive association between these two variables would accidentally happen. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 8: CQ has a negative association with relationship conflict.

The findings confirm a negative relationship between the two variables. This can be interpreted as teams with a higher level of CQ tend to experience less relationship conflict among their members. The relationship is significant (β=-0.294; $p<0.001$). This means that this relationship could hardly occur by chance. Therefore, Hypothesis 8 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 9: CQ has a positive relationship with intra-team trust.

The results confirm that the two variables are positively related. This suggests that teams with higher CQ are likely to have a higher level of trust among their members. The relationship is also significant (β=0.751; $p<0.001$). This also suggests that it is unlikely the positive relationship between team CQ and intra-team trust would happen by chance. Therefore, Hypothesis 9 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 10: CQ is positively associated with team knowledge-sharing.

The results show that the two variables are positively associated. Thus it can be understood that teams with higher CQ tend to do more knowledge-sharing. The findings also showed that the association is significant (t=0.259; p=0.003). This suggests that this positive association has a low potential to occur by chance. Therefore, Hypothesis 10 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 11: Relationship conflict positively mediates the relationship between CQ and team innovation.

The hypotheses that involve the mediating effect are tested using the Sobel test method suggested by Preacher and Hayes (2004). The Sobel test is a specialized t-test that provides a method to determine whether the decrease in the effect of the independent variable, after adding the mediator to the model, is a significant decrease and, therefore, whether the mediation effect is statistically significant (Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008; Preacher & Leonardelli, 2001).

Regarding the hypothesis suggesting that relationship conflict positively mediates the relationship between team CQ and team innovation, the results confirm the positive mediation of relationship conflict, and this result is significant (t=2.433; p=0.015). This finding suggests that team relationship conflict positively mediates the relationship between team CQ and team innovation. Therefore, Hypothesis 11 is statistically supported. In addition, since the direct relationship between team CQ and

team innovation is statistically significant, the mediating effect of relationship conflict is considered as a partial mediation.

Hypothesis 12: Intra-team trust positively mediates the relationship between CQ and team innovation.

The results show the negative mediation of intra-team trust, and this result is not significant (t=-0.770; p=0.440). This finding demonstrates a contradictory sign to the hypothesis proposed; however, it is not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 12 is not statistically supported.

Hypothesis 13: Team knowledge-sharing positively mediates the relationship between CQ and team innovation.

The results confirm the positive mediation of team knowledge-sharing, and this result is significant (t=2.024; p=0.042). This finding indicates that team knowledge-sharing positively mediates the relationship between team CQ and team innovation. Therefore, Hypothesis 13 is statistically supported. In addition, since the direct relationship between team CQ and team innovation is statistically significant, the mediating effect of team knowledge-sharing is considered as a partial mediation.

4.4.2 Additional Analysis

In addition to the main results regarding the mediating effect of relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing that explains the indirect linkage between CQ and team innovation, this study also explores possible interrelation among relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing mediating other relationships that can further explain how teams with high CQ tended to exhibit higher innovative performance. First, it was expected that intra-team trust negatively mediates the relationship between team CQ and relationship conflict. This could be possible because CQ helps team members reduce cultural barriers and any disagreements caused by cultural diversity among members in intercultural teams. CQ fosters trust by enabling team members to have a better understanding of each other which allows them to better predict other members' intentions and actions (Moon, 2013; Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008; Shokef & Erez, 2008; Trong Luu & Rowley, 2016). When members trust each other, they are more likely to better understand each other and are less likely to misinterpret or negatively interpret

behaviors of other members that would lead to relationship conflict among them (R. S. Peterson & Behfar, 2003; Simons & Peterson, 2000). The results from the Sobel test confirm the negative mediation of intra-team trust, and this result is significant (t=-3.050; p=0.002). This finding indicates that intra-team trust negatively mediates the relationship between team CQ and relationship conflict. In addition, since the direct relationship between team CQ and relationship conflict is statistically significant, the mediating effect of team knowledge-sharing is considered as a partial mediation.

Second, it was expected that intra-team trust positively mediates the relationship between team CQ and team knowledge-sharing. Given that CQ promotes trust among members in multicultural teams, trust among members also promotes effective communication and cooperation among team members, and this, as a result, encourages them to share their diverse knowledge and other resources with other members (Erez, Lisak, Harush, Glikson, Nouri, & Shokef, 2013; Fung, 2014; MacCurtain, Flood, Ramamoorthy, West, & Dawson, 2008). The results from the Sobel test confirm the positive mediation of intra-team trust, and this result is significant (t=4.637; p<0.001). This finding indicates that intra-team trust positively mediates the relationship between team CQ and team knowledge-sharing. In addition, since the direct relationship between team CQ and team knowledge-sharing is statistically significant, the mediating effect of team knowledge-sharing is considered a partial mediation.

Third, it was expected that relationship conflict positively mediates the relationship between team CQ and team knowledge-sharing. This could be possible because CQ enables cross-cultural team members to understand and get along with each other better, thereby lowering the chance of negative relationships and conflict among them (Caputo & Ayoko, 2016; Moon, 2013). And, when the relationship conflict is low, they are less reluctant to communicate and share their knowledge, ideas, and opinions with their teams (Z. J. Chen, Zhang, & Vogel, 2011; N. Hu, Chen, Gu, Huang, & Liu, 2017; Panteli & Sockalingam, 2005). The results from the Sobel test show positive mediation of relationship conflict, but this result is not significant (t=1.808; p=0.070). This finding does not support the positive mediating effect of

relationship conflict on the relationship between team CQ and team knowledge-sharing.

Fourth, it was expected that relationship conflict positively mediates the relationship between intra-team trust and team knowledge-sharing. Given that trust among members of multicultural teams reduces the possibility of team members misunderstanding each other and prevents relationship conflict in teams, consequently, the low level of relationship conflict would allow team members to communicate and cooperate more effectively and be less hesitant to share their resources with their teams (Z. J. Chen, Zhang, & Vogel, 2011; N. Hu, Chen, Gu, Huang, & Liu, 2017; Panteli & Sockalingam, 2005). The results from the Sobel test show positive mediation of relationship conflict, but this result is not significant (t=1.808; p=0.070). This finding does not support the positive mediating effect of relationship conflict on the relationship between intra-team trust and team knowledge-sharing.

Fifth, it was expected that relationship conflict positively mediates the relationship between intra-team trust and team innovation. Given that trust among members enhances a good relationship and reduce relationship conflict in teams, the low level of relationship conflict among team members allows them to cooperate more effectively and stay focused to mutually foster team cohesion and innovations (De Clercq, Thongpapanl, & Dimov, 2009; Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009). The Sobel test results show positive mediation of relationship conflict, and this result is significant (t=2.433; p=0.014). This finding confirms the positive mediating effect of relationship conflict on the relationship between intra-team trust and team innovation. In addition, since the direct relationship between intra-team trust and team innovation is not statistically significant, the mediating effect of relationship conflict is considered a full mediation.

Sixth, it was expected that team knowledge-sharing positively mediates the relationship between intra-team trust and team innovation. Trust allows team members to communicate more effectively, and have less hesitation to share their diverse knowledge necessary for innovation development (Chow & Chan, 2008; Feiz, Dehghani Soltani, & Farsizadeh, 2019; P. B. Le & Lei, 2018; Mooradian, Renzl, & Matzler, 2006). With the great pool of diverse knowledge and other resources

contributed by their members, teams can effectively generate new ideas for products and services, as well as new work processes that enhance team performance (Markovic & Bagherzadeh, 2018; Mooradian, Renzl, & Matzler, 2006). The results from the Sobel test show positive mediation of team knowledge-sharing, and this result is significant (t=2.559; p=0.010). This finding confirms the positive mediating effect of team knowledge-sharing on the relationship between intra-team trust and team innovation. In addition, since the direct relationship between intra-team trust and team innovation is not statistically significant, the mediating effect of team knowledge-sharing is considered a full mediation.

4.4.3 Total Effect Analysis

Kock (2017) stated that the total effect analysis shows the effects of all latent variables in the model that are connected by one or more paths with more than one segment. The total effect analysis is recommended for a complex model that has many variables and many links, both direct and indirect, among them (Kock, 2017). In this study, it is also important to conduct the total effect analysis to evaluate the contribution of team CQ to team innovation by counting all paths that connect them including the mediating roles of relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing. This total effect analysis is conducted to explore whether these variables can explain why teams with high CQ can demonstrate a high level of innovation.

The results confirm a positive sign and significance of the total effects between team CQ and team innovation, which are connected by team relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing (β=0.559; $p < 0.001$). The results confirm that all three variables can help explain why teams with high CQ achieve more innovations. This can be interpreted that teams with high CQ tend to demonstrate low levels of relationship conflict among team members, high levels of trust among them, and a high level of knowledge-sharing; these three aspects of the team process, together, explain why a team with a high level of CQ tends to demonstrate a high level of innovation.

4.4.4 Control Variables

In addition to the main hypotheses proposed, the relationships between five control variables and team innovation are found as follows. For the first control variable which is gender ratio, the results show negative relationship with team innovation (β = -0.015; p = 0.438). Given that team gender ratio represents the percentage of male members in the team, it can be interpreted that teams with a higher percentage of males among members tend to demonstrate a lower degree of team innovation. However, the relationship is not significant. For the second control variable which is the average age of team members, the results show a positive sign (β = 0.013, p = 0.438). This finding could mean that teams whose members are older on average tend to be more innovative. However, this relationship is also not significant. For the third control variable which is team tenure, the results show a negative association between average team tenure and team innovation (β = -0.062; p = 0.263). From the result, it could be understood that teams with higher average tame tenure are more likely to demonstrate a lower degree of team innovation. However, this relationship is not significant. For the fourth control variable which is the team size, the findings present a positive association between team size and team innovation (β = 0.232; p = 0.007). This means that teams with more members tend to have more innovation. The result also confirms that the relationship is significant. For the last control variable which is team task interdependence, the results show a positive association between team task interdependence and team innovation (β = 0.128; p = 0.092). This could mean that teams with higher team task interdependence among members tend to demonstrate a higher degree of team innovation. However, this association is not significant. In conclusion, out of the five control variables, only team size has a significant positive relationship with team innovation.

4.4.5 R-square

R-square, or the coefficient of determination, indicates how well the data fit the regression linear line or, in other words, how well a dependent variable can be explained by its predicting independent variables (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2015; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009; Uma & Roger, 2003). A higher value of R-square indicates a smaller error value in regression analysis, which means the model has a better fit

and explanatory power than those with lower R-square value (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2015). R-square ranges from 0 to 1, which is represented in the percentage of a dependent variable explained by its independent variables (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

The analysis shows that the R-square of relationship conflict is equal to 0.303 which means that relationship conflict can be explained by its predicting independent variables, which are team CQ and intra-team trust by 30.3 percent. The R-square of intra-team trust is equal to 0.565 which means that intra-team trust can be explained by its predicting independent variable, which is team CQ, by 56.5 percent. The R-square of team knowledge-sharing is equal to 0.656, from which it can be interpreted that team knowledge-sharing can be explained by its predictor variables which are team CQ, relationship conflict, and intra-team trust by 65.6 percent. Lastly, the R-square of team innovation is equal to 0.488, which indicates that 48.8 percent of its occurrence can be explained by all of its predictor variables including team CQ, relationship conflict, intra-team trust, team knowledge-sharing, gender ratio, age of team members, team tenure, team size, and team task interdependence. The results of the R-square are presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15 R-square

Construct	**CONF**	**TRUST**	**KS**	**TINNO**
R-square	0.303	0.565	0.659	0.488

Note: CONF = relationship conflict, TRUST = intra-team trust, KS = team knowledge-sharing, TINNO = team innovation.

4.5 Model Fit Indices

Besides the hypotheses testing and the model assessments mentioned, there are also 10 model-fit indices provided to evaluate the quality of the PLS model (Kock, 2017). According to Kock (2017), by using the WrapPLS 6.0 program to compute a research model, 10 model indies including (1) Average path coefficient (APC), (2) Average R-square (ARS), (3) Average adjusted R-square (AARS), (4) Average block

VIF (AVIF), (5) Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF), (6) Tenenhaus GoF Index (GoF), (7) Sympson's paradox ratio (SPR), (8) R-square contribution ratio (RSCR), (9) Statistical suppression ratio (SSR) and (10) Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ration (NLBCDR) are provided. The results of all the 10 model fit indices are presented in Table 4.16.

4.5.1 Average Path Coefficient (APC)

The average path coefficient (APC) indicates the overall strength of the relationship in the model. Kock (2017) revealed that APC is computed using the absolute values of the path coefficients, and its p-value is recommended to be equal or less than 0.05. The result of the study shows that the APC value is 0.243 with a p-value of 0.02 which is less than 0.05. Therefore the APC value of this research model is statistically significant.

4.5.2 Average R-square (ARS)

Average R-square (ARS) indicates the overall explanatory power of structural models, and it is recommended that its p-value should not exceed 0.05 to be acceptable. The result presents the value of ARS equal to 0.504 with a p-value < 0.001. Therefore, the ARS value is statistically significant.

4.5.3 Average Adjusted R-square (AARS)

Average adjusted R-square (AARS) helps correct the loophole of the ARS that tends to increase every time a new independent variable is added in the model even though it may not improve the model (Henseler & Sarstedt, 2013). According to Kock (2017), the p-value of AAR value should be equal to or lower than 0.05. The result shows that the value of AARS is 0.484 with a p-value < 0.001. Therefore, the AARS is statistically significant.

4.5.4 Average Variance Inflation Factor (AVIF)

Average variance inflation factor (AVIF) is used to measure whether a structural model experiences serious vertical collinearity issues (Kock, 2017). Kock (2017) suggested that the AVIF value is acceptable at 5 or less and will be ideal at 3.3

or less. The result reports the AVIF value is 2.117. Therefore, the multicollinearity in this model is ideally acceptable.

4.5.5 Average Full Variance Inflation Factor (AFVIF)

The average full variance inflation factor (AFVIF) assesses both vertical and lateral collinearity of a structural model. Kock (2017) suggested that the AFVIF value is acceptable at 5 or lower (more relaxed criterion), and is ideal at 3.3 or lower. The result shows that the model's AFVIF value is 2.137. Therefore, the multicollinearity in this model is ideally acceptable.

4.5.6 Tenenhaus GoF Index (GoF)

According to Kock (2017), Tenenhaus GoF index measures the explanatory power of a structural model based on the square root of the average communality index and the ARS. The explanatory power is considered small if the GoF index is equal to or higher than 0.1, medium if equal to or higher than 0.25, and large if equal to higher than 0.36 (Kock, 2017). The result presents the value of 0.666 which means that this model has large explanatory power.

4.5.7 Simpson's Paradox Ratio (SPR)

Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR) is used to measure whether a structural model is experiencing a Simpson's paradox, which occurs when the signs between path coefficients and a correlation of the paired variables are different (Kock, 2017). The SPR value is suggested to be accepted at 0.7or greater and to be ideal at 1. The result reports 0.867 SPR value, which means that 86.7 percent of all paths in this model do not experience Simpson's paradox. Therefore, the SPR index is acceptable.

4.5.8 R-square Contribution Ratio (RSCR)

R-square contribution ratio (RSCR) measures whether a structural model has a negative R-square contribution (Kock, 2017). Once R-square is negative, the percentage of variance that explains the dependent variable decreases. According to Kock (2017), the acceptable value of RSCR is equal to or above 0.9 or over 90 percent of R-square in the model and has a positive sign. And the ideal RSCR value is

equal to 1 or 100 percent. The result reveals that the model has an RSCR value equal to 0.978, which means that 97.8 percent of paths of R-square in this model has a positive sign. Therefore, the RSCR value of this model is acceptable.

4.5.9 Statistical Suppression Ratio (SSR)

Statistical suppression ratio (SSR) is used to examine whether a structural model is experiencing causality problems (Kock, 2017). Kock (2017) stated that the SSR value indicates whether the hypothesized paths in the model are not reasonable or should be reversed. The acceptable value of SSR is equal to or higher than 0.7, and its ideal value is equal to or higher than 0.9. The result shows that this PLS model has 0.933 in SSR value, which means that the SSR is at an ideal level.

4.5.10 Nonlinear Bivariate Causality Direction Ratio (NLBCDR)

Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR) is used to measure the correctness of the hypothesized direction in non-linear relationships in the model. The acceptable value of NLBCDR is equal to or higher than 0.7 (Kock, 2017). The result shows that the NLBCDR value of this model is 0.933, which means that this model is acceptable for the non-linear of the direction of causality. Since this model has only proposed linear relationships, the NLBCDR value should not be included in the consideration.

Table 4.16 Model Fit Indices

Model fit indices	Coefficient	Result
Average path coefficient (APC)	0.243**	Significant
Average R-square (ARS)	0.504**	Significant
Average adjusted R-square (AARS)	0.484**	Significant
Average variance inflation factor (AVIF)	2.117	Ideal
Average full variance inflation factor (AFVIF)	2.137	Ideal
Tenenhaus GoF index (GoF)	0.666	Large
Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR)	0.867	Acceptable

Model fit indices	Coefficient	Result
R-square contribution ratio (RSCR)	0.978	Acceptable
Statistical suppression ratio (SSR)	0.933	Ideal
Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)	0.933	Acceptable

Note: ** and * means p-value <0.01 and ≤ 0.05

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Overall Findings

The overall findings computed from the PLS regression analysis reveals that twelve of thirteen hypotheses are statistically supported. The results are reported in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1 Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

	Hypotheses	Result
H1	There is a negative association between relationship conflict and team innovation.	Supported
H2	There is a positive association between intra-team trust and team innovation.	Not supported
H3	There is a positive association between team knowledge-sharing and team innovation.	Supported
H4	There is a negative association between relationship conflict and intra-team trust.	Supported
H5	There is a positive association between intra-team trust and team knowledge-sharing.	Supported
H6	There is a negative association between relationship conflict and team knowledge-sharing.	Supported
H7	There is a positive association between CQ and team innovation.	Supported
H8	CQ has a negative association with relationship conflict.	Supported

	Hypotheses	Result
H9	CQ has a positive relationship with intra-team trust.	Supported
H10	CQ is positively associated with team knowledge-sharing.	Supported
H11	Relationship conflict positively mediates the relationship between CQ and team innovation.	Supported
H12	Intra-team trust positively mediates the relationship between CQ and team innovation.	Supported
H13	Team knowledge-sharing positively mediates the relationship between CQ and team innovation.	Supported

The main objective of this study was to investigate the contributions of team CQ to team innovation by considering the mediating roles of relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing in the context of multicultural teams in the restaurant business in Thailand. The three mediating variables were hypothesized to explain team innovation. The results provide evidence that team CQ is positively associated with team innovation. The findings also show that CQ is statistically associated with all of the team process variables including relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing In addition, the findings suggested that relationship conflict and team knowledge-sharing are significantly associated with team innovation Moreover, the findings show that the relationship between team CQ and team innovation is positively mediated by relationship conflict and team knowledge-sharing. The results will be discussed as follows:

5.1.1 The Main Effect between Team CQ and Team Innovation

The results show that team CQ was found to have a positive and significant relationship with team innovation. This positive relationship is in line with previous CQ studies that CQ enhances innovation in cross-cultural contexts (Joupari & Far, 2015; Korzilius, Bücker, & Beerlage, 2017). This result is consistent with the study of Joupari and Far (2015) that found CQ played an important role in driving innovation in the Supreme Audit Court. The result is also concurrent with the study of Korzilius,

Bücker, and Beerlage (2017) which found that CQ had a direct positive contribution to the innovative work behavior of employees in a large international Dutch-based staffing agency. Similarly, in the restaurant business context, it can be explained that intercultural teams tend to experience cultural barriers that separate their team members and limit them from creating new ideas needed for innovation development. Given that CQ enables individuals to appropriately perform in cross-cultural situations overcoming diverse cultural issues such as different languages, beliefs, and norms that would weaken cooperation among members, and limit them from the brainstorming which is a key factor in innovation achievement, (Soon Ang, Rockstuhl, & Tan, 2015; Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008; Elenkov & Manev, 2009; Korzilius, Bücker, & Beerlage, 2017) this contribution of CQ was verified by this research which showed that CQ also promotes cooperation and teamwork among team members as well as mobilizing team innovation in the restaurant business. Hence, multicultural teams with a high level of CQ tend to integrate more accurate and diverse knowledge contributed from their members, which improves their chances for successful innovation for the restaurants.

5.1.2 The Linkage between Team CQ and Team Process Variables

The results confirm the relationships between team CQ and all three team process variables, which are relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing as follows. Firstly, the relationship between team CQ and relationship conflict is confirmed to be negative and statistically significant as hypothesized. This finding gives support to related previous studies that CQ can lower relationship conflict among individuals in cross-cultural settings (Caputo & Ayoko, 2016; Moon, 2013). This is supported by the prior study of Caputo and Ayoko (2016) that CQ decreases the level of conflict existing in teams resulting from cultural diversity. The result is also consistent with Moon (2013) that high levels of CQ can lower the degree of conflict in multicultural teams. Secondly, CQ at the team level is confirmed to be positively associated with intra-team trust as proposed. This finding also supports the prior studies that CQ can foster trust among individuals (Moon, 2013; Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008; Shokef & Erez, 2008; Trong Luu & Rowley, 2016). The finding is consistent with the study of Trong Luu and Rowley (2016) which

found positive effects of CQ on the level of trust in foreign-invested firms in Vietnam. The finding is also in line with the study of Rockstuhl and Ng (2008) which found that CQ facilitated negative effects of cultural diversity on intra-team trust, and fostered trust among members of project teams in a large business school in Singapore. Thirdly, the result demonstrates that team CQ is positively related to team knowledge-sharing. This result supports prior studies that CQ among team members encourages them to exchange and share their knowledge and experience with each other (M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013; N. Hu, Wu, & Gu, 2017). It is consistent with the study of M. L. Chen and Lin (2013) which found positive impacts of CQ on knowledge-sharing among team members of large multinational high-tech firms in Taiwan. The result is also concurrent with the study of Tsai, Joe, Lin, Wu, and Cheng (2017) which found that CQ helped increase the knowledge-sharing of Taiwanese professionals from high-tech foreign companies in Taiwan.

In the context of the restaurant business, the results show that CQ plays a significant role in facilitating tension and other negative emotions among team members in intercultural teams caused by their cultural dissimilarity. CQ prevents misinterpretation and misunderstanding among each other, and this would eventually lower the level of relationship conflict in the team. Compared with other businesses, work teams in the restaurant business require a high level of interaction and cooperation among members. CQ enables cross-cultural team members to overcome the cultural differences, feel less dissimilar, and not as likely to stereotype or discriminate against others with different cultural backgrounds from them, but instead to open their minds to believe and rely on each other. Therefore, they feel more secure to trust each other. With the features already mentioned, CQ enables team members to communicate effectively and, therefore, encourages them to share and exchange their diverse knowledge and information with each other.

5.1.3 The Linkage between Team Process Variables and Team Innovation

This research also confirms the association between team process variables and team innovation as follows. Firstly, the findings indicate a negative relationship between relationship conflict and team innovation. This supports related prior research which demonstrates that relationship conflict contributes negative effects on

innovation (Collewaert & Sapienza, 2016; De Clercq, Thongpapanl, & Dimov, 2009; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003b; De Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012; Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; Mortensen & Hinds, 2001). The findings are consistent with the study of He, Ding, and Yang (2014) which found a negative relationship between relationship conflict and team innovation in telecommunication project teams in China. This research is also concurrent with the finding reported by Ries, Diestel, Wegge, and Schmidt (2010) that relationship conflict had a negative effect on the innovation of clerk teams of a major state administration in Germany. Moreover, it is in line with the finding of De Clercq, Thongpapanl, and Dimov (2009) which showed a negative association between relationship conflict and innovation in Canadian firms in various industries. Secondly, another team process variable that is confirmed by the findings to have a significant relationship with team innovation is team knowledge-sharing. Team knowledge-sharing is found to be positively associated with team innovation, which provides evidence supporting the related previous studies that knowledge-sharing plays an important role in driving teams to achieve innovations (L. Hu & Randel, 2014; M.-L. M. Hu, Horng, & Sun, 2009; Y. Jiang & Chen, 2018; H.-F. Lin, 2007; Pearce & Ensley, 2004; Z. Wang & Wang, 2012). This result is consistent with the study of H.-F. Lin (2007) who found positive impacts of knowledge-sharing on the level of innovation capability of employees working for large organizations in Taiwan. It is also in line with the finding of M.-L. M. Hu, Horng, and Sun (2009) showed a strong association between knowledge-sharing and service innovation performance in international hotel employee teams .In addition, the findings conform with the research conducted by Kamaşak and Bulutlar (2010) which found a positive impact of team knowledge-sharing on team innovation success in teams of workers in organizations in Turkey. Moreover, it also supports the study of Liu and Phillips (2011) which found positive relationships between knowledge-sharing and the level of innovativeness in R&D teams of firms in Taiwan.

In the foodservice industry context, relationship conflict among multicultural team members lowers satisfaction, and, at the same time, creates tension as well as negative feelings among team members. This consequently discourages their cooperation, teamwork, and team cohesion, which are needed for new ideas generation and innovation development. Moreover, intercultural teams with a high

level of knowledge-sharing among team members tend to have a broader integration of diverse knowledge contributed by their members. Therefore, by integrating and synergizing this diverse compound knowledge, teams would gain advantages in developing and achieving food and service, as well as work process innovations.

5.1.4 Linkages among Team Process Variables

The interrelations among the team process variables, which are relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge–sharing, were also investigated. The results show that the three process variables are related to one another. Firstly, the findings suggest that intra-team trust is negatively associated with relationship conflict. This finding supports prior related research that trust among team members diminishes relationship conflict in their teams (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; Han & Harms, 2010; Simons & Peterson, 2000). This is concurrent with the study of Han and Harms (2010) which found that intra-team trust had negative impacts on relationship conflict in R&D teams of US top companies. It is also consistent with Simons and Peterson (2000) who found a negative association between the intra-team trust and relationship conflict of executive officers (CEOs) of multi-site U.S.-based hotel companies. The findings are also in line with the study of Curşeu and Schruijer (2010) which found that intra-team trust contributed negative impacts on relationship conflict in teams of students from a Dutch university. Secondly, the results also show a positive association between intra-team trust and team knowledge-sharing. This finding gives support to previous studies in trust and knowledge-sharing areas that trust among team members is the key driver of knowledge-sharing in their teams (Cheung, Gong, Wang, Zhou, & Shi, 2016; Ding, Ng, & Li, 2014; Kucharska & Kowalczyk, 2016; MacCurtain, Flood, Ramamoorthy, West, & Dawson, 2008; Park & Lee, 2014). This is in line with MacCurtain, Flood, Ramamoorthy, West, and Dawson (2008) which found a significant positive association between intra-team trust and team knowledge-sharing in top management teams of Irish software firms. Similarly, this finding is concurrent with the research of Cheung, Gong, Wang, Zhou, and Shi (2016) that found trust among team members is positively related to team knowledge-sharing in R&D teams of IT firms in China. It is also consistent with the prior research of Ding, Ng, and Li (2014) which found strong impacts of trust on

knowledge-sharing in architectural design teams in China. Kucharska and Kowalczyk (2016) also found that trust among team members had a positive impact on knowledge-sharing in Polish professional construction management teams .Moreover, it is concurrent with the previous study of Park and Lee (2014) which found significant and positive associations between the team trust and team knowledge-sharing of project teams in IT firms in Korea. Lastly, the results suggest that relationship conflict has negative impacts on team knowledge-sharing. This negative association between relationship conflict and trust among team members also contributes significant support to previous related studies that teams with a high degree of relationship conflict tend to have a low level of knowledge-sharing among their members (Shih, Farn, & Ho, 2008; W.-T. Wang & Chang, 2015). This is in line with W.-T. Wang and Chang (2015) who found an indirect negative relationship between relationship conflict and knowledge-sharing among employees of organizations in the manufacturing industry in Taiwan. This finding was also consistent with the study of Shih, Farn, and Ho (2008) who found a negative association between relationship conflict and the knowledge-sharing of senior information management students.

In the context of the restaurant business, intercultural teams with a high level of trust among their members tend to experience less relationship conflict because trust develops good feelings and relationships among them, and, at the same time, drives down negative feelings and tension at work. Trust among team members also allows them to be more open and share their opinions and knowledge with each other. In contrast, teams with a high level of relationship conflict tend to have a low level of knowledge-sharing because the relationship conflicts among team members make them reluctant to interact and share their opinions and knowledge with each other.

5.1.5 Mediating Roles of Team Process Variables that Link CQ with Team Innovation

This study also proposed hypotheses to investigate the mediating effects of team process variables, which are relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing between team CQ and team innovation. The results show that only two of the three-team process variables, relationship conflict, and team knowledge–

sharing, significantly mediate the relationship between team CQ and team innovation. This means that, besides the direct effect of CQ on team innovation, team CQ can also indirectly relate to team innovation by lowering relationship conflict and by increasing team knowledge-sharing. In the context of restaurant cross-cultural teams, in order to mutually achieve innovation in the team, intercultural team members need CQ to help them overcome cultural dissimilarity among themselves that may lead to misunderstanding and create tension and negative emotions within the team. CQ would allow them to perceive fewer differences and reduce personal conflicts as well as to open their minds to each other. With less relationship conflict, team members would cooperate more efficiently, and mutually develop team innovation such as an innovative menu, innovative cooking methods, innovative services, and innovative work processes. In addition, once team members are more open and share their diverse knowledge with each other, they develop a pool containing their integrated diverse knowledge, which allows them to successfully achieve innovation in their work.

However, even though intra-team trust does not have a direct association with team innovation, it can indirectly and positively be associated with team innovation by lowering relationship conflict and promoting knowledge-sharing among team members. The findings of this research also demonstrate that intra-team trust can still be a key process variable that enables CQ to drive team innovation. In particular, an intra-team trust promoted by CQ can decrease relationship conflict and increase team knowledge-sharing, which consequently helps team innovation to be promoted. In the restaurant business contexts, where staff have to interact with each other at all times, intra-team trust that is promoted when the team members have high CQ can facilitate team members to lower relationship conflict, and this would allow them to cooperate more effectively, and stay focused to mutually foster team cohesion which is essential for team innovation to happen. Likewise, the high level of trust would make them feel less hesitant to exchange and share their diverse knowledge and information with each other. This would allow them to mutually learn and develop new knowledge by brainstorming and integrating their existing diverse knowledge.

5.1.6 Discussion Related to the Theory

Overall, the results provide significant support to the social identity theory that was proposed as the framing theory in this study. According to the social identity theory, people tend to identify and classify themselves, as well as others, into groups based on their backgrounds (Henri Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 2004; Turner & Reynolds, 2010). Cultural diversity can separate team members into subgroups, and members belonging to the same subgroup share cultural commons. Once team members are separated, they are unlikely to get along and work well with others whom they consider as an outgroup. These problems occur when team members sharing the same or similar cultural backgrounds are grouped together and discriminate against others who are different from them. This issue may create distrust, relationship conflict and reduce knowledge-sharing within a team. The results from this research, which showed that team CQ allowed members from different cultures to work productively in the team, provide evidence that can be related to the social identity theory. CQ enables intercultural teams to break cultural barriers that divide their members into subgroups that would limit their cooperation and productivity. When the team has members with high CQ, the perception of cultural differences of other members is less likely to happen, therefore, it can resolve stereotyping and discrimination among team members. Given that CQ prohibits stereotyping and discrimination of others with different cultural backgrounds, with a high level of CQ in the team, the cultural barriers are lowered, and team members are blended together with lower feelings of dissimilarity among them.

5.2 Limitations

This study has limitations that need to be considered. Firstly, the results of this study came from the analysis of cross-sectional data, which means that the data were collected from multiple subjects over a single point in time (Greener, 2008). Therefore, the causal relationship between the variables could not be tested. Secondly, the results from the questionnaire survey may contain a subjective bias on the part of the respondents. For example, the results from the questionnaire survey may be contaminated from the social desirability bias, which refers to a tendency that the

respondents give a socially favorable response rather than giving honest answers (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Since the data collection was conducted by using self-assessment, the respondents may have given favorable answers towards their own teams, which could lead to social desirability bias. Social desirability bias is the tendency of self-report questionnaire respondents to answer questions in a socially preferable way (Fisher, 1993). As a result, respondents tend to under-report unpleasant behaviors and attitudes or even misreport, and, with a lack of effort to answer the questions, they instead, tend to report pleasant behaviors and attitudes because they are easier to report (Kaminska & Foulsham, 2013). This response bias often occurs with question items that concern personal or socially sensitive content (Fisher, 1993; King & Bruner, 2000). There would be a possibility for this bias to happen since some items could be a source of favorable answers such as relationship conflict. Relationship conflict questions may be sensitive questions where negative answers may affect the image of the teams. This social desirability bias may interfere with the interpretation of team average tendencies (Hebert, Clemow, Pbert, Ockene, & Ockene, 1995). Lastly, even though the number of individuals who participated in this study is relatively large, the number of cross-cultural teams that was used as the final sample groups is quite small when compared to the size of the population at the country level. The small sample size at the team level may raise the generalizability concerns of the sample. This might have been caused by the low number of cities from where the data were collected. The data collected from the five cities may not sufficiently represent the whole population of intercultural restaurant teams in the country.

5.3 Academic Contribution

Overall, the results of this research provide contributions to fulfill the research gap in various ways. Firstly, given that there are a limited number of studies focusing on the relationship between CQ and innovation in the workplace, the results of this study provide evidence that CQ is crucial for intercultural teams in developing innovations. Secondly, due to the limited number of studies focusing on the mediating roles of team preprocess variables and their mechanisms on the association between

team CQ and team innovation, this research also provides additional evidence of the mediating effects of relationship conflict, intra-team trust, and team knowledge-sharing on the relationship between team CQ and team innovation. These findings provide additional evidence that team intra-team trust can help team CQ to promote team innovation by lowering relationship conflict and increasing team knowledge-sharing. Thirdly, given that the concept of CQ has never been investigated in the context of the foodservice industry, the findings suggest that CQ can also be effectively applied in restaurant business and foodservice industry contexts. The restaurant business is a fast-growing business that has been gaining substantial interest from all people, especially investors, for years with no signs of slowing down. However, this industry still has not been explored much academically by researchers. Applying and investigating the roles of CQ in the restaurant industry is an important step that would contribute significant findings to both CQ and restaurant research.

Fourthly, given that the number of CQ studies at the team level of analysis in literature is very limited, this research also provides evidence of the contributions of CQ at the team level on team innovation and its team process variables focusing on intercultural teams in the restaurant business. This contribution provides better understanding relating to CQ at a team level of analysis and its roles in facilitating three team process variables, as well as their mechanisms among each other and their effects on the preferable final outcome like team innovation. Lastly, this study also provides evidence to support the social identity theory that it can effectively explain the contributions of team CQ on the three-team process variables.

5.4 Practical Contribution

The findings from this research provide insight for organizations employing intercultural teams, especially in the hospitality and service industries. Given that innovation leads to the competitiveness of teams, the ability to promote innovative performance and drive innovations in intercultural teams is crucial. Having people from diverse cultural backgrounds in teams can promote innovation because they can contribute and integrate their diverse knowledge accumulated in the teams to mutually create new and innovative ideas and products. However, cultural diversity can also

prohibit cross-cultural teams from achieving successful innovation. Cultural dissimilarity among team members can lead to the development of unpleasant emotions, relationships, and conditions among team members, such as high levels of relationship conflict and low levels of trust and knowledge-sharing, which may discourage cooperation in their team. And these teams, as a consequence, may tend to experience low innovative performance. This research suggests that to promote innovation in intercultural teams, management should promote practices that potentially lower the level of relationship conflict and foster intra-team trust and team knowledge-sharing within teams. These issues can be coped with in training programs that encourage team members to develop pleasant relationships in their teams. The findings from this study on the contribution of CQ toward productive team processes in cross-cultural teams suggest that CQ development at the team level can be considered as the intervention to foster unity among intercultural team members. In particular, CQ which enables individuals to lower perceived differences of others from different cultural backgrounds is needed in intercultural teams to facilitate the diverse cultural issues existing among team members. Management should play a significant role in driving innovation in multicultural teams by promoting CQ in teams.

CQ should be integrated into an organization's human resources routines including recruitment, training programs, and work environment. Engle and Nehrt (2012) revealed that it is important for businesses to select and develop employees who possess CQ to successfully perform in such intercultural work environments. Firstly, CQ should be integrated into the process of talent discovering and acquisition to increase the effectiveness of recruitment and selection of new cross-cultural team members by including a CQ scale with other recruitment tests (D Livermore & Van Dyne, 2015; Magnusson, Westjohn, Semenov, Randrianasolo, & Zdravkovic, 2013; Ployhart & Weekley, 2014). Magnusson, Westjohn, Semenov, Randrianasolo, and Zdravkovic (2013) revealed that CQ assessment should be part of the overall evaluation process of new candidates in the recruitment and selection process for export managers. Soon Ang, Van Dyne, and Koh (2006) found that two of the Big Five personality dimensions, which are widely used in new staff recruitment and selection processes, are significantly related to metacognitive CQ, and motivational

CQ and this supports that CQ is required for new staff. Secondly, CQ should also be integrated into performance management and reward systems, especially in training programs for current intercultural team members. Training such as CQ education and training, and training that can help develop CQ like language training, communication training, teamwork, and team spirit workshops, etc. should be integrated in training programs of restaurants employing cross-cultural teams (Soon Ang, Rockstuhl, & Tan, 2015; Charoensukmongkol, 2019c; P. C. Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Engle & Nehrt, 2012; MacNab & Worthley, 2012; Van Dyne, Ang, & Tan, 2017). CQ can be learned, developed, and enhanced as many previous studies in the human resources field urge organizations to provide CQ training for their staff (Soon Ang, Rockstuhl, & Tan, 2015; X.-P. Chen, Liu, & Portnoy, 2012; P. C. Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). P. C. Earley and Mosakowski (2004) argued that CQ training should allow individuals to have their heads, bodies, and hearts work effectively together in cross-cultural situations. Magnusson et al. (2013) suggested that CQ should not only be implemented in the recruitment and selection of new employees, but it should also be applied in training existing employees involved in export marketing. MacNab and Worthley (2012) stated that CQ education can be an effective training tool for developing the intercultural capabilities of individuals or teams creating effective interaction in cross-cultural settings. Moreover, P. C. Earley and Peterson (2004) stated that cultural assimilators are another effective CQ training program that allows individuals to learn about other cultures, gain intercultural experience, and practice to adapt and perform effectively in those unfamiliar cultural situations. Finally, CQ can also be systematically integrated into HR routines to enable organizations to develop and retain the global talents needed in maintaining their competitive advantages in today's business environment. For example, promoting the use of English and prohibiting other languages in the workplace to reduce cultural differences, pairing work partners with different cultural backgrounds and occasionally rotating partners, supporting intercultural work environments, conducting job rotation among different cultural groups, and discouraging gathering or grouping of staff with the same or similar cultural backgrounds.

Moreover, the result regarding the effect of team size, which is the only control variable that significantly related to team innovation, also provides

suggestions to the management of the restaurant. Management may consider supporting the size and diversity of teams since the findings suggest that teams with more members tend to possess a higher level of diversity and innovation performance than those teams with fewer members. Given a greater pool of knowledge and other resources such as time, energy, and the expertise of members, intercultural teams with a greater number of members are likely to achieve a higher rate of innovation (Hülsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; Kearney, Gebert, & Voelpel, 2009). Therefore, it is important for management to set the size of intercultural teams to be big enough to effectively integrate the diverse knowledge of team members to achieve successful team innovations; otherwise, if the team size is too small, the knowledge integration may not be well developed.

5.5 Future Research

Because research in the area of CQ at the team level of analysis is still limited, there are some suggestions for future research to add more contributions to this area of the topic. Firstly, future research may also need to apply the concept of team CQ in other industries and contexts since intercultural teams are widely employed in several industries and areas, for example; hotel and other hospitalities, education, IT, construction, fashion. Secondly, team CQ may also be applied to achieve different desirable outcomes such as team performance, team viability, team unity, team cohesion, etc. Since the amount of team CQ research is still very limited, investigating the contributions of team CQ to other desirable team outcomes besides team innovation would expand the body of knowledge of CQ research at the team level. In addition, the cross-cultural team study could also be further investigated in aspects of CQ contributions. Lastly, a study could also investigate comparing the roles of team CQ in intercultural teams and monocultural teams. It would be interesting to investigate the benefits of CQ on monocultural teams, which have a lower level of cultural diversity compared to multicultural teams. This would examine the roles of CQ in the context of teams without a significant level of cultural diversity. However, these monocultural teams may still be composed of team members from different subcultures, for example, people from northern parts or regions might be culturally

different from people from the southern parts or regions of the same country even people from different parts of the same city may still have different subcultures. By investigating the roles of team CQ in monocultural teams it would add new knowledge in team CQ research as to whether team CQ would still be an effective factor in achieving innovation in a lower level of cultural diversity situations, and whether the results might be consistent or different from multicultural teams which have a high level of cultural diversity

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A
COVER LETTER

No. 0526.14/ 1982

International College
National Institute of Development Administration
Klongchan Bangkapi Bangkok 10240

June 27, 2018

Re: Request for data collection

Dear Sir/Mam,

This letter confirms that Mr.Akaraphun Ratasukis a Ph.D. candidate at the International College of National Institute of Development Administration (ICO NIDA), Thailand. His dissertation title is "The Contribution of Cultural Intelligence to Team Processes and Innovation in Multicultural Teams: The Case of Restaurant Business in Thailand." This research project is a partial fulfillment of the PhD. in Management at ICO NIDA conducted under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr.Peerayuth Charoensukmongkol.

We shall feel much obliged and remain grateful to youif you kindly supply the necessary information/ data to the student as needed.The information collected will be kept as highly confidential and used purely for academic purpose.In case of any concerns, please feel free to contact his advisor, Assistant Professor Dr.Peerayuth Charoensukmongkol, at 02-727-3526 or peerayuth.c@nida.ac.th.

Thank you for your collaboration.

Looking forward to your positive response.

Sincerely,

Assoc.Prof.Dr.Piboon Puriveth
Dean, International College
National Institute of Development Administration

International College
Tel. +66 2 727 3526
Fax. +66 2 375 2483

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRES

Questionnaire for Research (Supervisor)

The objective of this questionnaire is to collect data for research that will be submitted as partial fulfillment of the Ph.D. In Management degree at the International College of National Institute of Development Administration (ICO NIDA). The collected data will be used only for the research, thereby please feel free and confident to answer all the questions. All collected information and data will be appreciated and kept confidential. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Instruction

1. Please fill out all parts of this questionnaire.
2. This questionnaire has 7 parts including general personal and team information section, team task interdependence section, team cultural intelligence (CQ) section, team innovation section, relationship conflict section, intra-team trust section, team knowledge-sharing section.

General personal and team information

(GEN) Gender (1) ☐ Male (2) ☐ Female

(AGE) Age……. years old

Ethnicity (1) ☐ White (2) ☐ Black (3) ☐ Hispanic (4) ☐ Asian

(5) ☐ Pacific Islander (6) ☐ Other please specify……

Nationality (e.g. Japanese, Chinese, Russian, Thai, American, German)

Please fill in the blank ……

(TENURE) How long have you been working with your team?

(1) ☐ less than 1 year (2) ☐ 1 year (3) ☐ 2 years (4) ☐ 3 years (5) ☐ 4 years

(6) ☐ 5 years (7) ☐ longer than 5 years

How long have you been working in this restaurant?

(1) ☐ less than 1 year (2) ☐ 1 year (3) ☐ 2 years (4) ☐ 3 years (5) ☐ 4 years

(6) ☐ 5 years (7) ☐ longer than 5 years

Number of member in the team……people

(TYPE) Type of team (1) ☐ Culinary (2) ☐ Service

Instruction: Please rate all question items listed below

CQ To what extent do you think you have these characteristics	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree. 5
MCCQ1 I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.					
MCCQ2 I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.					
MCCQ3 I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.					
MCCQ4 I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.					
CCQ1 I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.					
CCQ2 I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.					
CCQ3 I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.					
CCQ4 I know the marriage systems of other cultures.					
CCQ5 I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.					
CCQ6 I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviors in other cultures.					
MCQ1 I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.					
MCQ2 I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.					
MCQ3 I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.					
MCQ4 I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.					
MCQ5 I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.					

BCQ1 I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.					
BCQ2 I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.					
BCQ3 I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.					
BCQ4 I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.					
BCQ5 I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.					

TINNO Please indicate the extent to which your team demonstrate the following characteristics	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree. 5
TINNO1 The products (menu and menu items) or services of the team are innovative.					
TINNO2 The quantity of innovative products or services (or ideas) by the team is large.					
TINNO3 The team's ability to be responsive to changes is high .					
TINNO4 The overall technical performance of the team is high.					

Questionnaire for Research (Staff)

The objective of this questionnaire is to collect data for research that will be submitted as partial fulfillment of the PhD. in Management degree at the International College of National Institute of Development Administration (ICO NIDA). The collected data will be used only for the research, thereby please feel free and confident to answer all the questions. All collected information and data will be appreciated and kept confidential. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Instruction

3. Please fill out all parts of this questionnaire.

4. This questionnaire has 7 parts including general personal and team information section, team task interdependence section, team cultural intelligence (CQ) section, team innovation section, relationship conflict section, intra-team trust section, team knowledge-sharing section.

General personal and team information

(GEN) Gender (1) ☐ Male (2) ☐ Female

(AGE) Age…… years old

Ethnicity (1) ☐ White (2) ☐ Black (3) ☐ Hispanic 4) ☐ Asian

(5) ☐ Pacific Islander (6) ☐ Other please specify……

Nationality (e.g. Japanese, Chinese, Russian, Thai, American, German)

Please fill in the blank ……..

(TENURE) How long have you been working "in this team"?

(1) ☐ less than 1 year (2) ☐ 1 year (3) ☐ 2 years (4) ☐ 3 years (5) ☐ 4 years

(6) ☐ 5 years (7) ☐ longer than 5 years

How long have you been working in this "restaurant"?

(1) ☐ less than 1 year (2) ☐ 1 year (3) ☐ 2 years (4) ☐ 3 years (5) ☐ 4 years

(6) ☐ 5 years (7) ☐ longer than 5 years

How long have you been working under your current "supervisor/manager"?

(1) ☐ less than 1 year (2) ☐ 1 year (3) ☐ 2 years (4) ☐ 3 years (5) ☐ 4 years

(6) ☐ 5 years (7) ☐ longer than 5 years

Number of members in the team……people

(TYPE) Type of team ☐ Culinary ☐ Service

Instruction: Please rate all question items listed below

TCQ To what extent does your "team" has these characteristics	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree. 5
TMCCQ1 We are conscious of the cultural knowledge we use when interacting with our co-workers with different cultural backgrounds.					
TMCCQ2 We adjust our cultural knowledge as we interact with co-workers from a culture that is unfamiliar to us.					
TMCCQ3 We are conscious of the cultural knowledge we apply to cross-cultural interactions.					
TMCCQ4 We check the accuracy of our cultural knowledge as we interact with people from different cultures.					
TCCQ1 We know the legal and economic systems of other cultures that our co-workers are from.					
CCQ2 We know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages that our co-workers use.					
CCQ3 We know the social systems of other cultures that our co-workers are from.					
TCCQ4 We know the arts and values of other cultures that our co-workers are from.					
TMCQ1 We are sure we can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to us.					
TMCQ2 We enjoy learning about cultures that are unfamiliar to us.					
TMCQ3 We are confident that we can get accustomed to the working conditions influenced by a different culture.					
TMCQ4 We are confident that we can socialize with people in a culture that is unfamiliar to us.					
TBCQ1 We change our verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.					
TBCQ2 We use different tones or manners					

of speaking to suit different cross-cultural situations.					
TBCQ3 We vary the rate of our speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.					
TBCQ4 We change our nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it.					

To what extent does your "team" have these characteristics	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree. 5
TIND1 I cannot accomplish my task knowledge sharing without information or materials from other members of my team.					
TIND2 Other members on my team depend on me for information or materials needed to perform their task knowledge sharing.					
TIND3 Within my team, jobs performed by team members are related to one another.					

To what extent do you feel about your "team" in these aspects	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree. 5
CONF1 There is friction among members of your team.					
CONF2 There are personality conflicts evident in your team.					
CONF3 There is tension among members of your team.					
CONF4 There is emotional conflict is there among members of your team.					

To what extent do you feel about you "team" in these aspects	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree. 5
TRUS1 My partners were open and honest when problems occurred					
TRUS2 My partners helped me make critical decisions					
TRUS3 My partners were always willing to provide assistance					
TRUS4 My partners were always sincere					
TRUS5 My partners could be trusted completely					
TRUS6 I have great confidence in my partners.					

To what extent do you feel about your "team" in these aspects	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree. 5
KS1 We share our job experience with each other.					
KS2 We share our expertise at the request of other members.					
KS3 We share our ideas about jobs with one another.					
KS4 We share food recipes, menu, or service models with one another.					

BIOGRAPHY

NAME	Akaraphun Ratasuk
ACADEMIC BACKGROUND	Bachelor of Business Administration majoring in Marketing and minoring in Management from Rangsit University, Thailand, in the year 1998. International Business and Finance from New York University, USA, in the year 2004. Contemporary American Business Practices from Baruch College, the City University of New York, USA, in the year 2004. Master of Arts in Economics from Brooklyn College, the City University of New York, USA, in the year 2006. And Master of Arts in Social Sciences from Queens College, the City University of New York, USA, in the year 2011
EXPERIENCES	Current Positions: Full-time lecturer, Department of Food Business Management at Panyapiwat Institute of Management, Thailand Restaurant Management Consultant Previous Positions: Operational Manager at Chef Kitchen, CP All, Thailand from the year 2016-2017 Export and Digital Marketing Specialist at Plusmax Automation, Thailand from the year 2015-2016 Direct Sales Supervisor at Cerebos, Thailand from the year 2014-2015 English Trainer at Tutorland, Thailand from the year 2013-2014 General Manager, Executive Consultant, and Business Partner at Whiskyland, Suan Sre Heha, Fun Factory, and Muay, Thailand from the year 2013-2017 Project Manager at Thailand Professional Qualification Institute, the Prime Minister Office, Thailand in the year 2013 International Representative at the Department of International Trade and Promotion, the Ministry of Commerce, Thailand in the year 2013 Senior Service Representative at Blue Ribbon New York, the USA from the year 2007-2012 Floor Manager at Typhoon Lounge, New York, USA from the year 2006-2008 General Manager at Thai Austin Restaurant, New York, the USA from the year 2006-2007 Floor Manager at SEA Thai Bistro, Williamsburg, New York, the USA from the year 2002-2006