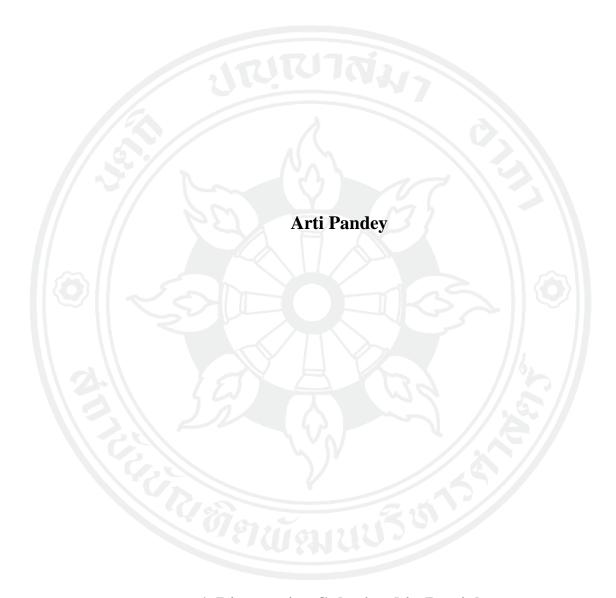
CONTRIBUTION OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE TO ADAPTIVE SELLING BEHAVIOR, CUSTOMER-ORIENTED SELLING BEHAVIOR AND CROSS-CULTURAL SALES PERFORMANCE OF THAI SALESPEOPLE



A Dissertation Submitted in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy (Management)
International College,
National Institute of Development Administration
2017

CONTRIBUTION OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE TO ADAPTIVE SELLING BEHAVIOR, CUSTOMER-ORIENTED SELLING BEHAVIOR AND CROSS-CULTURAL SALES PERFORMANCE OF THAI SALESPEOPLE

Arti Pandey International College.

 international Coneg	e,
(Assistant Professor Peerayuth Charoensukmo	Major Advisor ongkol, Ph.D.)
The Examining Committee Approved This Dinent of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctoment).	
(Apichart Intravisit, Ph.D.)	Committee Chairperson
(Assistant Professor Sid Suntrayuth, Ph.D.)	Committee
	Committee
(Assistant Professor Peerayuth Charoensukm	ongkol, Ph.D.)
(Associate Professor Piboon Puriveth, Ph.D.)	Dean
53/1	

ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation CONTRIBUTION OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE

TO ADAPTIVE SELLING BEHAVIOR, CUSTOMER-ORIENTED SELLING

BEHAVIOR AND CROSS-CULTURAL SALES PERFORMANCE OF THAI SALESPEOPLE

Author Arti Pandey

Degree Doctor of Philosophy (Management)

Year 2017

As firms expand internationally, there will be an ever-greater challenge for their salespeople who will be required, more and more, to engage in cross-cultural selling. Although cross-cultural selling is a topic that has already gained much attention in literature, research about the competencies of salespeople in cross-cultural selling is still scarce. To fill this research gap, the present study focuses on the role of cultural intelligence (CQ) which is a cross-cultural competency that will assist salespeople in becoming more effective in cross-cultural selling. The objective of this research is to examine the relationship between the CQ of salespeople and two selling behaviors that might be essential in cross-cultural selling (which are: (1) adaptive selling behavior and (2) customer-oriented selling behaviour) and how these two selling behaviors influence cross-cultural sales performance. This research is based on a sample of Thai salespeople from 51 businesses who attended trade shows in India, salespeople from 60 Thai businesses who attended trade shows in Japan, and salespeople from 54 Thai businesses who attended trade shows in Vietnam. The total sum of the sampling is 365 Thai salespeople who attended trade shows in three different countries. The results indicated that there was a positive association between the CQ and the adaptive selling behavior and the customer-oriented selling behavior of the Thai salespeople in question. The results also showed that there was a positive indirect relationship between CQ and cross-cultural sales performance mediated by adaptive selling behavior and crosscultural sales performance. Overall, results from this study indicated that CQ alone is not enough for salespeople to have a higher cross-cultural sales performance; adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling behavior are two important characteristics that strongly explain why salespeople with higher CQ tend to have higher cross-cultural sales performance.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research would not have been possible without the support of many people. Many thanks to my advisor, Asst. Prof. Dr. Peerayuth Charoensukmongkol, who read my numerous revisions and helped make some sense of the confusion. Also, thanks to my committee members, Asst. Prof. Dr. Sid Suntrayuth, Asst. Prof. Dr. Kriengsin Prasongsukarn and Dr. Apichart Intravisit, who offered guidance and support. Thanks to the International College of NIDA (Management) for awarding me a Dissertation Completion. And, finally, thanks to my family and my numerous friends at ICO NIDA (Management) who endured this long process with me, always offering support and love.

Arti Pandey July 2018

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page	e
ABSTRACTiii	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTSv	
TABLE OF CONTENTSvi	
LIST OF TABLESxi	
LIST OF FIGURES xiii	
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Background of the Study1	
1.2 Statement of the Problem	
1.3 Research Gap4	
1.4 Objectives of the Study4	
1.5 Contributions of the Study6	
1.5.1 Academic Contribution6	
1.5.2 Practical Contribution6	
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.1 The concept of cultural intelligence	
2.1.1 Conceptualization of CQ9	
2.1.2 Review of existing CQ researches & outcomes	
2.2 Cross-cultural selling	
2.3 Cross-Cultural Sales Performance	
2.4 Adaptive selling	
2.5 Customer-oriented selling	
2.6 Theory of mind	

2.7 Hypotheses Development27
2.7.1 Relationship between cognitive CQ and adaptive selling behavior27
2.7.2 Relationship between metacognitive CQ and adaptive selling behavior29
2.7.3 Relationship between motivational CQ and adaptive selling behavior31
2.7.4 Relationship between behavioral CQ and adaptive selling behavior31
2.7.5 Relationship between cognitive CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior
2.7.6 Relationship between metacognitive CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior
2.7.7 Relationship between motivational CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior
2.7.8 Relationship between behavioral CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior
2.7.9 Relationship between adaptive selling behavior and cross-cultural sales performance
2.7.10 Relationship between customer-oriented selling behavior and cross-
cultural sales performance
CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY
3.2 Selection of sample and procedure
3.2.1 Sample Size
3.3 Research Instrument
3.4 Data Collection Procedure
3.5 Measurement

	3.5.1 Cultural intelligence	45
	3.5.2 Adaptive selling behaviors	46
	3.5.3 Customer – oriented selling behaviors	46
	3.5.4 Cross-cultural sales performance	46
	3.6 Control Variable	47
	3.6.1 Age	47
	3.6.2 Gender	48
	3.6.3 Marital Status	48
	3.6.4 Education	49
	3.6.5 Selling Experience	49
	3.6.6 Prior education experience in target country	49
	3.6.7 Prior working experience in target country	50
	3.7 Data Processing Tools and Analysis	52
Cl	HAPTER 4 RESULTS	54
	4.1 Data	54
	4.2 Demographic characteristics	56
	4.3 Normal distribution	64
	4.4 Perception about cultural differences	66
	4.5 Model assessment	75
	4.5.1 Validity test	75
	4.5.1.1 Convergent validity test	75
	4.5.1.2 Discriminant validity test	79
	4.5.2 Reliability test	81

<u>-</u>	fficient & Composite reliability of all latent81
4.6 Structural Equation Model	83
4.6.1 Test of hypothesis	83
	92
	92
	C)92
	92
4.7.3 Average adjusted R-squared	(AARS)93
	ctor (AVIF)93
	n factor (AFVIF)93
	93
4.7.7 Simpson's paradox ratio (SPI	R)94
4.7.8 R-squared contribution ratio	(RSCR)94
	SSR)94
4.7.10 Nonlinear bivariate causality	y direction ratio (NLBCDR)94
4.8 Multicollinearity	97
4.9 Results summary and model specifi	ication problems99
	100
4.11 Summary of the results from the a	lternative model117
4.12 Results from indirect effects and t	otal effects analysis118
4.13 Results comparison between Vietr	nam, Japan and India119
CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSION	124
5.1 Research summary	124
	128
5.3 Research contributions	128
5.4 Practical contributions	129

5.5 Future research	131
BIBLIOGRAPHY	132
APPENDICES	146
DIOCDADIIV	165



LIST OF TABLES

Page
Table 2.1 Summary of research about the contribution of adaptive selling behaviors to sales performance
Table 2.2 Summary of research about the contribution of customer-oriented selling
behaviors to sales performance25
Table 2.3 Summary of research hypothesis
Table 3.1 Cultural intelligence (CQ) (Ang et al., 2007)
Table 3.2 Adaptive Selling Behaviors (R. L. Spiro & B. A. Weitz, 1990)51
Table 3.3 Customer-Oriented Selling Behaviors (Saxe & Weitz, 1982)52
Table 3.4 Cross-Cultural Sales Performance
Table 4.1 Questionnaire's response rates of Thai salespeople respondents in India, Japan and Vietnam
Table 4.2 Thai salespeople's age and selling experience in assigned country57
Table 4.3 Demographic characteristics of Thai salespeople respondents59
Table 4.4 Thai salespeople's prior international experience
Table 4.5 Normal distribution
Table 4.6 The Levene's Test for Equality of Variances of four dimensions of cultural difference in three countries
Table 4.7 A one-way between subjects ANOVA compares the effect of countries on four aspects of cultural differences
Table 4.8 Post hoc comparisons using the Dunnett'C test
Table 4.9 The combined factor loading and cross loadings of all latent variables76
Table 4.10 The correlations and average variance extracted of all latent variables80
Table 4.11 Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability of all latent

Table 4.12 PLS results
Table 4.13 <i>PLS results</i>
Table 4.14 <i>Model fit indices</i> 95
Table 4.15 Full VIF Statistics of all overall models
Table 4.16 The combined factor loading and cross loadings of second-order latent variable of CQ
Table 4.17 The correlations and average variance extracted of second-order latent variable of CQ
Table 4.18 Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability of second-order latent variable of CQ
Table 4.19 Normal distribution
Table 4.20 PLS results of second-order factor model
Table 4.21 Model fit indices of second-order factor model
Table 4.22 Full VIF Statistics of all overall models of second-order latent variable of CQ and all variables
Table 4.23 The analysis of cultural differences between Vietnam, Japan and India.122

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 2.1 The Conceptual Model	39

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

To date, the world of business is becoming more complex as the amount of international business organizations has increased rapidly (Yordanova, 2011). For this reason, the part of the world's total trade increase from international business activities, international business is growing faster than domestic business (Daniel & Radebaugh, 1995). International business is important because generates more profit back to the organizations. Many countries and companies have been given more business opportunities to distribute their products and services to other countries. Basically, no matter whether the business is large or small it can be affected by the competition in the global market. Doing international business can help organizations increase their sales volumes from international sales, increase profit, and facilitate firms to achieve greater scales of economy in the case that the firms' products are more widely accepted around the world (Andersen, 1997a). For these reasons, many local businesses want to have a presence in international markets. Many businesses put more effort in their international selling activities to meet the challenges of the complex international business environment. One way for organizations to start their international expansion is by attending the international trade shows in target countries in order to build the awareness of the firms' products to prospective international customers.

International trade shows have increased in popularity among international businesses around the world because they act as a significant component of international marketing and selling strategies (Andersen, 1997b). International trade shows are often used to obtain orders from prospective international customers and provide valuable information related to products and services to them. International trade shows also provide several benefits to business organizations. For example, they

can help to increase the speed of buying decisions from prospective international customers because they have the chance to observe and test the products in the international trade shows, which in turn help the business translating into a faster completion of the sales cycle. Generally, if the sales cycle is short, the selling cost will be reduced. In addition to these benefits trade shows can also provide opportunities for salespeople to have face-to-face contact with prospective international customers, demonstrate their products directly to international customers and provide products information. International trade shows also help salespeople to gain access to qualified prospective international customers and handle their complaints (Hutt & Speh, 1998). Therefore, in international trade shows if the prospective international customers are interested in the organizations' products, it will lead to larger brand awareness and increase in sales (Palumbo & Herbig, 2002).

Although international trade shows can provide great opportunities for businesses to build their position in the international market, it also involves major challenges that businesses must face. One particular challenge is the difficulty of salespeople to deal with foreign customers whose cultures tend to differ significantly from local customers. Nowadays, one of the top concerns of international businesses is the lack of culturally effective personnel (Lu, 2012). The problem is that applying the same selling strategies and behaviors with both domestic and cross-cultural customers may lead to inappropriate interpersonal interactions with cross-cultural customers and may create less impressive selling in the mind of international customers (Jones & Alexander, 2000). Cross-cultural selling is different from domestic selling in term of cultures, languages, norms, attitudes toward products, behaviors, and lifestyles of prospective customers. All of these define how a society functions, specifically from its business practices to negotiating sales. Domestic selling tasks are easier than cross-cultural selling tasks because when both salespeople and prospective customers live in the same culture, speak the same language, it is not difficult for salespeople to understand prospective customers' needs and can response to their needs accurately. In contrast, cross-cultural selling tasks in some countries require the salespeople to learn new languages, understand unfamiliar cultures and adapt their selling techniques in order to satisfy international customers' needs. Therefore, if the objective of the salesperson and his or her organizations is to develop

mutually beneficial cross-cultural buyer-seller relationships, then having the salespersons who are able to understand and to deal effectively with foreign buyers is necessary. Thus, it is crucial for sales managers to have salespeople with good cultural knowledge and skills so that they can increase the chance of success in their international trade show activity.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Given that cultural awareness and cultural adaptation are crucial for effective cross-cultural selling, it is essential for the salespeople to develop cross-cultural competency that allows them to be effective in cross-cultural selling. Although crosscultural selling is one of the most interesting topics that is gaining attention from the international business organizations, research related to the cross-cultural sales performance has been given less attention and understudied by researchers. Study related to cross-cultural sales performance is very important because it will benefit both organizations and their cross-cultural salespeople. Although there are several conceptualizations of cross-cultural competencies suggested in literature, one recent conceptualization of cross-cultural competency that has gained a lot of attention in research lately is cultural intelligence (CQ). CQ has been applied to many areas of research such as multinational team performance (P. C. Earley, Murnieks, & Mosakowski, 2007; P. Christopher Earley & Peterson, 2004; C. D. Thomas & Inkson, 2003), cultural judgment and decision making (Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2006), cultural adaptation and adjustment, cross-cultural performance of managers (Barakat, Lorenz, Ramsey, & Cretoiu, 2014; Collins, Duyar, & Pearson, 2016; Duff, Tahbaz, & Chan, 2012; Jeevan & Sumeet, 2015) and performance of entrepreneurial firms in the international business (Charoensukmongkol, 2016; Luu & Rowley, 2016; Tuan & Rowley, 2016). Given this evidence about the benefits of CQ that facilitate crosscultural performance in various areas, CQ might also be an important competency that can help salespersons enhance their performance when dealing with foreign customers.

1.3 Research Gap

While prior research found the benefits of CQ in various areas, there is no empirical evidence about the contributions of CQ to cross-cultural selling context. In fact, there is an article by J. D. Hansen, Singh, Weibaker, and Guesalaga (2011) that proposes a contribution of CQ in cross-cultural selling. In particular, the research framework proposed by J. D. Hansen et al. (2011), integrates research on cross-cultural effectiveness and adaptive selling in focusing on the ability of the salesperson to adapt based on the cultural background of the customer. The paper has explained about how national culture plays an important role in personal selling by utilizing the five dimensions by Hofstede and how CQ can be facilitated in cultural adaptation and in turn how it can be affective on performance. In the end, the paper recommended the importance of having empirical evidence to support the role of CQ in cross-cultural selling area. Therefore, the present study will make a contribution by offering empirical evidence to support this framework.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between the level of CQ presented by the salespeople who are responsible for the cross-cultural selling task in international trade shows. First, this research aims to seek evidence whether salesperson with high CQ tend to demonstrate more satisfactory cross-cultural sales performance. In addition to the direct linkage between CQ and cross-cultural sales performance, this research proposes that the contribution of CQ can be indirectly explained by two selling behaviors that can be promoted by CQ, which are: (1) Adaptive selling behaviors and (2) Customer-oriented selling behaviors. First, adaptive selling is the behavior that enables salespeople to tailor messages to fit individual customers' needs and preferences (Moghareh, Ghazaleh, & Haghighi, 2009). Second, customer-oriented selling behavior is the implementation of the marketing concept at the individual customer level in order to create customer satisfaction (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). These two selling behaviors are selected because the majority of prior research in personal selling has shown that they are crucial

characteristics that strongly enhance sales performance (Arndt & Karande, 2012; Franke & Park, 2006; Mehrabi, Noorbakhash, Shoja, & Karim, 2012; Romon & Iacobucci, 2010; Saxe & Weitz, 1982; Rosann L. Spiro & Barton A. Weitz, 1990; Tevan & Winters, 2007; Weitz, Sujan, & Sujan, 1986).

CQ, which is the skill set that acts as a tool for successful interaction in the international context (P. Christopher Earley 2002; P. Christopher Earley & Ang, 2003), is proposed in the present study as the characteristic of cross-cultural salespeople that can enhance adaptive selling behaviors and customer-oriented selling behaviors, which in turn facilitates the cross-cultural salespeople to achieve their cross-cultural sales performance goals. The present study will collect the data from the Thai salespeople who attend the international trade shows in three countries India, Japan and Vietnam. The reason that the researcher selected these three countries is because all three have growing economies and their contribution to global economic growth have increased. India, Japan and Vietnam are similar in terms of their growing in market size and consumerism. Most of the affluent of these countries are within age 35 to 59 years old and they are willing to purchase premium brands and products especially from Thailand.

Despite their similarity in terms of market opportunity, buyers from these three countries have some differences in terms of buying decision processes. The challenges that salespeople from Thailand normally face when they perform crosscultural selling tasks with these three countries' consumers are also different. In particular, cultural differences tend to make consumers in these countries more difficult for Thai salespeople to deal with as compared to when they deal with local consumers. Therefore, these three countries are relevant to the present study because the more cultural differences that exist, the more CQ can play an important role in helping salespersons to adapt their selling behaviors appropriately to the needs of international customers, which in turn will benefit their sales performance in these three countries (J. D. Hansen et al., 2011). Nevertheless, among these three countries, the culture of the Vietnamese seems to be more similar to Thai as compares to Indian and Japanese. Because prior research found that the benefits of CQ tend to be higher in high cultural diversity contexts (Collins et al., 2016; Duff et al., 2012; Huff, Song,

& Gresh, 2014; Kim & Mazumdar, 2016), this study will also investigate whether the benefits of CQ of salespersons in these three markets concerning selling behaviors and performance outcomes tend to be less relevant in the Vietnamese selling context, as compared to the Japanese and the Indian selling contexts or not.

This research will use *theory of mind* as the theoretical framework for hypothesis development to support the importance of CQ in cross-cultural selling behaviors. Theory of mind is a set of knowledge which provides the person to understand the mind of others, such as beliefs, preferences and ideas (Samson & Apperly, 2010). This theory is highly relevant to personal selling context because salespeople need to predict the minds and thoughts of their customers. On the basis of theory of mind, CQ can be the capability that facilitates the cross-cultural salespeople to predict the needs and expectations of international customers effectively and respond to their needs accurately, which in turn will increase cross-cultural sales performance.

1.5 Contributions of the Study

1.5.1 Academic Contribution

This study provides academic contribution to existing CQ research. Prior research studied the role of CQ in many areas of performance but the research study on the area of cross-cultural sales performance is still scarce. This research will fill this research gap by studying the role of CQ in cross-cultural salespeople, which is the context that has never been studied before. Results from this study will give more evidence to prior research regarding the benefits of CQ to salespeople who need to perform cross-cultural selling tasks.

1.5.2 Practical Contribution

This study will also provide practical contributions to many international business organizations because the result from this study will assist them to be more successful and effective in their selling activities. Moreover, this research is in the field of management study and the results from this study will also provide valuable information particularly to the area of human resource management. The results from

this study will provide the valuable information to human resources management to understand the qualifications which are needed for cross-cultural salespeople and help them to recruit the right people to fit the cross-cultural selling task. It will also provide valuable information related to a cross-cultural training that human resources management should provide for their sales force to enhance their cross-cultural selling skills and performance.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The concept of cultural intelligence

The concept of "cultural intelligence (CQ)" was introduced by P. Christopher Earley, Professor and Chair of Organizational Behavior at the London Business School and Soon Ang, Professor and Chair of the Division of Strategy, Management, and Organization at the Nanyang Business School, Singapore (P. Christopher, Earley & Ang 2003). CQ is the skill set that act as a tool for successful interaction in the international context (P Christopher Earley, 2002; P. Christopher Earley & Ang, 2003). P. Christopher Earley and Ang (2003) The conceptualization of CQ proposed by Earley and Ang is based on the Theory of Multiple Loci of Intelligence proposed by Sternberg and Detterman (1986). Many scholars who conducted the research in a field of cross cultural studies have defined CQ differently. P. Christopher. Earley and Ang (2003, p. 59) gave meaning to CQ as "a person's capability to adapt effectively to new cultural contexts". David Livermore (2011, p. 3) gave meaning to CQ as "the capability to function effectively across a variety of cultural contexts, such as ethnic, generational, and organizational cultures". C. David Thomas (2006, p. 14) defined CQ as "meant to reflect the capability to deal effectively with people from different cultural backgrounds". Therefore, CQ is the construct that can explain individuals' enduring characteristics of behaviors across time and situation, it is not a personality trait (Ang et al., 2007). People act effectively in various cultural environments if they have CQ (Crown, 2008).

In order to understand better about the concept of CQ a good start will be to understand the *emic* and *etic* perspectives. These two perspectives have been used in social science for a long period of time. An *emic* viewpoint studies behaviors from inside the system (Morris, Leung, Ames, & Lickel, 1999). An *etic* viewpoint studies

behavior from outside the system (Hofstede, 1980). *Emic* is the construct in which it happens specifically, in one culture and has meaning by its context. In contrast, *etic is* the construct occurs universally or across cultures (P. C. Earley et al., 2007). Murdock (1945) constructed the list of seventy cultural universals. The author included variables such as: food taboos, folklore, etc. These universals are usually expressed as the supra-societal level. Berry (1997, p. 74) mentioned that many variables can't be called as universal so he identified those variables as "*imposed-etics*" means those variables which normally presented in only some cultures but not in all cultures. In the same way, Yordanova (2011) gave the meaning to imposed - etics as those constructs that are assumed to be universal, but are actually not (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003). Therefore, CQ is suggested to focus on the discovery of both etics and emics through interaction with multicultural people (P. C. Earley et al., 2007).

2.1.1 Conceptualization of CQ

To date, there are three models of CQ. The first model is Earley and Ang's model of CQ, includes cognitive CQ, metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ. The second model is Thomas and Inkson's three-part model of CQ, includes knowledge, mindfulness, and skills. The last one is Livermore's four-dimensional model of CQ, includes CQ drive, CQ knowledge, CQ strategy and CQ action. Each model of CQ will be explained one at a time.

According to the original work of P. Christopher. Earley and Ang (2003), states that the framework of CQ consists of only three aspects which are cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ. Later, the scholars broke down cognitive CQ into two separate aspects of intelligence: cognitive CQ and metacognitive CQ, thereby making CQ a four-dimensional construct consisting of cognition, metacognition, motivation and behavior (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Cognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ originally proposed as the early components of CQ that resides in head, heart and body (P. Christopher Earley & Masanowski, 2004). According to P. Christopher Earley and Masanowski (2004), cognitive CQ (head) is how individuals learn about the beliefs and norms of other cultures. For example, individual with high

cognitive CQ can understand both similarities and differences across cultures. The second aspect is physical CQ (body) is an individuals' ability to mimic the behaviors of people from other culture and try to do what people in that culture do. Individuals can mimic the behaviors such as the way they shake hands, order their meals or the way they talk. By applying habits and mannerisms appropriately to the unfamiliar cultures will create trust and willingness to communicate by the people in other cultures. The third aspect is emotional / motivational CQ (heart), which is how much individuals have confidence and believe in their own capability that they can interact well with people in unfamiliar cultures. People who used to face with the challenging situations in the past, have more confidence in themselves. When individuals believe that they are not able to understand people from different cultures they are more likely to quit from putting their effort into trying to understand those people. Individuals with high motivation will be able to face difficulties in cross-cultural interactions. Failure is not a big thing for them, but it did make them stronger after facing obstacles.

C.David Thomas and Inkson (2004) developed CQ as a three-part model of knowledge, mindfulness and behavioral skill. According to C.David Thomas and Inkson (2004), the first component of CQ, knowledge, refers to individuals' knowledge about cultures, such as what culture is, how cultures are different, and how culture influences behavior and skills. Cultural differences influence what is desirable and this creates a motive to either take an action or not take an action. Nonetheless, knowledge about different cultures can lead to general knowledge about cultural behaviors, but not necessarily an understanding of which behaviors are appropriate for different cultural settings. The second component of CQ is mindfulness has been introduced to support individuals' ability to develop behaviors, appropriate in different cultural settings. C.David Thomas and Inkson (2004) introduced mindfulness as a mediation process between knowledge and action. Mindfulness leads individuals to monitor their own internal state and external environment (Felver, Doerner, Jones, Kaye, & Merrell, 2013). For example, individuals with high mindfulness are able to evaluate situations from several perspectives based on their internal personal process and external stimuli. The ability to evaluate the situations allows the individuals to understand and empathize with other people who may have a

different cultural background (Gardner, 1995). C.David Thomas and Inkson (2004) described behavioral ability the third component of CQ, as the ability to demonstrate appropriate behaviors or social skills in new cultural settings. Later, C. David Thomas (2006) changed the name of the component from behavioral ability to cross-cultural skills. Cross cultural skills are developed based on the awareness of the individuals' own knowledge of the other cultures, the ability to actively be aware of internal states and external cues, the awareness of the possible outcomes toward the actions, and the awareness of their own motives and goals that align with the expected possible outcomes (C. David Thomas, 2006; C.David Thomas & Inkson, 2004)

David Livermore (2011) viewed CQ as a four-dimensional model of CQ drive, CQ knowledge, CQ strategy and CQ action. According to David Livermore (2011), CQ drive (motivation) is the degree to which individuals are enthusiastic to function effectively in cross-cultural situations. Individuals are less likely to be successful without the ample drive to face challenging multicultural situations. CQ knowledge (cognition) is individuals' knowledge related to similarities and differences across cultures. It is not necessary to be expert about every culture individuals encounter. That's too much to reasonably expect and impossible to achieve. Instead, individuals should understand just the core cultural differences and how these affect them and others. CQ strategy (meta-cognition) is how individuals make sense of culturally diverse experiences and happens when individuals consider their own thought processes and those of others. CQ action (behavior) is an individual's ability to adapt their behavior to suit the various cross-cultural situations. It involves trying to be more flexible in their actions or expressions in order to response appropriately according to the nature of the cross-cultural situations.

In this research, the researcher applies the framework proposed by P. Christopher Earley and Ang (2003) because many researchers demonstrated that this framework is a consistent predictor of performance in multi-cultural settings and it has been applied and cited by many journal articles (David Livermore, 2011). In the next part, the four-dimensional construct of CQ which are cognitive CQ, metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ will be explained.

(1)Cognitive CQ:_Cognitive CQ is "an individual's cultural knowledge of norms, practices, and conventions in different cultural settings" (L. Van Dyne, Ang, & Koh, 2008, p. 17). This type of intelligence can be included in the knowledge about social interaction norms, beliefs, political systems or lifestyles of people in different cultures. Normally, all this general knowledge about other cultures can be gained by education and/or personal experience (C. David Thomas, 2006). Cognitive CQ allows individuals to understand similarities and dissimilarities across cultures (Brislin, Worthley, & Macnab, 2006).

The cultural knowledge component of CQ consists of three general types of knowledge that are: declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge. The knowledge that we have about oneself or others; about objects and environment is called declarative knowledge. Therefore, when people interact in different cultural settings they can rely on this aspect of cultural knowledge because it acts as a specific content knowledge about culture. This includes "universal" knowledge about culture that is related to various systems (lifestyles, preferences, social interaction norms, political systems) (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Procedural knowledge is the ability to process the knowledge, act upon it and gain new declarative knowledge, and conditional knowledge is knowledge of when and why to use cognitive knowledge (P Christopher Earley, 2002; Saks, 2016; Yordanova, 2011). This is practical knowledge that one can read from books or the internet and prepare oneself before going to a foreign country (Saks, 2016).

(2) Metacognitive CQ: Metacognitive CQ is "an individual's cultural consciousness and awareness during interactions with those from different cultural backgrounds" (L. Van Dyne et al., 2008, p. 17). According to Ang and Inkpen (2008), metacognition controls the processes in which persons use to acquire and understand cultural knowledge. Metacognitive CQ includes integrating the strategy before cross-cultural encounters, studying the situation during encounter time and adjusting the mental models if the cross-cultural situation differs from the expectations (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Meta-cognitive CQ can facilitate individuals to learn effectively during cross-cultural interactions. It helps individuals to accept and move beyond cultural stereotypes in order to understand the characteristics of people from other cultures and

accept the variability across cross-cultural situations (Triandis, 2006). Meta-cognitive CQ allows individual to understand people from other cultures and help them to increase the quality of their decisions in cross-cultural situations (Ang et al., 2007). Therefore, along with cognitive skills, in cross-cultural interaction a set of highly complex meta-cognitive skills is also required (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003).

Metacognitive CQ included two elements: metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive experience (Triandis, 2006). Metacognitive knowledge refers to the knowledge about the world in which people acquire; metacognitive knowledge is divided into three categories: knowledge related to people, knowledge about task variables, and knowledge about strategy variables (Flavell, Flavell, & Green, 1987). The first type of knowledge refers to the belief that individuals have about the ability that they can deal with the statistics or figures and analyses; the knowledge related to others' abilities; individuals' universal knowledge (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003). Importantly, there are some categories of information that require more efforts in order to gain it in contrast, some types of information are not difficult to reach, it depends on the process that is used to achieve the objective (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003). Metacognitive experience, as R. W. Thomas, Soutar, and Ryan (2001, p. 131) mentions is "the ability to carefully examine one's knowledge processes.". It is also linked to the process of integrating the related experiences for ease of future interactions (P. Christopher Earley & Peterson, 2004). Normally, people with this type of intelligence are conscious of their cultural knowledge during cross-cultural interactions (C. David Thomas, 2006) and if during their cross-cultural interactions anything differs from their expectations they are ready to adjust their mental models (Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009).

(3)Motivational CQ: Motivational CQ refers to the degree of interest and drive to adapt to new cultural surroundings (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003). It includes intrinsic motivation, i.e. the degree to which one enjoys cultural interactions; extrinsic motivation, i.e. tangible benefits derived from cultural experiences and self-efficacy, i.e. one's confidence to be effective in cultural encounter (Linn Van Dyne, Ang, & Livermore, 2010). Van Dynn et al. (2012, p. 131) gave the meaning of this type of CQ as "an individual's ability to put attention and effort in order to learn and adapt to

different cultural situations". Similarly, to the cognitive facet of CQ, the motivational dimension is also closely related with the self-concept that consists of three self-motives that are: enhancement, efficacy, and consistency.

Firstly, self enhancement refers to the desire to feel positively, and is affected by environmental influences as well as by psychological processes of sampling, assessing and interpreting the environment (Erez & Earley, 1993). High self-enhancement seems to be negatively related to motivational CQ in the case where it will reduce the individuals' motivation to find out about the external world. In contrast, when self-enhancement is low it will have a positive effect on motivational CQ the reason is it will increase the individuals' motivation to explore the external world (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003).

Secondly, self-efficacy refers to an attentiveness of individual's capability to achieve a particular level of performance (Erez & Earley, 1993). Self-efficacy in motivational CQ refers to an attentiveness of person's ability to achieve a particular level of performance in a different cultural environment (Bandura, 1986). Individuals with high motivational CQ are also self-efficacious in their adaptive capabilities (Templer et al., 2006). As suggested by P. Christopher. Earley and Ang (2003, p. 138) "the motivational aspect of CQ requires a personal sense of efficacy and desire for enactive mastery as well as a positive evaluation of such situations". Efficacy judgments facilitate the individuals to be more successful in their cross-cultural tasks performance and when they need to interact with people from different cultures (Banduram, 1977). Adaptation is less likely to happen when the motivational facet of CQ is weak (P Christopher Earley, 2002). High self-efficacy persons are more engaged and persistent in difficult situations and commit in a problem-solving task in order to find the best solution (Bandura, 1986). This characteristic is very crucial in cross-cultural interaction because it helps individuals to be more interested in socializing with people from different cultures even though they are not familiar with that culture they will try to put an effort into understand it (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005; J. K. Harrison & Brower 2011; Palthe, 2004)

Thirdly, self-consistency is one's desire "to keep stable in their experiences and cognition" (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003, p. 83). Self-consistency leads to the active construction of memories and selective perceptions in line with previous

events, and directs people to behave according to their values and norms (Erez & Earley, 1993). According to P. C Earley, Ang, and Tan (2006), individual past experiences are related to his/her self-consistency motive as well. An individual tries to keep connection of the past with present and future he/she has high self-consistency motive (Lecky, 1945). For such a person, history will play a central role in shaping self-consistency Such person will rely heavily on interpreting new information in terms of preexisting ideas and perspectives (P. Christopher, Earley & Ang 2003). Likewise, new situations encountered are likely to be discounted or adapted if they appear inconsistent with existing ideas (Templer et al., 2006). It can be said that people with high self-consistency are more likely to be less open to new experiences and less adaptive to the new information (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003). For instance, individuals are less likely to adapt to cross-cultural environment when they have high level of self-consistency motivation because they will reject the information that does not fit into their own opinions (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003). In contrast, people who have low self-consistency are not only able to adapt to new cultural environments but they are also intrinsically interested in and motivated to explore an experience in diverse cultures (Templer et al., 2006).

(4)Behavioral CQ: Behavioral CQ refers to the individual's ability to adapt their behavior appropriately to different cross-cultural situations (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003). It also and the capability to adapt themselves to the customs and lifestyles of various cultures (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003)

Normally, people with high level of behavioral CQ they are more flexible in their behaviors (P. Christopher Earley 2002). They can choose appropriate behavior and right communication styles when interacting with foreigners such as exhibiting appropriate words, tones, gestures, and facial expressions similar to the foreigners (Yordanova, 2011). Effective cross-cultural behavior is attributed or explained by an individual's self-presentation, which encompasses self-enhancement and impression management (P. Christopher Earley & Ang, 2003). For example, to manage a good impression in cross-cultural interaction individuals often are required to speak a language that is different from their own, behavioral CQ helps individuals to learn a new language (Yordanova, 2011). Additionally, foreign language proficiency is

important for impressive cross-cultural interaction, expressing beliefs, attitudes, and values (P. Christopher Earley & Ang, 2003). Behavioral CQ also includes using the appropriate non-verbal behavior according to the people in other cultures. Facial expression or gestures can create good impression to the people in different cultures (Yordanova, 2011).

2.1.2 Review of existing CQ researches & outcomes

Prior research has identified a number of individual and interpersonal outcomes associated with CQ in various cultural settings (Keung, 2011). These benefits include task performance (Ang et al., 2007), cultural judgment and decision making (Templer et al., 2006), intercultural negotiation (Imai & Gelfand, 2010), organizational innovation (Elenkov & Ivan, 2009) and cross-cultural adjustment (Rockstuhl & Ng, 2011).

CQ was found to enhance cross cultural adjustment and cultural adaptation (A. Malek, Martin & P. Budhwar, 2013; Sahin, Gurbuz, & Koksal, 2014; Stockert, 2015; Subraniam, Ramula, Wei, & Rose, 2011). For example, Schreuders-van den Bergh and Du Plessis (2016) found that motivational CQ had effect on the successful adjustment of self-initiated expatriate women. Jyoti and Kour (2015) found that CQ facilitated cultural adjustment, which in turn, allowed the managers in multicultural organizations in India to enhance task performance. Presbitero (2016) found that CQ reduced the negative impact of reverse culture shock, thereby promoting psychological and sociocultural adaptation. Sahin et al. (2014) found that CQ was positively related to adaptive performance of military personnel during international assignments. Several studies also found that cultural intelligence of expatriate had direct influence in general, interaction and work (Huff et al., 2014; A. Malek, Martin & P. Budhwar, 2013; Subraniam et al., 2011) . Subraniam et al. (2011) found that expatriates in Malaysia with greater meta-cognitive and motivational CQ they are better in general adjustment.

Research also provides support about the benefits of CQ on performance outcomes in cross-cultural contexts (Collins et al., 2016; Duff et al., 2012). For

example, Collins et al. (2016) found that Principals' level of CQ significantly predicted Latino students' achievement scores of eight grade math and eight grade language arts. Jeevan and Sumeet (2015) found that cultural intelligence significantly contributes toward task performance of managers of Nationalized banks in India. Barakat et al. (2014) found that the global managers high in CQ exhibit more job satisfaction in cross-cultural settings, and therefore perform better at their jobs. Kim and Mazumdar (2016) found that the more cultural diversity in the team the higher the team performance and team members who have high levels of CQ tend to perform better than team members who have lower levels of CQ. Duff et al. (2012) found that behavioral CQ enhanced task performance of international students.

CQ was also found to enhance performance of entrepreneurs in international business (Charoensukmongkol, 2016; Luu & Rowley, 2016; Tuan & Rowley, 2016). For example, Luu and Rowley (2016) found that cultural intelligence showed positive effect on identity-based trust and knowledge based trust which in turn influences idiosyncratic joint venture deals and 100 percent of foreign-invested firms in Vietnam. Tuan (2015) found that CQ of entrepreneurs in Vietnam multi-national companies positively affected entrepreneurial orientation, which in turn, promoted competitive intelligence. Charoensukmongkol (2015) found that there was a positive relationship between CQ of entrepreneurs and the quality of the relationships that small and medium enterprises had with foreign customers, foreign suppliers and foreign competitors. The quality of relationship was positively related to export performance. CQ of entrepreneurs also related positively to international knowledge acquisition capability of export firms in Thailand (Charoensukmongkol, 2016).

2.2 Cross-cultural selling

Selling is a process in which success depends on the salesperson's ability in identifying and satisfying the needs of the customer (Evans & Laksin, 1994). Selling jobs encompass a variety of responsibilities by salespeople (Moncrief, 1986). Salespeople play a crucial role in the selling process because they need to interact face-to-face with the customers (Sharma, 2001). They have to learn about the market situation and the information related to the companies' products and services that will

be offered to customers (Cook & Herche, 1992). It is very crucial for salespeople to have empathy towards customers in order to analyze their needs (D. V. Bush, Rose, Gilbert, & Ingram, 1994). Nowadays, salespeople have to find more creative and flexible ways of presentation because the consumer markets have become more competitive. This is the reason that many salespeople try to create collaborative relationships with their customers in order to respond to these challenges in the consumer markets (Anderson, 1996).

Nowadays, global markets offer many good opportunities for the firms around the world to enter into international markets for their businesses growth and expansion. The more international expansion by the firms the more challenging work will belong to cross cultural selling by salespeople (J. D. Hansen et al., 2011). Cook and Herche (1992) mentioned that the increase in complexity in the environment and demand of the global markets affects more in the area of personal selling than in other area of global enterprise. Firms in this era are more likely to put their effort in international buyer - seller relationship in order to increase their organizations' growth rates (Anderson, 1996). The emerging markets of the world are totally different in terms of cultural backgrounds of consumer and dispositions (D. J. Hansen, Singh, Weibaker, & Guesalaga, 2013). These differences not only affect the behaviors of consumers in those countries but also affect the marketing and management strategies which firms will implement (Johnson & Tellis, 2008). As a result, customers from different countries have varieties of needs, thus, it is very crucial for sales forces to try to understand cross-cultural customers' needs and expectations in order to provide the best solutions for their needs.

When people from different cultures communicate with each other specifically, in buying-selling situation the values, thoughts and actions of both parties are totally different from each other. Therefore, this situation will increase the uncertainty of the selling outcomes (D. V. Bush et al., 1994). Dealing with customers from different backgrounds creates uncertainty in terms of salespeople having to keep the right manner in order to communicate successfully (V. D. Bush, Rose, Gilbert, & Ingram, 2001). Salespersons need to know how to interact with the buyers in the way that the buyers prefer and try to practice those techniques to accomplish the sales goals (Marks, Vorchies, & Badovick, 1996; Morgan & Stoltman, 1990). Salespersons need

to have the knowledge about different types of customers specifically, customer's traits and tactics for selling to them effectively (Morgan & Stoltman, 1990; Sujan, Sujan, & Bettman, 1988). The most challenging work for salespeople in cross-cultural selling tasks is they need to have enough knowledge about prospective customers, confidence to explain about the products and the ability to predict the messages and behaviors of the customers from different cultures (V. D. Bush et al., 2001).

2.3 Cross-Cultural Sales Performance

Many pieces of literature have mentioned the importance of sales skills to crosscultural selling. (Churchill, Ford, S.W., & C., 1985; Rentz, David, Armen, Dabholka, & Ladd, 2002). Given that cross-cultural sales can generate high profit to organizations, salespeople need to seek more creative and flexible selling techniques to respond to foreign customer's needs (Delpechitre, 2013; Kanten, 2014). Businesses are seeking competitive advantage by responding to the global customers' demands. The increase in complexity in the environment and demand of the global markets affects more to the area of personal selling than in other areas of global enterprise (Cook & Herche, 1992). The more international expansion by the firms the more challenging work will belong to cross-cultural selling by salespeople (J. D. Hansen et al., 2011). Salespeople are the most important persons to interact between the organizations and their customers. Salespeople have primary responsibility for the buying decision of cross-cultural customers and their retention (Baldauf & Lee, 2011). A top-quality salesperson who can increases revenues from current existing customers and has the ability to identify and manage new prospects well will allow a business entity to grow faster in international markets than their competition (Cambell, Davis, & Skinner, 2006). Nowadays, such efforts are very crucial in an international environment because prospective customers have many more alternatives than ever before (Ingram, 2004). To realize sales force issues in their international tasks would seem to be crucial for every international selling organization's success in the long run since the sales function dominates in a significant role in the global selling process of most firms (J. D. Hansen et al., 2011).

Selling across cultures is a complex task for some salespeople because it requires a high level of cultural sensitivity (J. D. Hansen et al., 2011). The needs and wants of customers around the world are different according to their cultural norms and the ways to satisfy those wants and needs by salespeople are also different (Delpechitre, 2013). The most complex task for the salesperson is to have enough knowledge and confidence in order to present the products and predict messages and behaviors that differ from their culture (D. V. Bush et al., 1994). In order to perform better in cross-cultural selling salespeople often come up with selling behaviors that match with the prospective customers in international markets. As a driver of sales force effectiveness, selling behaviors are expected to shape the manner in which salespeople develop and maintain buyer-seller relationships (Zoltners, Sinha, & Lorimer, 2008). With regard to the effects of selling behaviors on sales performance, a majority of research found that adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling are two key salespersons characteristics that strongly explain sales performance (Franke & Park, 2006; Saxe & Weitz, 1982; R. L. Spiro & B. A. Weitz, 1990; Weitz et al., 1986). While adaptive selling is the ability of salespersons to tailor the sales message to the uniqueness of each selling situation Rosann L. Spiro and Barton A. Weitz (1990) customer-oriented selling is the willingness of salespersons to implement the marketing concept at individual customer level (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). In the next section, the researcher will discuss adaptive selling and customer-oriented selling in detail.

2.4 Adaptive selling

Adaptive selling is "the altering of sales behaviors during a customer interaction or across customer interactions based on perceived information about the nature of the selling situation" (Weitz et al., 1986, p. 175). This approach enables salespeople to tailor messages to fit individual customers' needs and preferences (Moghareh & Haghighi, 2009). Salespeople with high levels of adaptive selling behaviors can vary their sales presentation according to the nature of the selling situation and try to adjust their sales presentations during these sales encounters (Romon & Iacobucci, 2010) In contrast, salespeople with low levels of adaptive selling behaviors use the same sales

presentations across sales encounters and are less likely to adjust their sales presentations during sales encounters (R. L. Spiro & B. A. Weitz, 1990). The adaptive selling process requires the salespeople to first gather information about prospective customers, use this information to develop selling strategies appropriate for customers, deliver the messages to implement those selling strategies, evaluate the feedback from customers, and adjusting the selling strategies based on these evaluations (Pettijohn, Pettijohn, & Taylor, 2002; Weitz, 1978). Salespeople can follow processes in order to have successful adaptive selling behavior (Rosann L. Spiro & Barton A. Weitz, 1990).

Nowadays, with heavy emphasis being placed on the role of salespeople in cross-cultural selling activities, salespeople need to understand cross-cultural customers' needs and the way that they make the buying decisions in order to respond to their needs correctly and use appropriate selling behaviors (Mallalieu & Nakmoto, 2006). Adaptive selling behavior is a key driver of sales performance and it is a widely studied selling behavior (Verbek, Bietz, & Verwall, 2011). Several studies found that adaptive selling behavior has positive effects on sales performance (Anh, Dung, Tram, & Thuy, 2016; Bukari & Jainullabdeen, 2015; S. Chakrabarty, Brown, & Widing II, 2013; Franke & Park, 2006; Kara, Andalleb, Tura, & Cabuk, 2013; Kaynak, Kara, & Laukkanen, 2016; Romon & Iacobucci, 2010; Siminitiras, Ifie, Watkings, & Georgakas, 2013; Tevan & Winters, 2007). Research that supported the contribution of adaptive selling behaviors to sales performance in different contexts are summarized in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Summary of research about the contribution of adaptive selling behaviors to sales performance

Authors	Research contexts
Anh, Ky and Hieu (2016)	Frontline employees in the health care service in Vietnam
Chakrabarty et al., (2013)	Salespeople in Finland and Macau
Bukari and Jainullabdeen (2015)	Medical sales representatives of top Pharmaceutical companies in India
Kara, Andalleb, Tura and Serap (2013)	Pharmaceutical salespersons in Turkey
Chakrabarty, Brown and Widing II (2013)	Salespeople from various industries in US
Simintiras, Ifie, Watkings and Georgakas (2013)	Salespeople in retail organizations in mainland Greece
Romon and Iacobucci (2009)	Salespeople of financial services firms in Spain
Tevan and Winters (2007)	Pharmaceutical sales representatives in US
Franke and Park (2006)	Native English-speaking sales forces from various industries in US

(ชายมนบริชา)

2.5 Customer-oriented selling

Customer-oriented selling can be defined as the implementation of the market orientation construct at the individual level of salespeople (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). Customer-oriented selling strategy emits from the marketing concept, a management philosophy which explains that - businesses should try to put more effort forward in order to satisfy the needs of their customers by coordinating set of activities that allows them to reach their organizations' goals (Homburg, Muller, & Klarmann, 2011; Mehrabi et al., 2012). In order to apply customer-oriented selling behavior it is necessary for salespeople to have skills and knowledge to collect information related to their customers by effective listening then analyze and understand customer problems and last, tailor their offerings to customer needs (Boorom, Goolsby, & Ramsey, 1998; Saxe & Weitz, 1982). This approach emphasizes long-term relationships with customers (Abed & Haghighi, 2009). When salespeople try to create customer satisfaction, he/she can be called customer oriented salespeople (Boorom et al., 1998). This can happen if salespeople follow customer oriented sales strategies and really have concern for their customers' needs and problems (Homburg et al., 2011).

In cross-cultural selling it is significant for salespeople to understand the needs of customers from different cultures correctly in order to satisfy their needs and deliver optimum solutions to solve their problems (S. Chakrabarty et al., 2013). Top performing salespeople are expected by their selling organizations to have a high level of product knowledge, company knowledge, industry knowledge and of course extensive customer knowledge. With increasing numbers of organizations in international business and high competition in international market therefore, salespeople need to satisfy cross-cultural consumers' needs for the long-run in order to build long-term relationships with them (Abed & Haghighi, 2009). Therefore, consumer-oriented selling behavior is a selling behavior that has been studied widely in research (Verbek et al., 2011). Several studies have confirmed the positive relationship between customer orientation with employees and salespeople's performance (Arndt & Karande, 2012; Choi & Joung, 2017; Franke & Park, 2006;

Kaynak et al., 2016; McIntyre, Claxton, Anselmi, & Wheatley, 2000; Mehrabi et al., 2012; Singh & Das, 2013; Tevan & Winters, 2007; Thurau, Gwinner, & Gremirer, 2002; Yakasai & M., 2015). Research that supported the contribution of customer-oriented selling behaviors to sales performance in different contexts are summarized in Table 2.2.



Table 2.2 Summary of research about the contribution of customer-oriented selling behaviors to sales performance

Authors	Research contexts
Choi and Joung (2017)	Frontline employee in food service industry in Korea
Kaynak, Kara and Laukkanen (2016)	Salespeople in Finland and Macau
Yakasai and Jan (2015)	Salespersons from various businesses in Malaysia
Bukari and Jainullabdeen (2015)	Medical sales representatives of top Pharmaceutical companies in India
Singh and Das (2013)	Business-to-business insurance salespeople
Arndt and Karande (2012)	Pharmaceutical salespeople in Indonesia.
Mehrabi, Noorbakhash, Shoja and Karim (2012)	Salespeople at Bilehsavar County Market in Turkey
McIntyre, Claxton, Anselmi and Wheatley (2000)	Real estate salespeople in United States.
Thurau (2002)	Travel agents' employees and retail business's employees in Germany.
Romon and Iacobucci (2009)	Salespeople of financial services firms in Spain
Tevan and Winters (2007)	Pharmaceutical sales representatives in US
Franke and Park (2006)	Native English-speaking sales forces from various industries in US

2.6 Theory of mind

This research will use theory of mind as a framework for hypothesis development because it is the most influential theory in personal selling context. The theory of mind places an emphasis on "a set of knowledges that allows one to understand unobservable mental states, such as belief, desire and knowledge" (Samson & Apperly, 2010, p. 443). Theory of mind is the "ability of a person to place him/herself in another person's mind in order to understand other's perspective (Druback, 2008, p. 355). This theory is most relevant in the selling context because salespeople need to predict the mind, thoughts and desires of their customers in order to provide the most appropriate products and services that can create customer satisfaction (Sahin et al., 2014). Using the theory of mind will facilitate salespeople to learn and know their customers' behaviors and expectations and will help salespeople to reach their target sales (Subhra Chakrabarty, Widing, & Brown, 2014).

When applying the theory of mind to cross-cultural selling task, the emphasis is the ability of salespeople to speculate what international customers are thinking, feeling, and how they will react in a given sales situation (S. Chakrabarty et al., 2013). If the salespeople can predict the mind of foreign customers, they will know how to interact with them in the manner that satisfies foreign customer's needs. Theory of mind fits with adaptive selling behaviors because before and during buying-selling interactions salespeople need to predict the thoughts, desires, and behaviors of customers in order to adapt their selling behaviors appropriately (Bukari & Jainullabdeen, 2015). In a selling context, salespeople must select the selling strategy based on the nature of selling situation, they have to adapt their selling behaviors to the uniqueness of each selling situation that requires high levels of adaptive ability. Thus, highly adaptive salespeople have the skill to find the selling strategies that can fit to both themselves, customer characteristics and the nature of selling situations (Kara et al., 2013). Theory of mind also fits with customer-oriented selling behavior because salespeople with high customer-orientation need to understand the beliefs and expectations of customers. They need to know how to identify customers' needs in order to present the best solution for them (S. Chakrabarty et al., 2013).

CQ can fit with the theory of mind because CQ helps salespeople to understand and predict the needs of international customers more accurately. On the basis of theory of mind, salespeople with high CQ tend to be more able to predict the desires and needs of the international customers correctly because they have background knowledge related to international customers' cultures, beliefs, lifestyles and also their verbal and nonverbal communications style (S. Chakrabarty et al., 2013). Therefore, CQ can be the capability that facilitates the cross-cultural salespeople to first understand the needs and expectations of international customers then they can predict the needs of international customers effectively and more accurately, which in turn will increase their cross-cultural sales performance.

2.7 Hypotheses Development

This research proposes that all four aspects of CQ can contribute to the ability of salespersons to effectively demonstrate adaptive selling behaviors in cross-cultural sales situations.

2.7.1 Relationship between cognitive CQ and adaptive selling behavior

This research proposes that cognitive CQ can contribute to the ability of salespersons to effectively demonstrate adaptive selling behavior in cross-cultural sales situations. First, in order for salespersons to effectively adapt their selling behaviors in cross-cultural selling, it is crucial for them to possess an adequate level of cultural knowledge about what is appropriate in the culture of international customers. In a cross-cultural selling task, it even more challenging for salespeople to adapt their selling behavior because they need to have the knowledge and information related to international customers such as their beliefs, values, cultures, lifestyles, preferences etc. in order to know how to interact in the manner that satisfies their clients' cultural expectation. The more cultural knowledge salespeople possess, the more willingness and confidence salespeople will have to practice adaptive selling behavior (Sahin et al., 2014). Therefore, the cognitive CQ which represents an individual's general knowledge about norms, practices, value, and beliefs in different

cultural settings is very important for salespeople who engage in cross-cultural sales adaptation.

This general knowledge will increase the quality of adaptive selling behaviors and help salespeople to customize the content and format of their messages for more effective communication with foreign prospective customers (Franke & Park, 2006). The higher cognitive CQ that salespeople have, the more knowledge they have about international customers' culture. This can help salespeople to understand how to adapt their behaviors and communicate effectively with international customers (Putranto & Ghazali, 2013). Salespeople with high cognitive CQ tend to have richer and more clearly defined hierarchical structures of cultural categories (J. D. Hansen et al., 2011). With a hierarchical structure, information can be categorized at more adaptive or specific levels facilitating salespeople to cope effectively with varieties of problems (Weber & Crocker, 1983). Prior research mentioned that the effectiveness of adaptive selling increases with the degree to which salespeople have hierarchically organized knowledge structure (Weitz et al., 1986). In cross-cultural selling, it is even more important for salespeople to have a hierarchical structure because sometimes salespeople need to classify prospective international customers in the same target country at a more specific level (Weber & Crocker, 1983). For example, when salespeople receive the information about prospective international customers that is inconsistent with his or her knowledge and information (e.g. they are more detailoriented and more knowledgeable) a salesperson with a hierarchical structure is able to classify the prospective international customer at a more specific level (e.g. specified by their education level). According to this example, hierarchical structure tends to facilitate salespeople to adapt their selling behaviors more effectively according to the different cultural background of foreign customers in the target country. With hierarchical structure salespeople tend to be more flexible in utilizing their knowledge for solving different problems in cross-cultural selling tasks (Weitz et al., 1986). For this reason, the general knowledge about international customers' cultures, as reflected by cognitive CQ, will help salespeople to adapt their selling behaviors more effectively and accurately in cross-cultural selling situations. Given all literature support about the roles of cognitive CQ which might facilitate

salespeople to develop adaptive selling behaviors, then this hypothesis can be expected:

Hypothesis 1: Cognitive CQ of salespeople is positively related to adaptive selling behavior

2.7.2 Relationship between metacognitive CQ and adaptive selling behavior

This research proposes that metacognitive CQ can contribute to the ability of salesperson to effectively demonstrate adaptive selling behavior in cross-cultural sales situations. Metacognitive CQ can also play a significantly role in adaptive selling in cross-cultural context. Individuals high in metacognitive CQ are consciously aware of others' cultural needs before and during interactions (Ang et al., 2007). They try to observe and learn during cross-cultural interactions and adjust their mental models if anything is different from their expectations (Brislin et al., 2006; Triandis, 2006). For this reason, they not only understand the processes through which they can enhance their cultural understanding, but also the means through which this understanding should be applied during interactions (Racicot & Ferrry, 2016). These characteristics of people with high metacognitive CQ tend to facilitates salespeople to fulfil their adaptive selling behaviors more effectively. The reason is because adaptive selling during cross-cultural interactions require salespeople to be able to sense crosscultural customers' personalities, moods, information needs etc. (Sahin et al., 2014) In this regard, metacognitive CQ will enable salespeople to enhance their sensitivity to the new cultural environment and ready to adapt their existing knowledge and thoughts to suit the nature and personalities of cross-cultural customers (J. D. Hansen et al., 2011). It will also help salespeople to know which level of adaptation will be appropriated for each cross-cultural selling situation.

Metacognitive CQ also allows the salespeople to be consciously aware when interacting with people from culturally complex countries which have a wide array of sub-cultures. The ethnicity as a basic subculture, affects both personality and behaviors of people (Jacob, 2005). Many cross-cultural researchers considered countries as homogeneous cultural units, while countries are composed of subcultures which have essential differences with each other (Khastar, Kalhorian, Khalouei, & Maleki 2011). For example, India is a culturally complex country which has a host of constitutionally recognized languages, numerous dialects and a wide array of

subcultures. People in different regions of India they are totally different in their personalities, attitudes and behaviors (Sahin et al., 2014). Therefore, in countries like this, salespeople must adapt their selling techniques appropriately for different subcultures of foreign customers. Because metacognitive CQ tends to help salespeople to be more consciously aware of the preferences of people from different subcultures (Racicot & Ferrry, 2016), it will facilitate salespeople to refrain from basing their selling methods on stereotypical assumptions concerning cultures. Rather, salespeople with metacognitive CQ will carefully observe and learn about some unknown characteristics of foreign customers in each subculture so that they can adjust selling strategies more appropriately (J. D. Hansen et al., 2011). Basically, in adaptive selling the first priority of the salespeople is to gather information about foreign customers both before and during cross-cultural interactions in order to prepare their selling strategies (Singh & Das, 2013). Sometimes salespeople have already set their selling strategies that they will use during cross-cultural interactions but the nature of selling situations and the nature of cross-cultural customers may not be consistent with their expectations. This issue is not a problem for salespeople with metacognitive CQ. Prior research found that individuals with higher levels of metacognitive CQ are be more likely to develop clear plans and strategies and so will be more likely to test their ideas and understanding of situations through active experimentation (Racicot & Ferrry, 2016). They are also better able to evaluate new experiences without being influenced by past experiences (Racicot & Ferrry, 2016). As a result, they will gain new knowledge apart from their existing knowledge (Sahin et al., 2014). In this regard, salespeople with high metacognitive CQ are more likely to test the selling strategies that they have prepared first when they meet with their foreign customers; if anything is different from their expectations or prior understanding about international customers they are more willing to adapt their selling strategies (Sahin et al., 2014). When salespeople with high metacognitive CQ face different selling situations that they have never expected or anticipated they tend to be very fast in evaluating the selling situations without relying on their previous experiences. For this reason, metacognitive CQ tends to facilitate salespeople to adapt their selling behavior more effectively. Given all literature support about the roles of metacognitive CQ which might facilitate salespeople to develop adaptive selling behaviors, then this hypothesis can be expected:

Hypothesis 2: Metacognitive CQ of salespeople is positively related to adaptive selling behavior

2.7.3 Relationship between motivational CQ and adaptive selling behavior

This research proposes that motivational CQ can contribute to the ability of salespersons to effectively demonstrate adaptive selling behavior in cross-cultural sales situations. Motivational CQ can also play a significant role in adaptive selling in the cross-cultural context. In cross-cultural selling tasks salespeople often face with difficulty in cross-cultural adaptation (J. D. Hansen et al., 2011). To have only an appropriate knowledge base and level of cultural awareness are not sufficient for cross-cultural selling tasks. Salespeople also need to have willingness to apply these capabilities to the cross-cultural selling situations (Kanten, 2014). The motivational facet of CQ is a source of drive that triggers energy and effort of individuals to function effectively in cross-cultural selling situation (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Generally, individuals with high motivational CQ tend to direct their attention and energy toward intercultural situations based on their intrinsic motivation and selfefficacy (Sahin et al., 2014). For this reason, salespeople with high motivational CQ tend to have intrinsic drive to put their attention, effort and energy to use adaptive sales techniques to satisfy foreign customer's needs (J. D. Hansen et al., 2011). This drive and motivation will help the salespeople to be less disappointed with their mistakes and failures during cross-cultural sales adaptation (Van Dynn et al., 2012). They will not give up and try to improve their performance to achieve successful sales adaptation. Given all literature supports the roles of motivational CQ which might facilitate salespeople to develop adaptive selling behaviors, then this hypothesis can be expected:

Hypothesis 3: Motivational CQ of salespeople is positively related to adaptive selling behavior

2.7.4 Relationship between behavioral CQ and adaptive selling behavior

This research also proposes that behavioral CQ can contribute to the ability of salesperson to effectively demonstrate adaptive selling behavior in cross-cultural sales situations. Lastly, behavioral CQ can contribute to the ability of salesperson to engage effectively when interacting with cross-cultural customers. Cultural knowledge and motivation of salespeople play but a small role in evaluating overall CQ; this knowledge must be applied through suitable verbal and nonverbal actions (Sahin et al., 2014). Behavioral CQ refers to the ability of individual to adapt their verbal and nonverbal actions appropriately when interacting with cross-cultural people (Sahin et al., 2014). For cross-cultural adaptation, verbal and nonverbal behaviors are very important since vocal, facial and other outward expressions represent a very important proportion of the meaning that is conveyed and interpreted between peoples (Ang & Inkpen, 2008). In adaptive selling salespeople need to react appropriately according to the messages and expressions which customers send to salespeople (Sahin et al., 2014). Salespeople who are high in behavioral CQ are effective at adapting to the culture of their customer because they can use a broad range of communication capabilities in the same ways that foreigners do such as exhibiting culturally appropriate words, tone, gestures, and facial expressions (J. D. Hansen et al., 2011). Prior research mentioned that behavioral CQ facilitates people to choose proper behavior when they interact with people from other cultures and to react appropriately with the right communication (Bucker, Furrer, Poutsma, & Buyens, 2014). These characteristics are highly required for adaptive selling in cross-cultural context (Bucker et al., 2014). For this reason, behavioral CQ tends to help salespeople to break down cultural barriers during cross-cultural interactions with foreign customers (Kanten, 2014). Given all literature supports the roles of behavioral CQ which might facilitate salespeople to develop adaptive selling behaviors, then this hypothesis can be expected:

Hypothesis 4: Behavioral CQ of salespeople is positively related to adaptive selling behavior

This research also proposes that all four aspects of CQ can contribute to the ability of salesperson to effectively demonstrate customer-oriented selling behaviors in cross-cultural sales situations.

2.7.5 Relationship between cognitive CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior

This research proposes that cognitive CQ can contribute to the ability of salespersons to effectively demonstrate customer-oriented selling behaviors in crosscultural sales situations. Customer-oriented selling behavior requires the salespersons to understand customer's needs and offer the best solution for customers in order to create long-term relationships (Mehrabi et al., 2012). This task can be more difficult in cross-cultural selling given that the beliefs, desires and needs of foreign customers may significantly differ from when salespeople deal with local customers. Therefore, the cognitive CQ is important for salespeople in this case because it represents the quality of cultural knowledge about foreign customers' values, preferences and lifestyles which can facilitate the salespeople to identify foreign customers' needs (Van Dynn et al., 2012). This can be supported by prior research which mentioned that the knowledge about similarity and dissimilarity about people in other cultures is the key to success in cross-cultural service (H. E. Lee, 2015). Given all literature supports the roles of cognitive CQ which might facilitate salespeople to develop customer-oriented selling behaviors, then this hypothesis can be expected:

Hypothesis 5: Cognitive CQ of salespeople is positively related to customeroriented selling behavior

2.7.6 Relationship between metacognitive CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior

This research proposes that metacognitive CQ can contribute to the ability of salespersons to effectively demonstrate customer-oriented selling behaviors in cross-cultural sales situations. Metacognitive CQ also plays a crucial role to help salespeople to present customer-oriented selling behavior in cross-cultural context. In order to demonstrate customer-oriented selling behavior sometimes salespeople need to handle objections and disagreements regarding the solution that they provide to customers (Kanten, 2014). Therefore, the metacognitive CQ is important for salespeople in this case because it represents an individual's cultural consciousness and awareness, which will help salespeople to handle foreign customer's objection

carefully (Ang et al., 2007). Generally, salespeople with metacognitive CQ will not respond automatically to foreign customers' objections and disagreements based on their stereotypical assumptions about cultures; rather, they will try to choose the most appropriate answer and solution that match cultural expectations of foreign customers. More importantly, they will not act before they can make sure that their response is culturally appropriate (Kanten, 2014; Triandis, 2006). In this regard, metacognitive CQ tends to support salespeople to engage in customer-oriented selling behavior by making them be more sensitive and aware of foreign customers' needs and expectations and try to deal with undesired objections from foreign customers appropriately (Ang et al., 2007). Given all literature supports the roles of metacognitive CQ which might facilitate salespeople to develop customer-oriented selling behaviors, then this hypothesis can be expected:

Hypothesis 6: Metacognitive CQ of salespeople is positively related to customer-oriented selling behavior

2.7.7 Relationship between motivational CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior

This research proposes that motivational CQ can contribute to the ability of salesperson to effectively demonstrate customer-oriented selling behaviors in cross-cultural sales situations. Motivational CQ also plays a crucial role to facilitate salespeople to demonstrate customer-oriented selling behavior in cross-cultural context. To present customer-oriented selling behavior more effectively, the salespeople need to have willingness to assist the foreign customers (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). Salespeople need to have willingness to listen and to learn as much as possible about foreign customer's needs (Abed & Haghighi, 2009; Boorom et al., 1998; Saxe & Weitz, 1982). Motivational CQ refers to an individual's interest to put their effort in learning and adjusting in cross-cultural situations (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003). Therefore, the motivational CQ is important for salespeople in this case because it represents the degree of interest and drive of salespeople to interact with foreign customers so that they can learn about the customers' needs and problems (Boorom et al., 1998). Salespeople can put more effort in providing the best solutions to foreign customers when they are interested in listening to customer's problem. In

this regard, salespeople with high motivational CQ tends to be more motivated to deliver impressive services to satisfy the customers because of this characteristics, it might facilitate salespeople to express customer-oriented selling behavior to foreign customers (P Christopher Earley, 2002). Given all literature supports the roles of motivational CQ which might facilitate salespeople to develop customer-oriented selling behaviors, then this hypothesis can be expected:

Hypothesis 7: Motivational CQ of salespeople is positively related to customeroriented selling behavior

2.7.8 Relationship between behavioral CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior

This research proposes that behavioral CQ can contribute to the ability of salesperson to effectively demonstrate customer-oriented selling behaviors in crosscultural sales situations. Lastly, behavioral CQ is also an important skill that can facilitate salespeople to effectively demonstrate their customer-oriented selling behaviors to foreign customers. The reasons why behavioral CQ can help salespeople to develop customer-oriented selling behaviors can be explained by characteristics of people with behavioral CQ that are consistent with the characteristics of customeroriented behaviors. In general, adapting behaviors to satisfy the custom and traditions of foreign cultures is not an easy task for most individuals (Yordanova, 2011). In this regard, P. Christopher Earley and Masanowski (2004) suggested that the ability of individuals to adopt habits and mannerisms of people from other cultures may signify that they highly esteem people from that culture well enough to want to be like them. In particular, a high degree of cultural respect that individuals with high behavioral CQ normally exhibit could be a characteristic that is consistent with customeroriented selling behaviors which also involve a high degree of goodwill and empathetic caring that salespeople have toward foreign customers (Boorom et al., 1998). The ability to adapt the behaviors to foreigners allows individuals to gain a better knowledge and understanding about the nature of people from other cultures (P. Christopher. Earley & Ang 2003; C.D. Thomas et al., 2008). Given that customeroriented selling behaviors also required salespeople to have a good understanding about their customers (Saxe & Weitz, 1982), the learning experience that salespeople

gain from exercising behavioral CQ can facilitate salespeople to be more effective in expressing customer-oriented selling behaviors to the customers in the cross-cultural context. Given all literature supports the roles of behavioral CQ which might facilitate salespeople to develop customer-oriented selling behaviors, then this hypothesis can be expected:

. H8: Behavioral CQ of salespeople is positively related to customer-oriented selling behavior.



2.7.9 Relationship between adaptive selling behavior and cross-cultural sales performance

This research also proposes that adaptive selling behavior that salespeople exhibit can be associated with their cross-cultural sales performance. The different culture of foreign customer has different expectations from salespeople. In this regard, adaptive selling behavior tends to facilitate salespeople to achieve their crosscultural sales performance by trying to adapt their behaviors and response appropriately to the sales situations (Singh & Das, 2013). If salespeople are able to adapt their selling behavior accurately according to the foreign customer's expectations, it can be easy for them to create customer satisfaction and eventually achieve high sales performance. On the other hand, if salespeople fail to adapt their selling behaviors appropriately, they may get negative feedback from foreign customers and that can hurt their sales performance as a result. The contribution of adaptive selling to cross-cultural sales performance can be supported by prior studies which confirmed that the degree in which salespeople apply adaptive selling behavior to the selling situations positively affected their sales performance (Anh et al., 2016; S. Chakrabarty et al., 2013; Kara et al., 2013; Kaynak et al., 2016; Siminitiras et al., 2013; Tevan & Winters, 2007). Given all the supporting evidence regarding the contribution of adaptive selling behavior, the follow hypothesis is presented:

H9: Salespeople's adaptive selling behavior is positively related to cross-cultural sales performance.

2.7.10 Relationship between customer—oriented selling behavior and crosscultural sales performance

This research also proposes the positive association between customer-oriented selling behavior and cross-cultural sales performance. Given that the goal of customer-oriented selling behavior is to create and maintain good relationships with customers by trying to find the best solution to satisfy customers' needs (Franke & Park, 2006), this can make customers feel that salespeople are really concerned about their needs and problems. In this regard, customer-oriented selling behavior tends to facilitate salespeople to achieve superior cross-cultural sales performance because it involves the willingness of salespeople to offer the most appropriate products and

services according to the foreign customer's needs and expectations (Singh & Das, 2013). Basically, when customers are satisfied with salespeople's solutions they will become repeat customers, thereby facilitating salespeople to achieve high sales performance. The contribution of customer-oriented selling behavior to cross-cultural sales performance can be supported by prior studies which confirmed that customer-oriented selling behavior had positive effects on their sales performance (Arndt & Karande, 2012; Choi & Joung, 2017; Cross, Brashear, Rigdon, & Bellenger, 2007; Franke & Park, 2006; Mehrabi et al., 2012; Singh & Das, 2013; Varghese, Manoj, & KP, 2015; Yakasai & M., 2015). Given all supporting evidence regarding the contribution of customer oriented selling behavior, the follow hypothesis is presented:

H10: Salespeople's customer-oriented selling behavior is positively related to cross-cultural sales performance.



The conceptual model that summarize all hypotheses is presented in Figure 2.1.

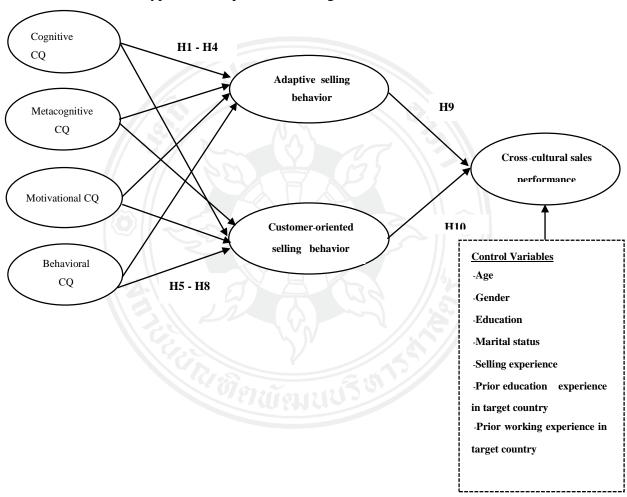


Figure 2.1 The Conceptual Model

The summary of all research hypotheses is presented in Table 2.1.



Table 2.3 Summary of research hypothesis

Hypothesis

H1: Cognitive CQ of salespeople is positively related to adaptive selling behavior.

H2: Metacognitive CQ of salespeople is positively related to adaptive selling behavior.

H3: Motivational CQ of salespeople is positively related to adaptive selling behavior.

H4: Behavioral CQ of salespeople is positively related to adaptive selling behavior.

H5: Cognitive CQ of salespeople is positively related to customer-oriented selling behavior.

H6: Metacognitive CQ of salespeople is positively related to customer-oriented selling behavior.

H7: Motivational CQ of salespeople is positively related to customer-oriented selling behavior.

H8: Behavioral CQ of salespeople is positively related to customer-oriented selling behavior.

H9: Salespeople's adaptive selling behavior is positively related to cross-cultural sales performance

H10: Salespeople's customer-oriented selling behavior is positively related to cross-cultural sales performance

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research context

The data from the present study were collected from Thai sales personnel who were assigned to selling activities at International trade show exhibitions in India, Japan and Vietnam. The researcher selected these 3 countries because they have opened more business opportunities for Thai businesses to introduce and distribute their products to their countries. India is the fastest growing economy in South Asia; Japan is the world's third largest economy; and Vietnam is the fastest growing economy in ASEAN. The buying behaviors of these three countries' consumers are different among them. Indian customers can speak English very well.

Indian consumers are family buyers, they will go shopping together with their whole family and the buying decision will be made after they ask the opinions from the family members. Apart from that Indian consumers prefer to negotiate the price with salespeople. They pay attention not only to the quality and price of the products, but to elements such as the atmosphere inside the stores and how they are treated by salespeople. Such elements are very crucial for Indian customers' buying decisions and satisfaction. Indian consumers prefer shopping during day time and prefer staying home at night. They like to visit the trade shows because they will have the opportunity to try international products and get better prices. A strong element of Indian culture is high power and distance between those Indians perceive to have less power so the challenging task for Thai salespeople is they need to show respect with powerful customers and senior customers because the Indians expect the salespeople to be weaker than them (Furrer, Liu, & Sudharshan, 2000; Hofstede, 1991).

On the other hand, Japanese consumers are concerned more about the quality of the product and the raw materials used in the production process. They are more environmentally concerned and health conscious. Japanese culture is regarded as a high uncertainty avoidance culture in which people have an aversion towards ambiguity and try to avoid taking risk (De Mooiji, 2011; Hofstede, 1991). Consumers in high uncertainty avoidance cultures put a lot of effort into finding the complete information about the product quality, usefulness, performance and benefits that they will receive before making the buying decision (Ahmed & Krohn, 1993; Pascale, 1978; Sood & Nasu, 1995). Therefore, they are willing to pay high prices for high quality products with well-known brands in order to avoid the risk from using low quality product (De Mooiji, 2011; Hofstede, 1991). Another challenging task for Thai salespeople is the use of verbal and nonverbal communication. Japan is also regarded as a high context culture in which emphasis is placed on nonverbal communication; in this culture, people expect others to understand them when they do not verbally express their ideas and feelings (Furrer et al., 2000; Hofstede, 1991). Prior research found that Japanese people use a more indirect and non-confrontational style of communication because confrontational behavior is considered to be disruptive to harmony, and this has led to many problems during interactions with people from low context cultures (Ahmed & Krohn, 1993; Iwata, 1999; Sood & Nasu, 1995).

For Vietnamese consumers, if they are interested in products, they will make a purchase quickly without much negotiation. The price is no longer the main influencer when making their purchasing decisions. Regarding product selection, the two main influencers are taste for edibles and brand names for non-edibles. Although the Vietnamese tend to be easier to deal with as compared to the Indian and the Japanese buyers, there are some cultural issues that Thai salesperson need to be aware of when interacting with these purchasers in order to maximize their sales performance in this country. Vietnamese culture is regarded as a high collectivist culture in which people prefer strong relationships and commitment to the relationships (De Mooiji, 2011; Hofstede, 1991). Consumers in collectivist cultures have been shown to have high brand loyalty and it is relatively more difficult for them to give up their loyalty (Yoo, 2009). Vietnamese consumers tend to be more loyal and commit to the brand that can provide them the most value (Frost, Goode, & Hart, 2010; Parker, Haytko, & Hermans, 2009; Thompson, Newman, & Liu, 2014). The challenging task for Thai salespeople is they need to build a good relationship and trust with Vietnamese consumers first then try to communicate more on the benefits and provide varieties of product lines and sales promotions for them (De Mooiji, 2011). Another challenging task for Thai salespeople is the Vietnamese language competency because in Vietnam, communicative competence is considered to be the standard for evaluating people. Vietnamese love to communicate, but only when they find themselves in a familiar range of community. For this reason, it is crucial for Thai salespeople to first build trust in their mind in order to allow Vietnamese consumers to open more selling opportunity for Thai salespeople.

3.2 Selection of sample and procedure

The *sampling frame* was individual sales personnel from 54 business organizations in Thailand who attended international trade shows in India, individual sales personnel from 60 business organizations in Thailand who attended international trade shows in Japan and individual sales personnel from 51 business organizations in Thailand who attended international trade shows in Vietnam. All sales representatives were invited to participate in the survey.

3.2.1 Sample Size

According to the data from Department of International Trade Promotion (Thailand) the estimated number of Thai salespeople who attend international trade shows in three countries does not exceed 2 persons/organization. Therefore, in this study the researcher distributed questionnaires to all Thai salespeople from 54 organizations who attended international trade shows in India, all Thai salespeople from 60 organizations who attended international trade shows in Japan and all Thai salespeople from 51 organizations who attended international trade shows in Vietnam.

3.3 Research Instrument

In this research, a self-administered questionnaire survey was used and the survey was distributed in person by face-to-face contact. The researcher used a questionnaire survey for data collection because if compared to other methods of data collection, the questionnaire survey allowed the researcher to collect the data from large number of respondents in a short period of time. In addition, questionnaires can

be distributed all at once to respondents and they could answer the questionnaire whenever it was convenient (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Kara et al., 2013). The questionnaire was developed on the basis of measurement scales that have been used in prior research. By using existing scales the measurement scales would be consistent with previous research and the scales were already validated by other scholars so it tends to be more trustworthy than spending time to develop new measurement scales (Bulmer, Gibbs, & Hyman, 2006). All the main variables in this research were measured by using the existing scales which were developed originally in English. In order to ensure the validity of the questionnaire, all questions were translated into Thai by a Thai native bilingual person who was an expert in English and then backtranslated into English by a native English bilingual person who was also fluent in Thai (R. W. Brislin, 1970). The advantage of back translation in cross-cultural research is to ensure the accuracy of the meaning of questions to the target language.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher used face-to-face contact with Thai salespeople who attended international trade shows in India and Vietnam to fill out the questionnaires and each individual salespeople was informed about the objectives of the study along with guarantee of confidentiality and anonymity. Then the questionnaires along with cover letters were handed over to the Thai salespeople with their consent.

3.5 Measurement

3.5.1 Cultural intelligence

CQ was measured by using the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) developed by (Ang et al., 2007). Prior research showed that the scale has a satisfactory level of reliability and validity across samples in different countries (Agrawal, Choudhary, & Tripati, 2010; Kanten, 2014; Kaufman & Hwang, 2015; Sahin et al., 2014). The scale consisted of 20 items with 4 subscales measuring Cognitive CQ (6 items), Metacognitive CQ (4 items), Motivational CQ (5 items) and Behavioral CQ (5 items). These items were measured by using a five-point Likert-Scale, ranking from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

3.5.2 Adaptive selling behaviors

Adaptive selling behaviors were measured by using the 5 items of the ADAPTS scale which was developed by (R. L. Spiro & B. A. Weitz, 1990). The degree of scale reliability and validity has been confirmed in prior research in different sample groups (Franke & Park, 2006; Pelham & Kravitz, 2008; Singh & Das, 2013). These items were measured by using a five-point Likert-Scale, ranking from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

3.5.3 Customer – oriented selling behaviors

Customer-oriented selling behaviors was measured by using the 5 items of the 10-item subset of the Selling-Orientation-Customer-Orientation Scale which was developed by Saxe and Weitz (1982). The degree of scale reliability and validity has been confirmed in prior research in different sample groups (Subhra Chakrabarty et al., 2014; Periatt, LeMay, & Chakrabarty, 2004). These items were measured by using a five-point Likert-Scale, ranking from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

3.5.4 Cross-cultural sales performance

The researcher used the subjective measurement scale to measure sales performance. The reasons that objective measures couldn't be obtained is because quantitative data of the organizations are confidential information that salespeople will not allow to be provided to external people and the companies want to protect their financial information from their competitors. Many organizations use subjective performance criteria because they represent the salesperson's major job activities (Munshi & Hanji, 2015). Subjective performance criteria are characteristics, behavior or results of salesperson which cannot be expressed in numbers and the quality of these criteria may depend on subjective evaluation (Kara et al., 2013). Prior research mentioned that self-reported job performance measurement instruments not only present good validity, good reliability and low collinearity; but it can be the better way to measure job performance than supervisor scores (R. Aryanto, A. Fontana, & A. Z. Afiff, 2015). Subjective measurement of sales performance allows the organization to understand how much effort and contribution that salespeople put in

their selling tasks in order to achieve their sales performance goals (Subhra Chakrabarty et al., 2014). Prior research also found that using subjective assessments can be the consistent predictor for evaluating the level of salespeople's contribution to their selling task and customers, which in turn positively affect their sales performance (Munshi & Hanji, 2015; Suan & Narsurdin, 2014). In this study, the researcher used the standard scale that is normally used by business organizations in Thailand. The dimensions of performance in this scale are (1) the ability to find prospective international customers in the target country, (2) the ability to find distributors in the target country, (3) the ability to reach the sales quotas, (4) the ability to respond to the competitors' brands in the target country and (5) the ability to analyze strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in the target country. The assessment referred to the sales performance in the country where salespeople were assigned to the trade shows. Salespersons were asked to self-evaluate their performance in these five aspects. These items were measured by using a five-point Likert-Scale, ranking from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

3.6 Control Variable

The set of control variables that could be related to the level of cross-cultural sales performance of Thai salespeople was included in the analysis. These variables were explained below:

3.6.1 Age

Salespeople's age may relate with their level of cross-cultural sales performance because the age of the salespeople represents the experiences they have gained in their career (L. Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010). The information from research found that medium age salespeople (30-39) tend to have higher ability to identify ways to satisfy customer needs better than salespeople who are younger and older which can make the 30 – 39 year old group higher in both adaptive selling behaviors and customeroriented selling behaviors (Kotur & Anbazhagan, 2014). Medium age salespeople tend to be more flexible and able to handle different selling situations (Jyoti & Kour, 2015). Research also showed that young salespeople are more likely to be stressed when they need to handle cross-cultural selling situations and tend to have low

willingness to adapt to the different selling situations (L. Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010). Older salespeople tend to rely more on their old selling experiences and are less flexible to new selling situations (Fu, Richards, Hughes, & Jones, 2010). This variable was measured by using the actual age of salespeople.

3.6.2 Gender

Salespeople genders may relate with their level of cross-cultural sales performance because women tend to be less aggressive and more agreeable, empathetic, and relationship-oriented than men (Feingold, 1994). Empathy and willingness to adapt the behaviors in women may increase their adaptive selling behaviors and customer-oriented selling behaviors, which in turn lead to effective sales performance (O'Hara, Boles, & Johnson, 1991; R. L. Spiro & B. A. Weitz, 1990). Prior research confirmed that female salespeople are more concerned with customer satisfaction and opposed to hard sell techniques which make them higher in customer-oriented selling behavior and sales performance (Franke & Park, 2006; Kara et al., 2013). This variable was measured by using a dummy variable which female was coded as 0 and male was coded as 1.

3.6.3 Marital Status

The marital status of salespeople may relate to their level of cross-cultural sales performance (L. Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010). Salespeople who are married might work harder and have higher cross-cultural sales performance than those who are single because they need to support their family. Married salespeople tend to know better how to build good relationships with customers and how to make their customers satisfied with their sales presentations because they have experiences in making their spouse and family members happy which can make them higher in adaptive-selling behaviors and customer-oriented selling behaviors (L. Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010). Prior research found that support from the spouse and family has an effect on the level of cross-cultural performance (L. Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Tung, 1998). This variable was measured by using a dummy variable in which married was coded as 0 and single was coded as 1.

3.6.4 Education

The level of salespeople education may relate with their level of cross-cultural sales performance because salespeople with higher education tend to be more creative and can do certain tasks easily and efficiently compared to salespeople who are less educated (L. Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010). Moreover, Salespeople with college degrees are tend to value helping customers and forming good relationships with their customers more than those with only a high school education which can make the more educated higher in customer-oriented selling behaviors and adaptive selling behaviors (L. Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010). Prior research found that salespeople in the medium range of educational qualifications (college degrees) perform better compared those who are less educated (Kotur & Anbazhagan, 2014). This variable was measured by using an ordinal scale (1= diploma degree; 2 = bachelor's degree; 3 = master's degree; 4 = doctoral degree).

3.6.5 Selling Experience

The level of salespeople's experience may relate with their level of cross-cultural sales performance because selling skills of salespeople increases with experience (Rosann L. Spiro & Barton A. Weitz, 1990; Weitz et al., 1986). For this reason, experienced salespeople may also have a greater ability to identify ways to help satisfy customer needs, a longer-term orientation, and more repeat customers. They are flexible and they can effectively handle cross-cultural situations (Jyoti & Kour, 2015). Prior research confirmed that higher levels of experience lead to higher levels of adaptiveness and customer-orientation, resulting in a positive effect on sales performance (Franke & Park, 2006; Jaramillo & Grisaffe, 2009; Kara et al., 2013). Therefore, this factor should facilitate sales performance (O'Hara et al., 1991; Pettijohn et al., 2002; Saxe & Weitz, 1982). This variable was measured by using actual numbers of years in selling careers.

3.6.6 Prior education experience in target country

The level of salespeople who studied in the target country might relate to their level of cross-cultural sales performance because salespeople who studied in the target country are more likely to be familiar with that country's culture and people (J.

K Harrison & Brower, 2011). Prior education experience in target countries may facilitate salespeople to react and behave more correctly than salespeople who never had prior educational experience in the target country (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). For this reason, salespeople with prior educational experience in the target country might also have greater ability to respond to the customer needs and can easily adapt their selling behavior. Prior research found that previous educational experience in the assigned country affected performance (J. K. Harrison & Brower 2011). This variable was measured by using an ordinal scale (0= never; 1 = 1 year or less; 2 = about 2 years; 3 = about 3 years; 4 = about 4 years; 5= more than 4 years)

3.6.7 Prior working experience in target country

The salespeople's prior working experience in the target country may relate with their level of cross-cultural sales performance (L. Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010). Prior working experience in the target country may reduce the stress concerning cross-cultural selling tasks in the target country and will facilitate the salespeople to handle different consumers' preferences in target countries (J. K. Harrison & Brower 2011). For this reason, salespeople with prior working experience in the target country may also have greater ability to adapt their selling techniques and understand customers' needs better than salespeople who have no prior working experience in the target country (Pettijohn et al., 2002). Prior research found that prior working experience in the assigned country had effects on performance (J. K. Harrison & Brower, 2011). This variable was measured by using an ordinal scale (0 = never; 1 = 1 year or less; 2 = about 2 years; 3 = about 3 years; 4 = about 4 years; 5 = more than 4 years).

All the items that will be used to measure the main concepts in hypothesis are listed in table 3.1 - 3.4

Table 3.1 Cultural intelligence (CQ) (Ang et al., 2007)

Cultural intelligence (CQ)

Cognitive CQ

- 1. I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.
- 2. I know the rules)e.g .vocabulary, grammar (of other languages.
- 3. I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.

Cultural intelligence (CQ)

- 4. I know the marriage systems of other cultures.
- 5. I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.
- 6. I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviours in other cultures.

Meta-cognitive CQ

- 1. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.
- 2. I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
- 3. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interaction.
- 4. I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.

Motivational CO

- 1. I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.
- 2. I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is new to me.
- 3. I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.
- 4. I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.
- 5. I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.

Behavioural CQ

- 1. I change my verbal behaviour)e.g .accent, tone (when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.
- 2. I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.
- 3. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
- 4. I change my nonverbal behaviour when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
- 5. I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

Table 3.2 Adaptive Selling Behaviors (R. L. Spiro & B. A. Weitz, 1990)

Adaptive Selling Behaviors

Adaptive Selling Behaviors

- 1. When I feel that my sales approach is not working, I can easily change to another approach.
- 2. I like to experiment with different sales approaches.
- 3. I am very flexible in the selling approach I use.
- 4. I can easily use a wide range of selling approaches.
- 5. I try to understand how one customer differs from another.

Table 3.3 Customer-Oriented Selling Behaviors (Saxe & Weitz, 1982)

Customer-Oriented Selling Behaviors

- 1. I try to figure out what a customer's needs are.
- 2. I have the customer's best interests in mind.
- 3. I take a problem-solving approach in selling products or services to customers.
- 4. I recommend products or services that are best-suited to solving problems
- 5. I try to find out which kinds of products or services would be most helpful to my customers.

Table 3.4 Cross-Cultural Sales Performance

Cross-Cultural Sales Performance

- 1. I can find more prospective customers in the country I visited.
- 2. I can expand the sales territory in the country I visited) .no .of distributors(
- 3. I can achieve the target sales according to the assigned target sales of organization.
- 4. I can effectively respond to the competitor brands in the visited country.
- 5. I can analyse the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the products I am responsible to sell in visited country.

3.7 Data Processing Tools and Analysis

The present study used Partial Least Square (PLS) regression for analyzing the proposed model. PLS provides various statistical methods such as simple and multiple regression analysis, path analysis and structural equation modelling (Hammer,

Gudykunst, & Wiseman, 1979). PLS has been used and continues being extensively used in a wide variety of fields such as international business (Ketkar, Kock, Parente, & Verville, 2012), human resources (R. Aryanto, A. Fontana, & A.Z. Afiff, 2015; Suan & Narsurdin, 2014) and information systems (Liu, Guo, & Lee, 2011). This research used PLS analysis because it provides an advantage when analyzing multiple hypothesis at the same time which is a single or multiple items measurement. This method also can measure both formative and reflective scales. PLS does not require data to be normally distributed and required smaller sample sizes than other SEM techniques. The researcher used WarpPLS version 6.0 to perform PLS estimation. WarpPLS is a new structural equation modeling software that identifies the nonlinear associations among the latent variables.



CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Data

In this chapter the researcher reports the characteristics of the data, including the demographic characteristics of the samples. Then, information is presented concerning how the data was prepared and analyzed. Lastly, the results from the hypothesis testing are showed.

The data were collected from (1) Thai salespeople who were assigned to attend International trade shows in India during June to August 2017, (2) Thai salespeople who were assigned to attend International trade shows in Japan during July to August 2017 and (3) Thai salespeople who were assigned to attend International trade shows in Vietnam during June to August 2017. For trade shows in India 160 questionnaires were distributed to Thai salespeople; at the end of the data collection period, a total of 155 completely filled surveys were available for data analysis which counted for 96.87 percent response rate. For trade shows in Japan 120 questionnaires were distributed to Thai salespeople who attended trade shows in Japan; at the end of the data collection period, a total of 110 completely filled surveys were available for data analysis which counted for 91.66 percent response rate. Lastly, for trade shows in Vietnam 120 questionnaires were distributed to Thai salespeople who attended trade shows in that country; at the end of the data collection period, a total of 100 completely filled surveys were available for data analysis which counted for 83.33 percent response rate. Therefore, at the end of the data collection period in India, Japan and Vietnam, a total of 365 completely filled surveys were available from 400 distributed questionnaires in the three countries which counted for 91.25 percent. All questions in the questionnaire were filled in by the respondents. The questionnaire's response rates of Thai salespeople respondents in three countries are reported in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Questionnaire's response rates of Thai salespeople respondents in India, Japan and Vietnam

Country	Distributed	Returned	Response Rate (%)
India	160 sets	155 sets	96.87 %
Japan	120	110	91.66 %
Vietnam	120	100	83.33 %
Total	400	365	91.25 %

Demographic characteristics and information related to the job characteristics of the samples are reported in Table 4.2 to 4.4.

4.2 Demographic characteristics

The age of Thai respondents in India is between 22 to 60 years with a mean value of 39.60 (standard deviation = 8.637). For respondents in Japan the age is between 22 to 59 years with a mean value of 37.11 (standard deviation = 8.77). The age of the respondents in Vietnam is between 22 to 57 years with the mean value of 34.98 (standard deviation = 8.09). Overall the age of the sample in India, Japan and Vietnam (N = 365) is between 22 to 60 years with a mean value of 37.58 (standard deviation = 8.722).

The selling experience in assigned country of Thai respondents in India is between 0 to 20 times with a mean value of 3.08 (standard deviation = 3.13). For respondents in Japan the selling experience in assigned country is between 0 to 21 times with a mean value of 2.84 (standard deviation = 3.33). The selling experience in assigned country of the respondents in Vietnam is between 0 to 23 times with the mean value of 3.56 (standard deviation = 4.24). Overall the selling experience in assigned country of the sample in India, Japan and Vietnam (N = 365) is between 0 to 23 times with a mean value of 3.14 (standard deviation = 3.53). Thai salespeople's age and selling experience in assigned country are reported in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Thai salespeople's age and selling experience in assigned country

Variable	India	India				Japan			Vietnam			Total (3 countries)				
	Min	Max	Mean	St.D.	Min	Max	Mean	St.D.	Min	Max	Mean	St.D.	Min	Max	Mean	St.D.
Age (years)	22	60	39.60	8.637	22	59	37.11	8.771	22	57	34.98	8.09	22	60	37.58	8.722
Selling	0	20	3.08	3.13	0	21	2.84	3.33	0	23	3.56	4.24	0	23	3.14	3.53
Experience in	1															
Assigned																
Country																
(times)																

Out of the total 155 Thai respondents in India, the majority of respondents are female. There are 93 female Thai respondents (60 percent) followed by 62 male Thai respondents (40 percent). Among 110 Thai respondents in Japan, 63 are male (57.3 percent) followed by 47 female (42.7 percent). Among 100 Thai respondents in Vietnam, 55 are male (55 percent) and 45 are female (45 percent). Overall the gender of the Thai respondents in India, Japan and Vietnam (N = 365) included 180 males (49.3 percent) and 185 females (50.7 percent).

With regards to the highest education level of Thai respondents in India, 18 had diploma degrees (11.6 percent), 106 had bachelor's degrees (68.4 percent) and 31 had master's degrees (20 percent). Among 110 Thai respondents in Japan 1 had a diploma degree (0.09 percent), 73 had bachelor's degrees (66.4 percent) and 36 had master's degrees (32.7 percent). Among 100 Thai respondents in Vietnam 5 had diploma degrees (5 percent), 62 had bachelor's degrees (62 percent) and 33 had master's degrees (33 percent). In these three countries (N = 365) the majority of Thai respondents had bachelor's degrees. 24 of them had diploma degrees (6.6 percent), 241 had bachelor's degrees (66 percent) and 100 had master's degrees (27.4 percent).

With regards to the marital status of Thai respondents in India out of 155 Thai respondents 89 are single (57.4 percent) and 66 are married (42.6 percent). Among 110 Thai respondents in Japan there are 51 who are married (32.9 percent) and 59 are single (38.1 percent). Among 100 Thai respondents in Vietnam 30 are married (30 percent) and 70 are single (70 percent). The majority of Thai respondents in three countries (N = 365) are single. 147 are married (40.3 percent) and 218 are single (59.7 percent). The demographic characteristics of Thai respondents are presented in the Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Demographic characteristics of Thai salespeople respondents

	India		Japan		Vietnam		Total		
Variables	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Gender									
Male	62	40	63	57.3	55	55	180	49.3	
Female	93	60	47	42.7	45	45	185	50.7	
Highest Education									
<u>Level</u>	18	11.6	1	0.09	5	5	24	6.6	
Diploma Degree	106	68.4	73	66.4	62	62	241	66	
Bachelor's Degree	31	20	36	32.7	33	33	100	27.4	
Master's Degree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Doctoral Degree									
Marital Status									
Married	66	42.6	51	32.9	30	30	147	40.3	
Single	89	57.4	59	38.1	70	70	218	59.7	

Some of the Thai respondents had prior education experience before attending the trade shows in India. Out of the total 155 Thai respondents in India; 125 Thai respondents or 80.6 percent never had education experience in India, 8 Thai respondents or 5.2 percent had 1 year or less education experience, 13 Thai respondents or 8.4 percent had about 2 years prior education experience, 1 Thai respondent or 0.06 percent had about 3 years education experience , 3 Thai respondents or 1.9 percent had about 4 years education experience and 5 Thai respondents or 3.2 percent had about more than 4 years education experience.

From 110 Thai respondents in Japan; 87 Thai respondents or 79.1 percent never had prior education experience in Japan, 3 Thai respondents or 2.7 percent had 1 year or less education experience, 9 Thai respondents or 8.2 percent had about 2 years education experience, 3 Thai respondents or 2.7 percent had about 3 years education experience, 4 Thai respondents or 3.6 percent had about 4 years education experience and 4 Thai respondents or 3.6 percent had more than 4 years education experience.

Among 100 Thai respondents in Vietnam; 81 Thai respondents or 81 percent never had prior education experience in Vietnam, 5 Thai respondents or 5 percent had 1 year or less education experience, 2 Thai respondents or 2 percent had about 2 years education experience, 3 Thai respondents or 3 percent had about 3 years education experience, 2 Thai respondents or 2 percent had about 4 years education experience and 7 Thai salespeople or 7 percent had more than 4 years education experience.

Out of a total of 365 Thai respondents in India, Japan and Vietnam, there are 293 Thai respondents or 80.3 percent who never had education experience in assigned countries, 16 of them or 4.4 percent had 1 year or less education experience, 24 of them or 6.6 percent had about 2 years education experience, 7 of them or 1.9 percent had about 3 years education experience, 9 of them or 2.5 percent had about 4 years education experience and 16 of them or 4.4 percent had more than 4 years education experience.

Some of the Thai respondents had working experience before attending the trade shows in India. Out of the total 155 Thai respondents in India; 82 Thai respondents or 52.9 percent never had working experience in India, 18 Thai

respondents or 11.6 percent had 1 year or less working experience, 11 Thai respondents or 7.1 percent had about 2 years working experience, 4 Thai respondents or 2.6 percent had about 3 years working experience, 7 Thai respondents or 4.5 percent had about 4 years working experience and 33 Thai respondents or 21.3 percent had about more than 4 years prior working experience.

Among 110 Thai respondents in Japan; 32 Thai respondents or 29.1 percent never had working experience in Japan, 8 Thai respondents or 7.3 percent had 1 year or less working experience, 17 Thai respondents or 15.5 percent had about 2 years working experience, 7 Thai respondents or 6.4 percent had about 3 years working experience, 10 Thai respondents or 9.1 percent had about 4 years working experience and 36 Thai respondents or 33.7 percent had more than 4 years working experience.

Among 100 Thai respondents in Vietnam; 39 Thai respondents or 39 percent never had working experience in Vietnam, 11 Thai respondents or 11 percent had 1 year or less working experience, 7 Thai respondents or 7 percent had about 2 years working experience, 9 Thai respondents or 9 percent had about 3 years prior working experience, 4 Thai respondents or 4 percent had about 4 years working experience and 30 Thai respondents or 30 percent had more than 4 years education experience.

From total 365 Thai respondents in India, Japan and Vietnam, there are 153 Thai respondents or 41.9 percent never had working experience, in assigned countries, 37 of them or 10.1 percent had 1 year or less working experience, 35 of them or 9.6 percent had about 2 years working experience, 20 of them or 5.5 percent had about 3 years experience, 21 of them or 5.8 percent had about 4 years working experience and 99 of them or 27 percent had more than 4 years experience. Thai salespeople's prior international experience are presented in the Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Thai salespeople's prior international experience

Variables	India		Japan		Vietnam		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Prior Education Experience in	<u> </u>							
India/Japan/Vietnam								
Never	125	80.6	87	79.1	81	81	293	80.3
1year or less	8	5.2	3	2.7	5	5	16	4.4
About 2 years	13	8.4	9	8.2	2	2	24	6.6
About 3 years	1	0.06	3	2.7	3	3	7	1.9
About 4 years	3	1.9	4	3.6	2	2	9	2.5
More than 4 years	5	3.2	4	3.6	7	7	16	4.4
Prior Working Experience in	<u>l</u>							
India/Japan/Vietnam								
Never	82	52.9	32	29.1	39	39	153	41.9
1 year or less	18	11.6	8	7.3	11	11	37	10.1
About 2 years	11	7.1	17	15.5	7	7	35	9.6
About 3 years	4	2.6	7	6.4	9	9	20	5.5

Variables	India		Japan		Vietnam		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
About 4 years	7	4.5	10	9.1	4	4	21	5.8
More than 4 years	33	21.3	36	32.7	30	30	99	27



4.3 Normal distribution

In this study the normal distribution test of the data was conducted which is one of the basic assumptions of statistical analysis. The normality test for variables shows whether the data are normally distributed or not. In order to examine the normality of the data, there are two tests that needed to be performed. First, is Jarque-Bera of normality (Normal-JB) and second, is Robust Jarque -Bera test of (Normal-RJB). The results are presented in Table 4.5.



Table 4.5 Normal distribution

	CCQ	MTCQ	MOCQ	BECQ	ADSB	CSB	SP	AGE	GEN	EDU	STAT	PRED	PRW	SEEX
Normal-	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
JB														
Normal-	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
RJB														

Note: CCQ = Cognitive CQ, MTCQ = Metacognitive CQ, MOCQ = Motivational CQ, BECQ = Behavioral CQ, ADSB = Adaptive Selling Behavior, CSB = Customer-Oriented Selling Behavior, SP = Cross-Cultural Sales Performance, AGE = Age, GEN = Gender, EDU = Education, STAT = Status, PRED = Prior Education Experience, PRW = Prior Work Experience, SEEX = Selling Experience

In the above table "Yes" means the data are normally distributed but "No" means the data do not follow the normal distribution. The results indicated that behavioral CQ, customer-oriented selling behavior, cross-cultural sales performance, age, gender, status, prior education experiences, prior work experiences and selling experiences are not normalized. These kinds of data are appropriate to use PLS-SEM because prior researchers mentioned that PLS-SEM gives a robustness of result even when the data are highly non-normal. Therefore, the overall result in normal distribution table confirms that PLS-SEM is an appropriate research method for this study (Cassel, Hackl, & Westlund, 1999; J F. Hair, M. Sarstedt, C.M. Ringle, & J.A. Mena, 2012).

4.4 Perception about cultural differences

In order to confirm the degree of cultural differences of Indian consumers, Japanese consumers and Vietnamese consumers as compared to Thai consumers, the Thai respondents from these three countries were asked to evaluate the extent to which they felt that local consumers in the trade show country were similar or different from the Thai. The evaluation was made up of four aspects including personalities, lifestyle, communication style, and overall culture characteristics. The items were rated on 5 point-Likert scale ranging from 1 (*very similar to Thai*) to 5 (*very different from Thai*). The results from one-way of variance (ANOVA) are reported in table 13-15.

The result from Levene's Test for Equality of Variances indicated that the variance of the data among these 3 countries in terms of personalities (Levene statistic = 7.43; p = 0.001), lifestyle (Levene statistic = 6.91; p = 0.001) and overall culture (Levene statistic = 19.484; p = .000) are unequal, because the p-value of the Levene statistics are less than 0.05; they reject the null hypothesis suggesting that variances among these three countries in terms of personalities, lifestyle and overall culture are equal. Moreover, the result from Levene's Test for Equality of Variances indicated that the variance of the data among these 3 countries in term of communication style are equal, because the p-value of the Levene statistic is more than 0.05 (Levene statistic = 2.20; p = 0.11); it fails to reject the null hypothesis suggesting that

variances among these three countries in term of communication style are equal. The result from the Levene's Test for Equality of Variances of four dimensions of cultural difference are reported in Table 4.6.



Table 4.6 The Levene's Test for Equality of Variances of four dimensions of cultural difference in three countries

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Personalities	7.430	2	362	.001
Lifestyle	6.917	2	362	.001
Communication Style	2.203	2	362	.112
Overall Culture	19.484	2	362	.000

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of countries on their consumers' personalities, lifestyle, communication style and overall culture characteristics The result from a one-way subjects ANOVA indicated that there was a significant effect of the countries on personalities at the p < .05 level for the three conditions [F (2, 362) = 64.057, p = 0.000]. There was a significant effect of the countries on lifestyle at the p < .05 level for the three conditions [F (2, 362) = 51.351, p = 0.000]. There was a significant effect of the countries on communication style at the p < .05 level for the three conditions [F (2, 362) = 28.778, p = 0.000] and there was a significant effect of the countries on overall culture at the p < .05 level for the three conditions [F (2, 362) = 26.927, p = 0.000]. The result from a one-way subjects ANOVA are reported in Table 4.7.



Table 4.7 A one-way between subjects ANOVA compares the effect of countries on four aspects of cultural differences

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Between Groups	98.153	2	49.076	64.057	.000
Personalities	Within Groups	277.343	362	.766		
	Total	375.496	364			
	Between Groups	85.924	2	42.962	51.315	.000
Lifestyle	Within Groups	303.073	362	.837		
	Total	388.997	364			
	Between Groups	52.391	2	26.195	28.778	.000
Communication Style	Within Groups	329.511	362	.910		
	Total	381.901	364			
	Between Groups	55.350	2	27.675	26.927	.000
Overall Culture	Within Groups	372.048	362	1.028		
	Total	427.397	364			

Post hoc comparisons using the results under Dunnett'C method indicated that the mean difference for personalities was significantly higher between Thai and India than Thai and Japan ($M=0.689;\,p<.05$) and Thai and Vietnam ($M=1.251;\,p<.05$). The mean difference for personalities was significantly lower between Thai and Japan than Thai and India ($M=-0.689;\,p<.05$) but higher than Thai and Vietnam ($M=0.562;\,p<.05$). The mean difference for personalities was significantly lower between Thai and Vietnam than Thai and India ($M=-1.251;\,p<.05$) and Thai and Japan ($M=-0.562;\,p<.05$).

Mean difference in lifestyle was significantly higher between Thai and India than Thai and Japan ($M=0.328;\,p<.05$) and Thai and Vietnam ($M=1.179;\,p<.05$). The mean difference for lifestyle was significantly lower between Thai and Japan than Thai and India ($M=-0.328;\,p<.05$) but higher than Thai and Vietnam ($M=0.851;\,p<<.05$). The mean difference for lifestyle was significantly lower between Thai and Vietnam and Thai and India ($M=-1.179;\,p<.05$) and Thai and Japan ($M=-0.851;\,p<<.05$).

Mean difference in communication style was significantly higher between Thai and India than Thai and Japan ($M=0.367;\,p<.05$) and Thai and Vietnam ($M=0.928;\,p<.05$). The mean difference for communication style was significantly lower between Thai and Japan than Thai and India ($M=-0.367;\,p<.05$) but higher than Thai and Vietnam ($M=0.562;\,p<.05$). The mean difference for communication style was significantly lower between Thai and Vietnam and Thai and India ($M=-0.928;\,p<.05$) and Thai and Japan ($M=-0.562;\,p<.05$).

Mean difference in overall culture was significantly higher between Thai and India than Thai and Japan (M=0.365; p<.05) and Thai and Vietnam (M=0.954; p<.05). The mean difference for overall culture was significantly lower between Thai and Japan than Thai and India (M=-0.365; p<.05) but higher than Thai and Vietnam (M=0.589; p<.05). The mean difference for overall culture was significantly lower between Thai and Vietnam and Thai and India (M=-0.954; p<.05) and Thai and Japan (M=-0.589; p<.05).

The results from Post hoc comparisons suggest that among these 3 countries' consumers Vietnamese consumers are most similar to Thai consumers in term of their personalities, lifestyle, communication style and overall culture than Indian and Japanese consumers. The result also suggest that Indian consumers and Japanese consumers are more different to Thai consumers in terms of personalities, lifestyle, communications style and overall culture. The result from Post hoc comparisons are reported in Table 4.8.



Table 4.8 Post hoc comparisons using the Dunnett'C test

						95% Confidenc	e Interval
Dependent Variable		(I) Country	(J) Country	Mean Difference J)	Std. Error (I-	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Personalities	Dunnett C	India	Japan	.689*	.110	.43	.95
			Vietnam	1.251*	.111	.99	1.52
		Japan	India	689 [*]	.110	95	43
			Vietnam	.562*	.117	.28	.84
		Vietnam	India	-1.251*	.111	-1.52	99
			Japan	562*	.117	84	28
Lifestyle	Dunnett C	India	Japan	.328*	.115	.06	.60
			Vietnam	1.179^{*}	.115	.91	1.45
		Japan	India	328*	.115	60	06
			Vietnam	.851*	.117	.57	1.13
		Vietnam	India	-1.179*	.115	-1.45	91
			Japan	851*	.117	-1.13	57

						95% Confidenc	e Interval
Dependent Variable		(I) Country	(J) Country	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
				Difference	(I-		
				J)			
Communication Style	Dunnett C	India	Japan	.367*	.121	.08	.65
			Vietnam	.928*	.120	.64	1.21
		Japan	India	367*	.121	65	08
			Vietnam	.562*	.129	.26	.87
		Vietnam	India	928*	.120	-1.21	64
			Japan	562*	.129	87	26
Overall Culture	Dunnett C	India	Japan	.365*	.125	.07	.66
			Vietnam	.954*	.130	.64	1.26
		Japan	India	365*	.125	66	07
			Vietnam	.589*	.123	.30	.88
		Vietnam	India	954*	.130	-1.26	64
			Japan	589 [*]	.123	88	30

^{*.} The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

4.5 Model assessment

Before examining the model, the researcher had to check and confirm the level of validity and reliability of the data and whether it is at an acceptable level. The researcher conducted two analyses of validity tests including convergent validity and discriminant validity and two measures of reliability which are Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) and composite reliability. These assessments will not only guarantee that the questionnaires used in this study are valid and reliable but also confirm that the results from this study are non-biased (J. F. Hair, M. Sarstedt, C. M. Ringle, & J. A. Mena, 2012)

4.5.1 Validity test

In order to check how well the constructs are measured, it is significant to perform validity testing. (J. F. Hair et al., 2012). According to Chin (1998), it is necessary to perform validity testing to ensure that the constructs are measured in what they should measure and do not measure what they should not measure. In this study the convergent validity and discriminant validity are two types of validity that the researcher conducted.

4.5.1.1 Convergent validity test

Convergent validity is the analysis that evaluates how well the indicators measured their constructs (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). This analysis used factor loadings to check convergent validity. The value of each item in the constructs should be over 0.7 (Chin, 1998). However, Hair (2009) mentioned that 0.5 is the minimum value that is appropriate for validity analysis. The researcher performed the test of factor loadings and cross loadings of overall model. The result shows that majority of the items have a value over a minimum requirement of 0.5 except two items (BECQ2 and CSB1) that have a value below 0.5. Therefore, these two items were deleted from the analysis. The rests have a satisfactory level of convergent validity. The result of factor loading and cross-loadings of all latent variables are presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 The combined factor loading and cross loadings of all latent variables

	CCQ	MTCQ	MOCQ	BECQ	ADSB	CSB	SP
CCQ1	(0.739)	-0.049	-0.047	-0.114	-0.033	0.059	0.143
CCQ2	(0.713)	-0.0.58	0.059	-0.033	-0.107	0.046	-0.058
CCQ3	(0.861)	-0.049	-0.006	0.010	0.021	0.069	0.021
CCQ4	(0.779)	0.007	-0.018	-0.060	0.083	0.001	-0.042
CCQ5	(0.706)	-0.014	-0.047	0.0101	0.097	-0.139	-0.013
CCQ6	(0.519)	0.239	0.087	0.145	0.151	-0.076	-0.078
MTCQ1	0.106	(0.775)	-0.060	-0.110	0.026	-0.055	0.085
MTCQ2	-0.119	(0.853)	0.019	0.048	0.030	-0.082	-0.031
MTCQ3	-0.019	(0.873)	0.057	0.092	-0.101	0.090	-0.004
MTCQ4	0.043	0.838)	0.096	-0.043	0.050	0.040	-0.043
MOCQ1	0.139	0.019	(0.805)	-0.118	-0.066	0.200	-0.061
MOCQ2	0.050	-0.016	(0.869)	0.067	-0.048	0.055	-0.018
MOCQ3	-0.075	-0.060	(0.857)	-0.019	0.055	-0.104	0.029
MOCQ4	-0.073	0.019	(0.820)	0.049	0.052	-0.042	-0.033
MOCQ5	-0.041	0.054	(0.775)	0.047	0.007	-0.110	0.086
BECQ1	-0.043	0.000	0.112	(0.768)	0.118	-0.197	-0.051
BECQ2	-0.079	-0.206	-0.028	(0.347)	-0.081	-0.118	-0.007

	CCQ	MTCQ	MOCQ	BECQ	ADSB	CSB	SP
BECQ3	-0.011	-0.042	0.004	(0.831)	-0.066	0.054	0.050
BECQ4	0.029	-0.040	0.004	(0.870)	-0.009	-0.008	0.020
BECQ5	0.053	-0.002	-0.052	(0.822)	-0.033	0.0135	-0.024
ADSB1	-0.006	0.163	0.035	-0.123	(0.796)	-0.027	0.160
ADSB2	0.004	0.023	0.070	-0.022	(0.845)	-0.301	-0.012
ADSB3	-0.077	0.000	-0.023	0.000	(0.859)	0.043	-0.057
ADSB4	-0.009	-0.085	0.015	0.083	(0.845)	-0.058	-0.070
ADSB5	0.093	-0.097	-0.099	0.059	(0.805)	0.357	-0.010
CSB1	-0.001	-0.016	0.062	-0.027	-0.009	(0.358)	0.043
CSB2	-0.003	-0.008	0.081	0.019	0.059	(0.859)	-0.069
CSB3	-0.046	0.029	-0.059	0.036	0.032	(0.871)	0.035
CSB4	0.005	-0.033	-0.018	-0.010	0.060	(0.899)	-0.010
CSB5	0.042	0.020	0.016	0.002	0.028	(0.877)	-0.023
SP1	0.019	-0.027	-0.004	-0.002	0.053	0.003	(0.842)
SP2	0.105	-0.112	-0.078	0.047	-0.097	0.095	(0.833)
SP3	0.053	0.008	-0.0114	0.017	-0.054	0.005	(0.870)
SP4	-0.111	-0.005	0.105	-0.003	0.031	-0.076	(0.766)
SP5	-0.085	0.148	0.115	-0.033	0.089	-0.038	(0.755)

Note: CCQ = Cognitive CQ, MTCQ = Metacognitive CQ, MOCQ = Motivational CQ, BECQ = Behavioral CQ, ADSB = Adaptive Selling Behavior, CSB = Customer-Oriented Selling Behavior, SP = Cross-Cultural Sales Performance



4.5.1.2 Discriminant validity test

The discriminant validity is an analysis that examines whether a particular latent variable is discriminated from other latent variables (C. Fornell & D. F. Larcker, 1981). The researcher tested discriminant validity by comparing both the square root of variance extracted of each construct and the correlation of itself to other variables (Donthu & Yoo, 1998; R. B. Kline, 2015). C. Fornell and D. F. Larcker (1981) and recommended that the discriminant validity of the variable will be accepted if square root of AVE of the construct is greater than any correlation that it involved. In order to examine the internal validity of the overall model the researcher performed a discriminant validity test. The result of the test is satisfactory; each indicator loads highest on the construct it intended to measure which implies that it does not overlap with other constructs. Thus, the discriminant validity of all latent variables is acceptable. The results of discriminant validity of all latent variables are reported in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 The correlations and average variance extracted of all latent variables

	CCQ	MTCQ	MOCQ	BECQ	ADSB	CSB	SP
CCQ	(0.727)						
MTCQ	0.340***	(0.835)					
MOCQ	0.292***	0.681***	(0.826)				
BECQ	0.282***	0.555***	0.643***	(0.829)			
ADSB	0.191***	0.517***	0.500***	0.334***	(0.830)		
CSB	0.118***	0.547***	0.496***	0.372***	0.658***	(0.877)	
SP	0.123***	0.324***	0.307***	0.254***	0.424***	0.431***	(0.814)

Notes: CCQ = Cognitive CQ, MTCQ = Metacognitive CQ, MOCQ = Motivational CQ, BECQ = Behavioral CQ, ADSB = Adaptive Selling Behavior, CSB = Customer-Oriented Selling Behavior, SP = Cross-Cultural Sales Performance

^{-*}p-value < .05, ** p-value < .01, ***p-value < .001

⁻The square root of AVE displays in th parentheses.

4.5.2 Reliability test

In order to ensure the level of consistency of the scales and the scales will return the same result the reliability test has to be performed (Nunnally, 1978). Two reliability tests applied in this study included Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability.

4.5.2.1 Cronbach's alpha coefficient & Composite reliability of all latent variables

Cronbach's alpha coefficient is the indicator to measure the internal consistency of the scales (J F. Hair et al., 2012). Normally, it is used to measure the reliability of the constructs. In order to ensure that all variables in this study are reliable, the expected level of reliability for each variable should over 0.7 (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982). According to Chin (1998), the composite reliability was recommended to be performed to ensure internal consistency reliability of variables in PLS analysis because this test uses indicator loadings into consideration in the reliability analysis (J F. Hair et al., 2012; Kock & Lynn, 2012) The acceptable value for composite reliability has to be over 0.7 (Hair, 2009). Moreover, it will be more acceptable if the value of composite reliability of each variable is higher than Cronbach's alpha. Generally, the value of composite reliability is slightly higher.

In order to ensure that the constructs in this study are reliable, the researcher tested the level of reliability of the overall model. The result from the test indicated that all the measurement items were above the value of 0.7, which is higher than acceptable level. Thus, the scales that were used in this research are reliable. The result of Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability of all latent variables are concluded in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability of all latent variables

	CCQ	MTCQ	MOCQ	BECQ	ADSB	CSB	SP
Cronbach's alpha (α)	0.816	0.855	0.883	0.848	0.887	0.900	0.872
Composite reliability	0.868	0.902	0.915	0.898	0.917	0.930	0.908

Note: CCQ = Cognitive CQ, MTCQ = Metacognitive CQ, MOCQ = Motivational CQ, BECQ = Behavioral CQ, ADSB = Adaptive Selling Behavior, CSB = Customer-Oriented Selling Behavior, SP = Cross-Cultural Sales Performance

4.6 Structural Equation Model

4.6.1 Test of hypothesis

In this study the researcher proposes ten hypotheses with linear relationships that are presented in Table 3. In this section the researcher will report the results from PLS regression analysis. Various measurement terms are used to specify the results. First, the path coefficient analysis reports the relationship between two variables whether they are positively related or negatively related. By looking at the positive or negative sign in path coefficient table. Second, in order to determine whether the hypothesis will be accepted or rejected, p-value acts as the indicator. In case that pvalue (null hypothesis) is below 0.05, it implies that the null hypothesis needs to be rejected and the alternative hypothesis will be accepted. Thus, the hypotheses will be statistically significant (R.B. Kline, 2004). In contrast if p-value is above 0.05, it implies that we cannot reject the null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis will not be statistically significant (Rice, 1989). Third, r-squared coefficient presents the percentage of the variance in which the level of percentage that independent variables can be used to predict dependent variables. The higher r-square the better because it implies the predictive power of overall model. Due to PLS-SEM analysis it has a characteristic about a good working with distribution-free and small sample size data which rely on resample techniques such as bootstrapping. Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics (2009) mentioned that "A bootstrapping procedure can be used in PLS path modeling to provide confidence intervals for all parameter estimates, building the basis for statistical inference". The bootstrapping techniques will randomly draw an existing data to create larger data, or subsamples, to represent a population. The recommended number of subsamples is 100 (Efron, Rogosa, & Tibshira i, 2004). Thus, the researcher followed the recommended value for the accuracy result. The results from PLS analysis are presented in Table 4.12 and 4.13.

Table 4.12 PLS results

	Depende	nt variable
Variables	Adaptive selling behavior	Customer-oriented selling
		behavior
Hypothesized variables		
Cognitive CQ	.021	086
Metacognitive CQ	.321***	.388***
Motivational CQ	.291***	.219***
Behavioral CQ	038	.038
Control variables		
Age	005	009
Gender	.014	.053
Education	010	.050
Status	077	113*
Prior education experience	144**	043
Prior work experience	.054	.021
Selling experience	.046	037

	Dependent variable		
Variables	Adaptive selling behavior	Customer-oriented selling behavior	
R-square	.335	.357	

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

- Standardized beta coefficients are reported
- N=365

Hypothesis 1: Cognitive CQ of salespeople is positively related to adaptive selling behavior.

The result indicated that these two variables are positively related, which implies that salespeople who possesed a higher level of cognitive CQ tended to show a high level of adaptive selling behavior in cross-cultural selling situations. However, the relationship was not statistically significant (β = .021; p= .355). Therefore, hypothesis 1 is not supported.

Hypothesis 2: Metacognitive CQ of salespeople is positively related to adaptive selling behavior.

The result indicated that these two variables are positively related, which implies that salespeople who possessed a higher level of metacognitive CQ tended to present a higher level of adaptive selling behavior in international selling situations. The result was also statistically significant (β = .321; p < .001). Therefore, hypothesis 2 is supported.

Hypothesis 3: Motivational CQ of salespeople is positively related to adaptive selling behavior.

The result indicated that these two variables are positively related, which implies that salespeople who possessed a higher level of motivational CQ tended to show a higher level of adaptive selling behavior in cross-cultural selling situations. The result was also statistically significant (β = .291; p < .001). Therefore, hypothesis 3 is supported.

Hypothesis 4: Behavioral CQ of salespeople is positively related to adaptive selling behavior.

The result indicated that these two variables are negatively related, which implies that salespeople who possessed a higher level of behavioral CQ tended to present a lower level of adaptive selling behavior in international selling situations. However, the relationship was not statistically significant (β = -.038; p = .267). Therefore, hypothesis 4 is not supported.

Hypothesis 5: Cognitive CQ of salespeople is positively related to customeroriented selling behavior.

The result indicated that these two variables are negatively related, which implies that salespeople who possessed a higher level of cognitive CQ tended to show a lower level of customer-oriented selling behavior in international selling situations. However, the relationship was not statistically significant (β = -.086; p= .045). Therefore, hypothesis 5 is not supported.

Hypothesis 6: Metacognitive CQ of salespeople is positively related to customeroriented selling behavior.

The result indicated that these two variables are positively related, which implies that salespeople who possessed a higher level of metacognitive CQ tended to present a higher level of customer-oriented selling behavior in cross-cultural selling situations. The result was also statistically significant (β = .388; p< .001). Therefore, hypothesis 6 is supported.

Hypothesis 7: Motivational CQ of salespeople is positively related to customeroriented selling behavior.

The result indicated that these two variables are positively related, which implies that salespeople who possessed a higher level of motivational CQ tended to present a higher level of customer-oriented selling behavior in cross-cultural selling situations. The result was also statistically significant (β = .219; p<.001). Therefore, hypothesis 7 is supported

Hypothesis 8: Behavioral CQ of salespeople is positively related to customeroriented selling behavior.

The result indicated that these two variables are positively related, which implies that salespeople who possessed a higher level of behavioral CQ tended to show a higher level of customer-oriented selling behavior. However, the relationship was not statistically significant (β = .038; p= .293). Therefore, hypothesis 8 is not supported.

For the control variables, the result from PLS-SEM shows that some personal characteristics of salespeople are related to the level of their adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling behavior. First, the result shows that prior education experience of salespeople in the assigned country is negatively related to their adaptive selling behavior. This finding is statistically significant (β = -0.144; p= .004). This implies that salespeople who had prior education experience in the assigned country tend to have a lower level of adaptive selling behavior. Prior education experience may facilitate the salespeople to feel more familiar with those cultures and they tend to put no or less effort to adapt their selling behavior to the consumers in assigned countries. Second, the result also shows that marital status of salespeople is negatively related to their customer-oriented selling behavior. This finding is statistically significant (β = -0.113; p= .015). This implies that single salespeople tend to have a lower level of customer-oriented selling behavior. Single salespeople tend to have less experience or are more reluctant to build good relationship with the foreign customers. In addition, it might be difficult for them to understand their foreign customer needs when compared to married salespeople as they tend to have more experience on how to build long term relationship with their foreign customers. The contribution of other control variables is not statistically significant.

Table 4.13 PLS results

	Dependent variable Cross-cultural sales performance	
Variable		
Hypothesized variables		
Adaptive selling behavior	.260***	
Customer-oriented selling behavior	.274***	
Control variables		
Age	121**	
Gender	002	
Education	.042	
Status	030	
Prior education experience	.099*	
Prior work experience	.002	
Selling experience	.132**	
R-square	.260	

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

- Standardized beta coefficients are reported

- N=365



Hypothesis 9: Salespeople's adaptive selling behavior is positively related to cross-cultural sales performance

The result indicated that these two variables are positively related, which implies that salespeople who apply adaptive selling behavior in their cross-cultural selling situations, can achieve better cross-cultural sales performance. The result was also statistically significant (β = .260; p< .001). Therefore, hypothesis 9 is supported.

Hypothesis 10: Salespeople's customer-oriented selling behavior is positively related to cross-cultural sales performance

The result indicated that these two variables are positively related, which implies that salespeople who apply customer-oriented selling behavior in their cross-cultural selling situations, can achieve better cross-cultural sales performance. The result was also statistically significant (β = .274; p< .001. Therefore, hypothesis 10 is supported

For the control variables, the result from PLS-SEM shows that some personal characteristics of salespeople are related to the level of their cross-cultural sales performance. First, the result indicates that salespeople's age is negatively related with their cross-cultural sales performance and it is statistically significant (β = -.121, p=.01). This result implies that older salespeople tend to have lower level of crosscultural sales performance. Older salespeople may have low willingness to perform their cross-cultural selling tasks and rely more on their old selling experience. Second, the result shows that prior education experience of salespeople in the assigned country is positively related to their cross-cultural sales performance and it is statistically significant (β = .099; p= .022). This implies that salespeople who had prior education experience in the assigned country tend to have a higher level of cross-cultural sales performance. Third, the result shows that selling experience of salespeople in the assigned country is positively related to their cross-cultural sales performance. This implies that salespeople who gained more selling experience in the assigned country tend to have a higher level of cross-cultural sales performance and it is statistically significant (β = 0.132; p= .005). The contribution of other control variables is not statistically significant.

4.6.2 R-square of overall model

The result from R-square indicates that all independent variables (cognitive CQ, metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ, behavioral CQ, age, gender, education, status, prior education experience, prior work experience and selling experience) that are included in the regression model can explain 33.5 percent of salespeople's adaptive selling behavior and 35.7 percent of salespeople's customer-oriented selling behavior. In addition, all independent variables (adaptive selling behavior, customer-oriented selling behavior, age, gender, education, status, prior education experience, prior work experience and selling experience) that are included in the regression model can explain 26 percent of salespeople's cross-cultural sales performance.

4.7 Model fit indices

There are several indices that determine the quality of PLS model analysis (Kock & Lynn, 2012). WarpPLS provides ten model fit indices including (1) Average path coefficient (APC), (2) Average R-squared (ARS), (3) Average adjusted R-squared (AAS), (4) Average block VIF (AVIF), (5) Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF), (6) Tenenhaus GoF (GoF), (7) Sympson's paradox ratio (SPR), (8) R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR), (9) Statistical suppression ratio (SSR) and (10) Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ration (NLBCDR).

4.7.1 Average path coefficient (APC)

The average path coefficient (APC) refers to how strong the paths are in the overall model. It is recommended that the p-value should equal to or below 0.05. The result from PLS analysis shows that APC has a value of 0.095 with p-value lower than 0.001. Thus, APC is statistically significant.

4.7.2 Average R-squared (ARS)

The average R-squared (ARS) refers to overall explanatory power of the model. It is recommended that the p-value should equal to or below 0.05. The result indicates that ARS is 0.346 with p-value below 0.001. Therefore, ARS is statistically significant.

4.7.3 Average adjusted R-squared (AARS)

Average adjusted r-squared (AARS) is slightly different from the average R-squared (ARS). The Average adjusted r-squared corrects spurious increases in R-squared coefficients due to predictors that add no explanatory value in each latent variable block. It is recommended that p-value should equal to or below 0.05. The result from the test shows that AARS has a value of 0.298 with p-value less than 0.001. Thus, AARS is statistically significant.

4.7.4 Average variance inflation factor (AVIF)

The average variance inflation factor (AVIF) is an indicator which measures model's vertical or classic collinearity. WarpPLS 5.0 suggests that an acceptable value of AVIF is equal to or less than 5 and ideal value is equal to or less than 3.3. The result reveals that AVIF index is 1.424 which means the collinearity in this model is ideally acceptable.

4.7.5 Average full variance inflation factor (AFVIF)

The average full variance inflation factor (AFVIF) measures both vertical and lateral collinearity, or multicollinearity, of the model. WarpPLS 5.0 suggests that an acceptable value of AFVIF is equal to or less than 5 and ideal value is equal to or less than 3.3. The result shows that AFVID value of this model is 1.588. Thus, the multicollinearity in this model is ideally acceptable.

4.7.6 Tenenhaus GoF (GoF index)

GoF index or Tenenhaus GoF is a measurement of model's explanatory power. GoF index defined the square root of the product between what they refer to as the average communality index and the ARS. GoF index is equal to or greater than 0.1 means small explanatory power, GoF index is equal or greater than 0.25 means medium explanatory power and GoF index is equal or greater than 0.36 means large explanatory power. The result indicates that GoF index of this model is 0.513. Thus, the result has a large explanatory power to the model.

4.7.7 Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR)

The Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR) is an indicator which indicates a possibility to have a Simpson's paradox in the model (Wagner, 1982). An acceptable value of SPR is 0.7 or 70 percent of paths in the model are free from Simpson's paradox. The result shows that SPR value is 0.636 the result does not meet the requirement. Thus, SPR index in this model is not acceptable.

4.7.8 R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR)

The R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR) measures a negative r-squared which comes from a Simpson's paradox issue PEARL, 2009. An acceptable value of RSCR is equal to or above 0.9 or over 90 percent of r-squared in the model and has a positive sign. The result from PLS analysis shows that RSCR index is 0.965 the result meets the requirement. Therefore, the RSCR index of this model is acceptable.

4.7.9 Statistical suppression ratio (SSR)

The statistical suppression ratio (SSR) is another index that measures a causality problem in the model (Spirtes, Glymour, Scheines, & Causation, 1993). The SSR indicates that the hypothesized path in the model is not reasonable or should be reversed. The ideal SSR index is 1 which means there is no SSR issue in the model. The acceptable value is 0.7 which means over 70 percent of paths are not associated with SSR issue. The result of this model is 0.909 the result meets the requirement. Thus, this model is acceptable.

4.7.10 Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)

The nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR) measures the correctness of direction of causality in non-linear relationship. Acceptable values of NLBCDR is equal to or greater than 0.7 which means 70 percent of path-related instances have weak or no suggestion to reverse hypothesized direction. The result shows that NLBCDR index is 0.823 which means this model is acceptable for the non-linear of direction of causality. Since this model is purposed in linear relationship which means NLBCDR should not be considered in the test. All model fit indices are shown in Table 4.14 below.

Table 4.14 *Model fit indices*

Model fit indices	Coefficient	Result
Average path coefficient (APC)	0.095***	Significant
Average R-squared (ARS)	0.346***	Significant
Average adjusted R-squared (AARS)	0.298	Significant
Average block VIF (AVIF)	1.424	Ideally
Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF)	1.588	Ideally
Tenenhaus GoF (GoF)	0.513	Large
Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR)	0.636	Not acceptable
R-squared contribution ration (RSCR)	0.965	Acceptable

Model fit indices	Coefficient	Result
Statistical suppression ration (SSR)	0.909	Acceptable
Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)	0.823	Acceptable

Note: ***, **, * means significant at 0.001, 0.01, 0.05 level

4.8 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is a statistical phenomenon in that two or more variables in the model are highly correlated (Farra & Glauber, 1967). The indicator used to measures the multicollinearity in the model is the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) (Kock & Lynn, 2012). In this study the researcher applied a full VIF test because of its advantages of the assessment both lateral and vertical collinearity at the same time (Kock, 2015). Generally, the value of the Full VIF should be less than 3.30 in order to guarantee that the multicollinearity is not a serious problem (Kock & Lynn, 2012). According to the result from the analysis all variables have a value below 3.30. Thus, the multicollinearity is not a serious problem in this model. The result of multicollinearity of overall model are concluded in Table 4.15.



Table 4.15 Full VIF Statistics of all overall models

	CCQ	MTCQ	MOCQ	BECQ	ADSB	CSB	SP	AGE	GEN	EDU	STAT	PRED	PRW	SEEX
Full	0.198	2.351	2.516	1.891	2.080	2.154	1.361	1.415	1.075	1.081	1.332	1.217	1.243	1.239
VIF														

Note: CCQ = Cognitive CQ, MTCQ = Metacognitive CQ, MOCQ = Motivational CQ, BECQ = Behavioral CQ, ADSB = Adaptive Selling Behavior, CSB = Customer-Oriented Selling Behavior, SP = Cross-Cultural Sales Performance, AGE = Age, GEN = Gender, EDU = Education, STAT = Status, PRED = Prior Education Experience, PRW = Prior Work Experience, SEEX = Selling Experience.

4.9 Results summary and model specification problems

By using CQ dimensions separately in the model, the researcher found a significant effect of only two dimensions of CQ which are metacognitive CQ and motivational CQ on adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling behavior. However, two aspects of CQ, which are behavioral CQ and cognitive CQ were found to have negative association with the outcome variables. The overall findings may be affected by model specification problem. According to the overall results from PLS analysis the researcher found that the problems could have happened for two reasons. First reason, the result from model's fit indices indicates that the Simpson's paradox ratio does not meet the requirement or is below the acceptable level. Simpson's paradox is characterized by the path cofficient and correlation for a pair of variables having contradict signs (Wagner, 1982). One widely held interpretation is that Simpson's paradox could be an indication that the direction of the hypothesized relationship in this model is reversed, or that the hypothesized relationship is improbable. The second reason, related to the result from Simpson's paradox ratio, this result has affect on some regression results of this model which are Hypothesis 4 and 5 (Table 19). In hypothesis 4 the result indicates that behavioral CQ is negatively related to adaptive selling behavior (β = -.038; p = .267) and the result from hypothesis 5 indicates that cognitive CQ is negatively related to customer-oriented selling behavior (β = -.086; p= .045). The results may be biased because when compared to the result from the correlations table (Table 17) the results show that all 4 dimensions of CQ have high correlation among them. In addition, the results from the Correlations Table also shows that all CQ dimensions are correlated with adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling behavior and the results are statistically significant. Therefore, the results from the Correlations Table is more interpretable and more acceptable than the results from the test of hypothesis 4 and 5, in which they show the reverse relationship between two variables.

Previous research found that the four elements of CQ were highly correlated (Ang et al., 2007; Charoensukmongkol, 2015; Ng et al., 2009; Ward, Wilson, & Fischer, 2011). This issue is congruent with the argument that each dimension of CQ needs other dimensions to develop (P. Christopher Earley 2002; P. Christopher Earley

& Ang, 2003). According to P Christopher Earley (2002), people must have all aspects of CQ dimension in order to have fun and work effectively in culturally diverse situations. On the other hand, these four elements of CQ work very well when they are combined into second-order latent variable due to its validity and reliability which are in the satisfactory level (Mehembe & Engelbrech, 2014). There are many studies that applied CQ as a second-order latent variable (Bucker et al., 2014; Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Isfahani & Nobakht, 2013; L. Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Mehembe & Engelbrech, 2014; Nunes, Felix, & Prates, 2017). Because of this outcome the researcher proposes the alternative model which consider CQ as a second-order latent variable. In comparison to first-order models with correlated factors, second-order factor models can be more interpretable model (F. F. Chen, Sousa, K. H., & West, S. G., 2005).

4.10 Alternative model

This section proposes an alternative model that consider CQ as a second-order latent variable. A second-order latent variable is a latent variable whose indicators are themselves latent variables. Such a latent variable would then have no measured indicators (Romi, Djajadikerta, & Ahmed, 2015). To use a second-order construct in regression the items in each first-order construct (factor) should be unidimensional. In addition, the second-order construct (factor) should be unidimensional using exploratory factor analysis with each first-order construct summed items as a single item per construct, and the second-order construct should be face or content valid using the first-order constructs as "items" (Mehembe & Engelbrech, 2014). The researcher combined four elements of CQ into a second-order latent variable and used it in the PLS analysis. Therefore, the researcher used WarpPLS to create factor scores of all dimensions of CQ to create a second-order latent variable. Then, convergent validity and discriminant validity tests were performed for the alternative model that has CQ as a second-order latent variable.

The factor loadings and cross loadings were performed with other latent and control variables to test for convergent validity. The results confirm that all variables have loadings above 0.5. Therefore, the convergent validity test for this model is

acceptable. The results of the combined factor loadings and cross loadings of all latent variables are reported in Table 4.16.



Table 4.16 The combined factor loading and cross loadings of second-order latent variable of CQ

	CQ	ADSB	CSB	SP
CQ_CCQ	(0.536)	0.078	-0.309	-0.037
CQ_MTCQ	(0.852)	0.044	0.130	0.006
CQ_MOCQ	(0.873)	0.052	0.031	0.014
CQ_BECQ	(0.820)	-0.152	0.034	0.004
ADSB1	0.040	(0.796)	-0.009	0.157
ADSB2	0.063	(0.845)	-0.300	0.012
ADSB3	-0.081	(0.859)	0.071	-0.056
ADSB4	0.017	(0.845)	-0.065	-0.066
ADSB5	-0.037	(0.805)	0.317	-0.013
CSB1	0.081	0.071	(0.859)	0.437
CSB2	-0.034	0.019	(0.871)	-0.066
CSB3	-0.049	-0.064	(0.899)	0.039
CSB4	0.067	-0.023	(0.877)	-0.011
SP1	-0.011	0.055	-0.010	(0.842)
SP2	-0.043	-0.106	0.056	(0.833)

	CQ	ADSB	CSB	SP
SP3	-0.045	-0.069	-0.006	(0.870)
SP4	0.009	0.027	-0.038	(0.766)
SP5	0.102	0.108	-0.006	(0.755)

Note: CQ = Cultural Intelligence, CQ_CCQ= Cognitive CQ, CQ_MTCQ= Metacognitive CQ, CQ_MOCQ= Motivational CQ, CQ_BECQ= Behavioral CQ, ADSB = Adaptive Selling Behavior, CSB = Customer-Oriented Selling Behavior, SP = Cross-Cultural Sales Performance

The test of discriminant validity was performed. The results indicate that the square root of the average variance extracted of each latent variable is higher than other correlations that it involved (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This implies that the discriminant validity of this model is acceptable. The results are presented in Table 4.17.



Table 4.17 The correlations and average variance extracted of second-order latent variable of CQ

	CQ	ADSB	CSB	SP
CQ	(0.782)			
ADSB	0.512***	(0.830)		
CSB	0.518***	0.658***	(0.877)	
SP	0.334***	0.424***	0.431***	(0.841)

Notes: CQ = Cultural Intelligence, ADSB = Adaptive Selling Behavior, CSB = Customer-Oriented Selling Behavior, SP = Cross-Cultural Sales Performanc

^{-*}p-value < .05, ** p-value < .01, *** p-value < .001

⁻The square root of AVE displays in the parenteses.

The reliability test of the overall model was conducted to confirm that the overall model has enough reliability. The results show that both Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability are above 0.8. Thus, the reliability results of this model is satisfactory (Nunnally, 1978). The results are reported in Table 4.18.



Table 4.18 Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability of second-order latent variable of CQ

	CQ	ADSB	CSB	SP	
Cronbach's alpha (α)	0.777	0.887	0.930	0.908	
Composite reliability	0.859	0.917	0.900	0.872	

Note: CQ = Cultural Intelligence, ADSB = Adaptive Selling Behavior, CSB = Customer-Oriented Selling Behavior, SP = Cross-Cultural Sales Performance

Table 4.19 Normal distribution

	CQ	ADSB	CSB	SP	AGE	GEN	EDU	STAT	PRED	PRW	SEEX
Normal-JB	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Normal-RJB	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No

Note: CQ = Cultural Intelligence, ADSB = Adaptive Selling Behavior, CSB = Customer-Oriented Selling Behavior, SP = Cross-Cultural Sales Performance, AGE = Age, GEN = Gender, EDU = Education, STAT = Status, PRED = Prior Education Experience, PRW = Prior Work Experiences, SEEX = Selling Experience

The results indicating the normality of the data are presented in Table 4.19. The results indicated that CQ, customer-oriented selling behaviour, cross-cultural sales performance, age, gender, status, prior education experience, prior work experience and selling experience are not normalized. Therefore, the overall result in normal distribution table confirm that PLS-SEM is an appropriate research method for the alternative model (Cassel et al., 1999; J. F. Hair et al., 2012).

The PLS results that test the hypotheses about the contribution of CQ as a second-order latent variable are presented in Table 4.20.



 $Table\ 4.20\ PLS\ results\ of\ second-order\ factor\ model$

	Depende	ent variable	
Variables	Adaptive selling behavior	Customer-oriented	selling
		behavior	
Hypothesized variables			
CQ	.506***	.505***	
Control variables			
Age	.010	.011	
Gender	.008	.060*	
Education	.006	.067	
Status	090*	119*	
Prior education experience	166***	078	
Prior work experience	.066	.028	
Selling experience	.023	051	
R-square	.299	.303	

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

- Standardized beta coefficients are reported

- N=365



The results from the PLS analysis indicated that there was a positive relationship between CQ and adaptive selling behavior. This result implies that salespeople who possessed a higher level of CQ tended to show a higher level of adaptive selling behavior in cross-cultural selling situations. The result was also statistically significant (β = .506; p < .001). The result also indicated that there was a positive relationship between CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior. This result implies that salespeople who possessed a higher level of CQ tended to show a higher level of customer-oriented selling behavior in cross-cultural selling situations. The result was also statistically significant (β = .505; p < .001). In addition, the result from R-square indicates that all independent variables (CQ, age, gender, education, status, prior education experience, prior work experience and selling experience) that are included in the regression model can explain 29.9 percent of salespeople's adaptive selling behavior and 30.3 percent of salespeople's customer-oriented selling behavior. In addition, all independent variables (adaptive selling behavior, customer-oriented selling behavior, age, gender, education, status, prior education experience, prior work experience and selling experience) that are included in the regression model can explain 26 percent of salespeople's cross-cultural sales performance.

The researcher tested the model fits of the alternative model and the results are reported in the Table 28. According to the results from model fit indices of the alternative model the researcher found an improvement in the quality of the model especially the Simpson's paradox ratio. Earlier, the Simpson's paradox ratio of the model that separated CQ into four dimensions did not meet the requirement (Table 4.12). By using CQ as second-order latent variable in the alternative model, the model specification problems that were found in the original model were solved. The Simpson's paradox ratio of the alternative model is .71 which is at the acceptable level. It is also higher than the Simpson's paradox ratio of the model that separate CQ into four dimensions which was .636 and was unacceptable

Table 4.21 Model fit indices of second-order factor model

Model fit indices	Coefficient	Result
Average path coefficient (APC)	0.098***	Significant
Average R-squared (ARS)	0.318***	Significant
Average adjusted R-squared (AARS)	0.298***	Significant
Average block VIF (AVIF)	1.424	Ideally
Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF)	1.587	Ideally
Tenenhaus GoF (GoF)	0.513	Large
Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR)	0.710	Acceptable

Model fit indices	Coefficient	Result
R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR)	0.974	Acceptable
Statistical suppression ratio (SSR)	0.871	Acceptable
Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)	0.823	Acceptable

Note: ***, **, * means significant at 0.001, 0.01, 0.05 level

The researcher assessed the Multicollinearity problem of the alternative model. According to the result from the analysis all variables have a value below 3.30. Thus, the multicollinearity is not a serious problem in the alternative model. In addition, the researcher found that the maximum full VIF of the alternative model (2.056) is lower than the maximum full VIF of the model that separate CQ into four dimensions (2.516). According to Kock and Lynn (2012), the lower the value of full collinearity VIFs the better the model is because the bias is not a serious problem. This result implies that the quality of the alternative model is better than the first-factor model. The results are presented in table 4.22.



Table 4.22 Full VIF Statistics of all overall models of second-order latent variable of CQ and all variables

	CQ	ADSB	CSB	SP	AGE	GEN	EDU	STAT	PRED	PRW	SEEX
Full VIF	1.546	2.036	2.056	1.360	1.397	1.058	1.075	1.325	1.198	1.238	1.214

Note: CQ = Cultural Intelligence, ADSB = Adaptive Selling Behavior, CSB = Customer-Oriented Selling Behavior, SP = Cross-Cultural Sales Performance, AGE = Age, GEN = Gender, EDU = Education, STAT = Status, PRED = Prior Education Experience, PRW = Prior Work Experience, SEEX = Selling Experience

4.11 Summary of the results from the alternative model

According to the results from PLS analysis, the researcher found that the alternative model is more specifiable and more interpretable than the model that separate CQ into four dimensions by three significant reasons. First reason is the result from model fit indices of the model that separate CQ into four dimensions indicate that Simpson's paradox ratio does not meet the requirement, whereas the Simpson's paradox ratio in the alternative model meets the requirement. This implies that the alternative model has better model specification quality than the model that separates CQ into sub dimensions.

The second reason, the PLS results of hypothesis 4 and 5 of the model that separate CQ into four dimensions shows the contradict sign to the correlations table results. The PLS results show the negative relationship between behavioral CQ and adaptive selling behavior (hypothesis 4) and negative relationship between cognitive CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior (hypothesis 5) which are contradictary with the result from correlation tables which showed positive and significant relationship. When comparing the PLS results from the model that separate CQ into four dimensions with the alternative model the researcher found that the PLS results from the alternative model is more interpretable than the model that separate CQ into four dimensions. Therefore, the quality of the model specification of the alternative model is better than the model that separate CQ into four dimensions.

The third reason, the maximum full VIF of the alternative model is lower than the model that separate CQ into four dimensions. Even though the results from both models indicate that the multicollinearity is not a serious problem but as the researcher mentioned before the lower the value of full collinearity VIFs the better the model (Kock & Lynn, 2012). Thus, in this case the alternative model is better than the model that separates CQ into four dimensions. Conclusively, the above three reasons indicate that the alternative model can solve the problem that the researcher experienced in the model that separates CQ into four dimensions.

4.12 Results from indirect effects and total effects analysis

In addition to the relationship between CQ and two selling behaviors, this research also explore whether this contribution of CQ can be link indirectly to crosscultural sales performance through the mediating role of these two selling behaviors. The researcher used the indirect effects analysis and total effects analysis provided in WarpPLS 6.0 to test the mediating effect. According to Kock (2015), indirect effects allow for direct estimations, by resampling, of the P values associated with mediating effects that have traditionally relied on non-automated and thus time-consuming calculations (Hayes & Preacher, 2010). The indirect effect analysis was conducted for direct estimations of the role of CQ on cross-cultural sales performance which mediated by adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling behavior. The result from the analysis indicated that there is a positive indirect effect of CQ and cross-cultural sales performance through the mediating effect of adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling behavior (β= .27; p< .001). Apart from the indirect effects analysis this research also conducted the total effects analysis in order to estimate the contribution of CQ to cross-cultural sales performance by taking into consideration all paths that connect the two variables (Bollen, 1987; Kock, 2015). According to Kock (2015), it is crucial to assess the total effects in the evaluation of downstream effects of latent variables that are mediated by other latent variables, especially in complex models with multiple mediating effects along concurrent paths. The analysis confirmed the positive total effect of CQ on cross-cultural sales performance which is connected by adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling behavior (β = .27; p< .001). Overall, these results indicated that only CQ alone is not adequate for salespeople to have higher cross-cultural sales performance. The result suggests that adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling behavior are two significant factors that strongly explain why the salespeople with high CQ tend to perform better in their cross-cultural selling task. Thus, this machanism of CQ can facilitate salespeople to have higher cross-cultural sales performance.

4.13 Results comparison between Vietnam, Japan and India

In addition to the main findings this research also analyzed whether the contribution of CQ to adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling behavior would be the same for higher distance culture and lower distance culture or not. The researcher analysed this part by seperating the data into three groups which are salesepeople who worked in Indian trade shows, Japanese trade shows and Vietnamese trade shows.

The results are reported in Table 30. The results from the three countries' PLS analysis indicated that first, there was a positive relationship between CQ and adaptive selling behavior of Thai salespeople in Vietnamese trade shows. The result was also statistically significant (β = .360; p < .001). Second, the result indicates that there was a positive relationship between CQ and adaptive selling behavior of Thai salespeople in Japanese trade shows. The result was also statistically significant (β = .484; p < .001). Third, the result indicates that there was a positive relationship between CQ and adaptive selling behavior of Thai salespeople in Indian trade shows. The result was also statistically significant (β = .452; p < .001). When comparing the magnitude of beta coefficients among these three countries, it appears that the highest beta coefficient is from Japanese trade shows sample, following by Indian trade shows sample, and lastly Vietnamese trade shows sample. A standardized beta coefficient can be used to compare the effect that independent variables have on the dependent variable; the higher the absolute value of the beta coefficient, the stronger the effect (Freedman, 2009). Thus, the results when comparing the beta coefficients of CQ in three countries indicated that the contribution of CQ to adaptive selling behavior of Thai salespeople is stronger in Japanese trade shows and Indian trade shows when compared to Vietnamese trade shows.

In addition, the results from the three countries' PLS analysis also present the r-square of each country's model. For the Vietnamese trade shows' model, the r-square is .218 or 21.8 percent; for the Japanese trade shows' model, the r-square is .358 or 35.8 percent; and for the Indian trade shows' model, the r-square is .354 or 35.4 percent. R-squared or coefficient of determination is the indicator for the goodness of fit of the data in the regression analysis. In general, the higher the r-

squared, the better the model fits the data (Freedman, 2009). Furthermore, r-square is the indicator that tells the percent that the dependent variable can be predicted by the independent variable(s) in the regression analysis (Kitchens, 1998). When comparing the r-squares of each country model, it shows that the r-square seems to be the highest for Japanese trade shows sample, following by Indian trade shows sample, and lastly Vietnamese trade shows sample. Thus, the results from comparing these r-squares indicated that the overall model can be used to explain adaptive selling behavior of salespeople in Japan in a larger extent than in India and in Vietnam respectively.

The results from the three countries' PLS analysis indicate that first, there was a positive relationship between CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior of Thai salespeople in Vietnamese trade shows. The result was also statistically significant (β = .481; p < .001). Second, the result indicates that there was a positive relationship between CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior of Thai salespeople in Japanese trade shows. The result was also statistically significant (β = .488; p < .001). Third, the result indicates that there was a positive relationship between CQ and customeroriented selling behavior of Thai salespeople in Indian trade shows. The result was also statistically significant (β = .372; p < .001). When comparing the magnitude of beta coefficients among these three countries, it appears that the highest beta coefficient is from the Japanese trade shows sample, followed by the Vietnamese trade shows sample, and lastly the Indian trade shows sample Thus, the results when comparing the beta coefficients of CQ in three countries indicated that the contribution of CQ to customer-oriented selling behavior of Thai salespeople is stronger in Japanese trade shows and Vietnamese trade shows when compared to Indian trade shows. The r-square value of each country's model were found as follows. For the Vietnamese trade shows' model, the r-square is .287 or 28.7 percent; for the Japanese trade shows' model, the r-square is .389 or 38.9 percent; and for Indian trade shows' model, the r-square is .285 or 28.5 percent. When comparing the r-squares of each country model, it indicates that the r-square seems to be the highest for the Japanese trade shows sample, followed by the Vietnamese trade shows sample, and lastly the Indian trade shows sample. Thus, the results from comparing these rsquares indicated that the overall model can be used to explain customer-oriented

selling behavior of salespeople in Japan to a larger extent than in Vietnam and in India respectively.

The results from PLS analysis compares the relationship between CQ and two selling behaviors of Thai salespeople in three countries trade shows indicate that CQ has a higher contribution to adaptive selling behaviors of Thai salespeople in the Japanese trade shows and the Indian trade shows than in the Vietnamese trade shows. In addition, the results also indicated that CQ has a higher contribution to customeroriented selling behaviors of Thai salespeople in the Japanese trade shows and Vietnamese trade shows than in Indian trade shows. Particularly for the results about adaptive selling behaviors, this findings congruent with the results from Post hoc comparisions tests in ANOVA (Table 15), which shows that Thai salesperson perceived that Indian and Japanese cultures were highly different from Thai culture than Vietnamese culture. All in all, the above analysis regarding the role of cultural differences was consistent with the evidence from the previous studies which indicated that the effect of CQ are different depends on the level of cultural distance (Collins et al., 2016; Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Rockstuhl & Ng, 2011). The overall results indicate that the positive relationship between CQ and two selling behaviors are significantly stronger in the country characterized by higher cultural differences than lower cultural differences. The analysis of cultural differences between 3 countries are shown in table 4.23.

Table 4.23 The analysis of cultural differences between Vietnam, Japan and India

Variables	Vietnam		Japan		India	
	Adaptive	Customer-	Adaptive	Customer-	Adaptive	Customer-
	selling	oriented	selling	oriented	selling	oriented
	behavior	selling	behavior	selling	behavior	selling
		behavior		behavior		behavior
Hypothesized variables						
CQ	.360***	.481***	.484***	.488***	.452***	.372***
Control variables						
Age	038	.068	.085	.122	003	034
Gender	.030	.052	.030	.158*	011	044
Education	.118	042	116	039	005	.157**
Status	182*	132	052	0.135	084	126
Prior education experience	022	004	146	.012	314***	301***
Prior work experience	.128	.036	.036	129*	.079	.145*

Variables	Vietnam		Japan		India	
	Adaptive selling behavior	Customer- oriented selling	Adaptive selling behavior	Customer- oriented selling behavior	Adaptive selling behavior	Customer- oriented selling behavior
		behavior				
Selling experience	.035	022	163*	173*	.051	049
R-square	.218	.287	.358	.389	.354	.285

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

- Standardized beta coefficients are reported
- N=100 in Vietnamese trade shows, N=110 in Japanese trade shows and N=155 in Indian trade shows

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 Research summary

The main objective in this study is to investigate how CQ relates to the two selling behaviors which are adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling behavior; and how these two selling behaviors associate with the cross-cultural sales performance of salespeople who worked at the international trade shows in Japan, Vietnam and India. At the beginning the researcher used the model that separates CQ into 4 dimensions but found several model specification problems. As a result, this research proposed the alternative model which combined the four elements of CQ into a second-order latent variable. By using CQ as the second-order latent variable in the alternative model, the model specification problems that were found in the model that separate CQ were solved. The overall results from the hypothesis testing of the alternative model are all supported. To summarize the overall findings from alternative model, having CQ allowed the salespeople to have higher adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling behavior in cross-cultural selling situations; and these two selling behaviors facilitate the salespeople to achieve higher crosscultural sales performance. Apart from the above objective, this study also aims to investigate whether the association between CQ and these two selling behaviors tend to differ when comparing between the salespeople who worked in Japanese trade shows, Vietnamese trade shows and Indian trade shows. The results from the PLS analysis supported the positive link between CQ and adaptive selling behavior as well as customer-oriented selling behavior in all three countries. The findings support the stronger association between CQ and two selling behaviors of salespeople at the Japanese trade shows than the Vietnamese trade shows and the Indian trade shows

According to the results, this research found a strongly positive relationship between CQ and adaptive selling behavior. These findings are congruent with several studies in previous research which found that CQ has positive effects on cross-cultural adjustment and cross-cultural adaptation of expatriates in international assignments (A. S. Y. Chen, Wu, & Bian, 2014; Delpechitre & Baker.D.S., 2017; J. D. Hansen et al., 2011; Jyoti & Kour, 2015; Koo Moon, Kwon Choi, & Shik Jung, 2012; Magnussun, Westjohn, Semenov, Randrianasolo, & Zdravkovic, 2013; M. A. Malek & P. Budhwar, 2013; Nunes et al., 2017; Ramalu, Rose, Uli, & Kumar, 2012; Ramulu & Rose, 2010; Sahin et al., 2014; Wu & Ang, 2011). In particular, the results consistent with the previous research studied by Delpechitre and Baker.D.S. (2017) which found that sales students with CQ are able to adjust their selling behaviors well in their role-play presentations. Furthermore, the results consistent with the previous research studied by J. D. Hansen et al. (2011) which indicated that CQ facilitated the salespeople to adapt their selling behavior in cross-cultural selling.

Furthermore, this research found a strong positive relationship between CQ and customer-oriented selling behavior. These findings are congruent with several studies in previous research which found that CQ has positive effects on customer orientation and quality of relationship in cross-cultural interactions (Alshaibani, 2015; Charoensukmongkol, 2015; Hosseini & Allahyari, 2016; Kanten, 2014; Pelin, 2014; Rohmetra & Arora, 2013; Sahin & Gurbuz, 2017; Saidimorady, Salavati, & Fatehiepore, 2013; Suthatorn & Charoennsukmongkol, 2018). In particular, the results are consistent with previous studied by Suthatorn and Charoennsukmongkol (2018) which found that cabin crews who had high CQ tended to have more willingness to provide impressive service to foreign passengers. The results are also consistent with the studied by Kanten (2014) which found that the CQ of employees in international hotels in Egypt had positive effects on their customer-oriented service behaviors. Furthermore, the results are also consistent with the study by Saidimorady et al. (2013) which found that CQ of the commercial banks' employees in Iran had positive effects on their customer-orientation.

In terms of the comparative study which separated the salespeople who worked in the Japanese trade shows, Vietnamese trade shows and Indian trade shows can provide additional information regarding the role of CQ. The study found that CQ is more crucial in a country in which the national culture is more varied when compared to the individual's home country. Specifically, the findings support the stronger association between CQ and adaptive selling behaviors of salespeople at the Japanese trade shows and Indian trade shows when compared to the Vietnamese trade shows. These results could be explained by the perception of the respondents who felt that Japanese culture and Indian culture seemed to differ more from their home culture as compared to Vietnamese culture. These findings are congruent with the evidence from previous studies, which found that CQ provides greater benefit specially in the context characterized as high culturally heterogeneous context as compared to culturally homogeneous context (Collins et al., 2016; Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Rockstuhl & Ng, 2011; Zhang, 2012). In particular, the results consistent with the previous research studied by Zhang (2012) which found that the relationship between CQ and cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates in multinational corporations was stronger in the country with higher cultural difference than lower cultural difference. Given that the Japanese culture is high context culture in which Japanese people use more indirect and non-confrontational style of communication; thus, salespeople in Japanese trade shows may need to rely more on CQ in order to adjust their selling behaviors appropriately when dealing with the Japanese. In addition, Indian culture is high power-distance culture in which consumer in higher power status they expect superior service from the salespeople and the salespeople need to adapt their selling style according to their power status; therefore, salespeople in Indian trade shows may need to rely more on CQ in order to adjust thier selling behaviors properly.

Apart from the above results regarding the contribution of CQ to two selling behaviors, this research also found a positive relationship between adaptive selling behavior and cross-cultural sales performance. These findings are consistent with several studies in previous research which found that adaptive selling behavior has positive effects on sales performance (Anh et al., 2016; Bukari & Jainullabdeen, 2015; S. Chakrabarty et al., 2013; Franke & Park, 2006; Kara et al., 2013; Kaynak et al., 2016; Romon & Iacobucci, 2010; Siminitiras et al., 2013; Tevan & Winters, 2007). These findings indicate that if salespeople have high levels of adaptive selling behavior they know how to use the appropriate sales presentation according to the nature of the selling situation and try to adjust their sales presentations during these

sales encounters (Romon & Iacobucci, 2010). Hence, they can perform well even in the sales that involve cross-cultural interaction (Kaynak et al., 2016).

The analysis also found a positive relationship between customer-oriented selling behavior and cross-cultural sales performance. These findings according to several studies in previous research which found that customer-oriented selling behavior has positive effects on employees and salespeople's performance (Arndt & Karande, 2012; Choi & Joung, 2017; Franke & Park, 2006; Kaynak et al., 2016; McIntyre et al., 2000; Mehrabi et al., 2012; Singh & Das, 2013; Tevan & Winters, 2007; Thurau et al., 2002; Yakasai & M., 2015). These findings indicate that salesepeople who apply customer-oriented selling behavior in cross-cultural selling task find they can understand the needs of customers from different cultures correctly and deliver optimum solutions to solve their problems (S. Chakrabarty et al., 2013). Hence, they have a higher level of cross-cultural sales performance during their cross-cultural interaction with foreign customers (Verbek et al., 2011). In addition, this study also contributes to how these two selling behaviors link to the cross-cultural sales performance.

The overall findings from this study showing that CQ indirectly explain cross-cultural selling performance are consistent with prior research which found the evidence concerning the contribution of CQ in facilitating individuals to develop the important skills required to be effective in various areas of cross-cultural performance (Ang et al., 2007; Charoensukmongkol, 2015; Collins et al., 2016; Duff et al., 2012; Jeevan & Sumeet, 2015; Jyoti & Kour, 2015; Kim & Mazumdar, 2016; A. Malek, Martin & P. Budhwar, 2013; Nunes et al., 2017; Ramalu et al., 2012; Subramaniam, Ramalu, Wei, & Rose, 2011; Wu & Ang, 2011). In particular, the results that were obtained from salespeople provided additional support to CQ research focusing on cross-cultural performance of the employees in the service sectors (Alshaibani, 2015; Fakhreidin, 2011).

The result also supports the theory of mind. Generally, this theory aims to facilitate an individual to understand another person's mind. According to the results, CQ plays a crucial role in initiating adaptive selling behavior and customer-oriented selling behavior which reflect an ability to understand mind of international customers. On the basis of theory of mind, salespeople with high CQ's tend to be

more able to predict the desires and needs of international customers correctly, because they have background knowledge related to these customers' cultures, beliefs, behaviors, lifestyles and nonverbal and verbal communications styles. Thus, CQ could be said to be the capability that facilitate the competencies suggested by the theory of mind in the context of international selling.

5.2 Limitations

Despite the contribution this research provides, there are some research limitations that need to be considered. First, the results of this research came from the survey conducted in three countries in Asia, namely Vietnam, Japan and India. Using only three countries in Asia, the generalizability of the results can be limited to only these group of countries. Second, the data were collected from a small number of salespeople. Using a small number of sample size can limit the generalizability of the results to a larger population. Third, the method used to measure the CQ is by self-evaluation and this can create subjective bias from the respondents. Fourth, the analysis in this research based on the survey data that were collected on a cross-sectional basis. Using cross-sectional data makes inference of the direction of causality difficult. Thus, the results can only be interpreted in terms of association rather than causation. Lastly, this study did not control other factors such as industry and firm size which might affect performance of salespersons. Thus, future research should add these two factors in order to measure whether these control variables will affect the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variables.

5.3 Research contributions

This study contributes to existing CQ research. Prior research studied the role of CQ in many areas of performance but the study on the area of cross-cultural sales performance is still scarce. This research filled this research gap by studying the role of CQ in cross-cultural salespeople, which is the context that has never been studied before. Results from this study provided more evidence to prior research regarding the benefits of CQ to salespeople who need to perform cross-cultural selling tasks. Furthermore, the results from this study also provide the additional contribution

related to the role of culture in the selling context. The result indicated that the positive relationship between CQ and two selling behaviors are significantly stronger in the country characterized by higher cultural differences than lower cultural differences. This also contributes to CQ research by showing that differences in cultural contexts could also influence the benefits of CQ on the outcome variables. Thus, future research that explores the contribution of CQ will need to consider the context to which CQ is applied. In doing this, the degree of cultural distance should be a factor for future studies and needs to be considered when studying the benefits of CQ in the cross-cultural contexts.

5.4 Practical contributions

The results from this study also provided the valuable information to human resources management to understand the qualifications which are needed for crosscultural salespeople and help them to develop competencies of existing employees or to recruit the right people to fit the cross-cultural selling task. As mentioned in the early chapter, one particular challenge of the cross-cultural salespeople is the difficulty dealing with foreign customers whose cultures tend to differ significantly from local customers. Therefore, this study also provides valuable information related to a cross-cultural training that human resources management should provide for their sales force to enhance their cross-cultural selling skills and performance. According to the findings of this study CQ is recommended as a cultural competency that salespeople should develop. Study showed that CQ is a competency that can be developed through training (Macnab, 2012). Considering the intensive competition in the international businesses that requires organizations to have competitive advantages especially in their international selling area, this research suggests that the human resource management should incorporate CQ training as part of their salespeople development. Prior research mentioned that CQ training employees for their cross-cultural assignments and provide readiness for such assignments (P. Christopher Earley & Peterson, 2004). There are reports regarding the application of CQ training in corporations. For example, the world's largest direct sales company, Amway, also provides CQ training to the leaders and employees in their organization (D. Livermore, 2017). The CQ training at Amway allows the leaders and employees to work effectively, whatever the cultural differences. Moreover, this training help the leaders and employees to understand the realities of unconscious bias, they will understand how to interrupt and manage their biases, and develop the CQ skills in themselves and others to work across the never-ending differences they encounter as long as they work at Amway. Thus, it is significant to provide CQ training to the organization's employees who need to work in a diverse cultural environment (P. Christopher Earley & Peterson, 2004).

According to the prior research, CQ is a competency that can be developed through training (Baker & Delpechitre, 2016; P. Christopher Earley & Peterson, 2004). Therefore, this research suggests that selling organizations should incorporate CQ training as part of their sales force development programs. The CQ training for salespeople needs to emphasize helping the salespeople to gain in-depth knowledge about cultural differences so that they can develop a deeper insight into the selling expectations of diverse foreign customers. The training can begin in a classroom setting, where cross-cultural selling experts are invited to provide knowledge about things that the salespeople need to be aware of when they interact with customers from various cultures. In order to enhance the effectiveness of the cultural training, experts who are foreigners from various cultures should provide knowledge to the salespeople about appropriate verbal and non-verbal behaviors that are highly valued in their cultures, as well as inappropriate behaviors that the salespeople should avoid. In addition to the general knowledge about cultures, the training should allow the salespeople to apply the knowledge and skills in role-playing activities. For example, the salespeople must demonstrate the appropriate gestures, facial expressions and word choices when interacting with foreign customers in various situations, such as greeting customers, demonstrating the products, handling foreign customers' requests and help them solve problems by solution selling techniques etc. The training should also require the salespeople to obtain feedback from the trainers to make improvements and to ensure that they can correctly apply the knowledge they have learned to provide impressive selling technique to the foreign customers. The salespeople who pass the cultural training should be assigned to an interantional selling task to test their skills and to assess the learning outcomes in a real situation.

The salespeople should be asked to report the level of cross-cultural selling confidence they experience before and after training to evaluate the training effectiveness. Moreover, the sales manager can determine the effectiveness of the training through evaluating the improvement in international selling performance of salespeople, based on both subjective and objective methods. All in all, the CQ training program will facilitate the salespeople to deal effectively with foreign customers and respond to their needs and preferences correctly. Therefore, CQ training should be offered to make the salespeople more effective in cross-cultural selling tasks and to help the organizations a have stronger competitive position in the international markets.

5.5 Future research

The suggestion for future research is that the model in this study can be conducted in another country where salespeople characteristics differ from Thai salespeople such as in European countries. The result can be compared to this research. Moreover, doing comparative studies between two or more regions will make the results more generalizability and the results can be applied to a larger number of population.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abed, M. G., & Haghighi, M. (2009). The effect of selling strategies on sales performance. *Business Strategy Series*, 10(5), 266-282.
- Agrawal, M., Choudhary, H., & Tripati, G. (2010). Enhancing Buddhist tourism in India: an exploratory study *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 2(5), 477-493.
- Ahmed, Z. U., & Krohn, F. B. (1993). Understanding the unique consumer behavior of Japanese tourists. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 1(3), 73-86.
- Alshaibani, E. (2015). Investigating the relationship between cultural intelligence and service quality in hospitality: A cross cultural study (Doctoral dissertation), Buckinghamshire New University
- Andersen, O. (1997a). Internationalization and market entry mode: A review of theories and conceptual frameworks. MIR. *Management International Review*, 2(37), 27-42.
- Andersen, O. (1997b). Internationalization and market entry mode: A review of theories and conceptual frameworks. MIR *Management International Review*, 2(37), 27-42.
- Anderson, E. R. (1996). Personal selling management in new milliennium. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 16(4), 17-30.
- Ang, S., & Inkpen, A. C. (2008). Cultural intelligence and offshore outsourcing success: A framework of firm-level intercultural capability. *Decision Sciences*, 39(3), 337-358.
- Ang, S., & Van Dyne, L. (2008). *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: theory, measurement and applications*. N.Y.: ME Sharpe.
- Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, J. K., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007). Cultural Intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgement and decision making cultural adaptation and task performance. *Management and Organization Review*, 3(2007), 335-371.
- Anh, P. N. T., Dung, N. T., Tram, H. U., & Thuy, P. N. (2016). Antecedents and consequences of adaptive behavior of frontline employees in the health-care service. *Journal of Economics and Development*, 18(1), 38.
- Arndt, A. D., & Karande, K. (2012). Is it better for salespeople to have the highest customer orientation or a strong fit with their group's customer orientation? Findings from automobile dealerships. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 19(3), 353-359.
- Aryanto, R., Fontana, A., & Afiff, A. Z. (2015). Strategic human resource management, innovation capability and performance: An Empirical Study in Indonesia Software Industry. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 211(2015), 874-879.
- Aryanto, R., Fontana, A., & Afiff, A. Z. (2015). Strategic human resource management, innovation capability and performance: An Empirical Study in Indonesia Software Industry Procedia. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 211(2015), 874-879.
- Baker, D. S., & Delpechitre, D. (2016). An Innovative Approach to Teaching Cultural Intelligence in Personal Selling. *Journal for Advancement of Marketing*

- Education, 24(2016).
- Baldauf, A., & Lee, N. (2011). International selling and sales management: Sales force research beyond geographic boundaries. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 31(3), 211-217.
- Bandura, A. (1986). The explanatory and predictive scope of self-efficacy theory. Journal of social and clinical psychology, 4(3), 359-373.
- Banduram, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. . *Psychological review*,, 84(2), 191.
- Barakat, L., Livia, Lorenz, P. M., Ramsey, R. J., & Cretoiu, L. S. (2014). Global managers: An analysis of the impact of cultural intelligence on job satisfaction and performance *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 10(4), 781-800.
- Berry, W. J. (1997). Lead Article, Immigration Acculturation, and Adaptation. *Applied Psychology*, 46(1), 5-68.
- Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Luk, D. M. (2005). Input-based and time-based models of international adjustment: Meta-analytic evidence and theoretical extensions. *Academy of management Journal*, 48(2), 257-281.
- Bollen, K. A. (1987). Total, direct, and indirect effects in structural equation models. Sociological methodology.
- Boorom, M. L., Goolsby, J. R., & Ramsey, R. P. (1998). Relational communication traits and their effect on adaptiveness and sales performance. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26(1), 16-30.
- Brislin, Worthley, R., & Macnab, B. (2006). Cultural intelligence understanding behaviors that serve people's goals. *Group & Organization Management*, 31(1), 40-55.
- Brislin, R. W. (1970). Back-translation for cross-cultural research. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 1(3), 185-216.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2015). *Business research methods*. USA.: Oxford University Press.
- Bucker, J. J., Furrer, O., Poutsma, E., & Buyens, D. (2014). The impact of cultural intelligence on communication effectiveness, job satisfaction and anxiety for Chinese host country managers working for foreign multinationals. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(14), 2068-2087.
- Bukari, E. S., & Jainullabdeen, A. (2015). The impact of missionary selling behaviors towards sales performance on prescription drugs in Tamilnadu. *Journal Impact Factor*, 6(1), 213-225.
- Bulmer, M., Gibbs, J., & Hyman, L. (2006). The use of pre-existing survey questions: implications for data quality.
- Bush, D. V., Rose, M. G., Gilbert, F., & Ingram, N. T. (1994). "Managing culturally diverse buyer seller relationships: The role of intercultural disposition and adaptive selling in developing intercultural communication competence". *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*, 29(4), 391-404.
- Bush, V. D., Rose, G. M., Gilbert, F., & Ingram, T. N. (2001). Managing culturally diverse buyer-seller relationships: the role of intercultural disposition and adaptive selling in developing intercultural communication competence. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 29(4), 391-404.
- Cambell, Davis, L., & Skinner, L. (2006). Rapport management during the exploration

- phase of the salesperson–customer relationship. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 26(4), 359-370.
- Cassel, C., Hackl, P., & Westlund, A. H. (1999). Robustness of partial least-squares method for estimating latent variable quality structures. . *Journal of applied statistics*, 26(4), 435-446.
- Chakrabarty, S., Brown, G., & Widing II, R. E. (2013). Distinguishing between the roles of customer-oriented selling and adaptive selling in managing dysfunctional conflict in buyer–seller relationships. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 33(3), 245-260.
- Chakrabarty, S., Widing, R. E., & Brown, G. (2014). Selling behaviours and sales performance: the moderating and mediating effects of interpersonal mentalizing. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 34(2), 112-122.
- Charoensukmongkol, P. (2015). "Cultural Intelligence of entrepreneurs and international network ties" The case of small and medium manufacturing firms in Thailand. *Management Research Review*, 38(4), 421-436.
- Charoensukmongkol, P. (2016). Cultural intelligence and export performance of small and medium enterprise in Thailand: Mediating roles of organizational capabilities. *International Small Business Journal*, 34(1), 105-122.
- Chen, A. S. Y., Wu, I. H., & Bian, M. D. (2014). International Journal of Cross Cultural Management. The moderating effects of active and agreeable conflict management styles on cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment, 14(3), 270-288.
- Chen, F. F., Sousa, K. H., & West, S. G. (2005). Teacher's corner: Testing measurement invariance of second-order factor models. *Structural equation modeling*, 12(3), 471-472.
- Chin, W. W. (1998). The partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling. *Modern methods for business research*, 295(2).
- Choi, E. K., & Joung, H. W. (2017). Employee job satisfaction and customer-oriented behavior: A study of frontline employees in the foodservice industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 16(3), 235-251.
- Churchill, J. G. A., Ford, N. M., S.W., H., & C., W. J. O. (1985). The determinants of salesperson performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 22(May 1985), 103-118.
- Collins, K. S., Duyar, I., & Pearson, C. L. (2016). Does cultural intelligence matter? Effects of principal and teacher cultural intelligence on Latino student achievement. *Journal for Multicultural Education*, 10(4), 465-488.
- Cook, A. R., & Herche, J. (1992). "Assessment centers; and untapped resource for global salesforce management" *Journal of Selling and Sales Management*, 12(3), 31-38.
- Cross, M. E., Brashear, T. G., Rigdon, E. E., & Bellenger, D. N. (2007). Customer orientation and salesperson performance. *European journal of Marketing*, 41(7/8), 821-835.
- Crown, A. K. (2008). "What Leads to Cultural Intelligence?" (5 ed. Vol. 51): Business Horizons
- Daniel, J. D., & Radebaugh, L. H. (1995). International Business Environments.
- De Mooiji, M. (2011). Cross-cultural consumer behavior: A review of research findings. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 22(3-4), 181-192.

- Delpechitre, D. (2013). Review and assessment of past empathy scales to measure salesperson's empathy. *Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, 13(2013), 1.
- Delpechitre, D., & Baker.D.S. (2017). Cross-Cultural Selling: Examining the Importance of Cultural Intelligence in Sales Education *Journal of Marketing Education*, 39(2), 94-108.
- Donthu, N., & Yoo, B. (1998). Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures: *Journal of service research*, *1*(2), 178-186.
- Druback, D. A. (2008). The purpose and neurobiology of theory of mind functions. *Journal of religion and health*, 47(3), 354-365.
- Duff, A. J., Tahbaz, A., & Chan, C. (2012). The interactive effect of cultural intelligence and openness on task performance. *Research and Practice in Human Resource Management*, 20(1), 1-12.
- Earley, P. C. (2002). Redefining Interactions Across Cultures and Organizations: Moving Forward with Cultural Intelligence. *Research in Organization Behavior*, 24(2), 271-299.
- Earley, P. C. (2002). "Redefining interactions across cultures and organizations: Moving forward with cultural intelligence. *Research in Organization Behavior*, 24(2002), 271-299.
- Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural Intelligence, Individual Interactions Across Culture*: Stanford University Press.
- Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence; Individual interactions across cultures*: Stanford University Press.
- Earley, P. C., Ang, S., & Tan, J. S. (2006). *CQ: Developing cultural intelligence at work*: Stanford University Press.
- Earley, P. C., & Masanowski, E. (2004). Research edge: Towards culture intelligence: turning cultural differences into a workplace advantage. *The academy of management executives*, 18(3), 151-157.
- Earley, P. C., Murnieks, C., & Mosakowski, E. (2007). *Cultural intelligence and the global mindset*. *In The global mindset* Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Earley, P. C., & Peterson, R. S. (2004). The elusive cultural chameleon: Cultural intelligence as a new approach to intercultural training for the global manager. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 3(1), 100-115.
- Earley, P. C., & Peterson, R. S. (2004). "The Elusive Cultural Chameleon: Cultural Intelligence as a New Approach to Intercultural Training for the Global Manager". *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 3(1), 100-115.
- Efron, B., Rogosa, D., & Tibshira i, R. (2004). Resampling methods of estimation.
- Elenkov, S. D., & Ivan, M., Manev. (2009). Senior expatriate leadership's effects on innovation and the role of cultural intelligence. *Journal of World Business*, 44(4), 357-369.
- Erez, M., & Earley, P. C. (1993). "Nationality and work role interactions: A cultural contrast of Israeli and US entrepreneurs' versus managers' needs" *Journal of Business Venturing*, 8(6), 499-512.
- Evans, R. J., & Laksin, L. R. (1994). The relationship marketing process: A conceptualization and application. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 23(5), 439-452.
- Fakhreidin, H. (2011). The effect of cultural intelligence on employee performance in

- international hospitality industries: A case from the hotel sector in Egypt International Journal of Business and Public Administration, 8(2), 1-19.
- Farra, D. E., & Glauber, R. R. (1967). Multicollinearity in regression analysis: the problem revisited.
- Feingold, A. (1994). Gender differences in personality: a meta-analysis. *Psychological bulletin*, 3(116), 429.
- Felver, C. J., Doerner, E., Jones, J., Kaye, C. N., & Merrell, W. K. (2013). MINDFULNESS IN SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY: APPLICATIONS FOR INTERVENTION AND PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE. *Psychology in the Schools*, 50(6), 531-547.
- Flavell, J. H., Flavell, E. R., & Green, F. L. (1987). Young children's knowledge about the apparent-real and pretend-real distinctions. *Developmental Psychology*, 23(6), 816.
- Fornell, & Larcker. (1981). Evaluation structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Fornell, C., & Bookstein. (1982). Two structural equation models: LISREL and PLS applied to consumer exit-voice theory. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 440-452.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models: LISREL and PLS applied to consumer exit-voice theory. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 4(12), 39-50.
- Franke, G. R., & Park, J.-E. (2006). Salesperson adaptive selling behavior and customer orientation: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 43(4), 693-702.
- Freedman. (2009). Statistical models: Theory and practice (revised ed. ed., pp. 86): Cambridge U Press.
- Frost, D., Goode, S., & Hart, D. (2010). Individualist and collectivist factors affecting online repurchase intentions *Internet Research*, 20(1), 6-28.
- Fu, F. Q., Richards, K. A., Hughes, D. E., & Jones, E. (2010). Motivating salespeople to sell new products: the relative influence of attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy. *Journal of Marketing*, 74(6), 61-76.
- Furrer, O., Liu, B. C., & Sudharshan, D. (2000). The relationships between culture and service quality perceptions basis for cross-cultural market segmentation and resource allocation. *Journal of service research*, 2(4), 355-371.
- Gardner, H. (1995). Multiple Intelligences as a Catalyst. *The English Journal*, 84(8), 16-18
- Groves, K. S., & Feyerherm, A. E. (2011). 'Leader Cultural Intelligence in Context: Testing the Moderating Effects of Team Cultural Diversity on Leader and Team Performance'. Group & Organization Management, 36(14), 535-566.
- Hair, J. F. (2009). Multivariate data analysis.
- Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a silver bullet. Journal of Marketing theory and Practice, 19(2), 139-152.
- Hair, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Mena, J. A. (2012). An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modeling in marketing research. Journal of the academy of marketing science, 40(3), 414-433.
- Hair, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Mena, J. A. (2012). An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modeling in marketing research. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40(3), 414-433.
- Hammer, M. R., Gudykunst, B. W., & Wiseman, R. L. (1979). Dimensions of

- intercultural effectiveness: An exploratory study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 2(4), 382-393.
- Hansen, D. J., Singh, T., Weibaker, C. D., & Guesalaga, R. (2013). "Cultural Intelligence in Cross Cultural Selling: Propositions and Directions for Future Research. *Journal of Pesonal Selling and Sales Management*, 31(3), 243-254.
- Hansen, J. D., Singh, T., Weibaker, C. D., & Guesalaga, R. (2011). Cultural intelligence in cross-cultural selling: propositions and directions for future research. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 31(3), 243-254.
- Harrison, J. K., & Brower, H. H. (2011). The Impact of Cultural Intelligence and Psychological Hardiness on Homesickness among Study Abroad Students. Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary *Journal of Study Abroad*, 21(2011), 41-62.
- Harrison, J. K., & Brower, H. H. (2011). The impact of cultural intelligence and psychological hardiness on homesickness amoung study abroad students. The Interdisciplinary. *Journal of Study Abroad*, 21(2011), 41-62.
- Hayes, A. F., & Preacher, K. J. (2010). Quantifying and testing indirect effects in simple mediation models when the constituent paths are nonlinear. *Multivariate behavioral research*, 45(4), 627-600.
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sinkovics, R. R. (2009). The use of partial least squares path modeling in international marketing. *Advanes in international marketing*, 20(1), 277-319.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture an organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 10(4), 15-41.
- Hofstede, G. (1991). Cultures and organizations. Intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival. Software of the mind. London: Mc Iraw-Hill.
- Homburg, C., Muller, M., & Klarmann, M. (2011). Homburg, Christian, Michael Müller, and Martin Klarmann. "When should the customer really be king? On the optimum level of salesperson customer orientation in sales encounters. *Journal of Marketing*, 75(2), 55-74.
- Hosseini, M. H., & Allahyari, M. (2016). The Relationship between Communication Skills and Customer Satisfaction Through the Mediating Role of Cultural Intelligence in Employees of Eghtesadnovin's Bank. *International Business Management*, 10 (30), 6745-6750.
- Huff, C. K., Song, P., & Gresh, B. E. (2014). Cultural intelligence personality and cross
 cultural adjustment: A study of expatriates in Japan. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 38(2014), 151-157.
- Hutt, M. D., & Speh, T. W. (1998). Business marketing education: A distinctive role in the undergraduate curriculum. *Journal of Business-to-Business Marketing*, 5(1-2), 103-126.
- Imai, L., & Gelfand, J. M. (2010). The culturally intelligent negotiator: The impact of cultural intelligence (CQ) on negotiation sequences and outcomes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 112(2), 83-98.
- Ingram, T. N. (2004). Future themes in sales and sales management: complexity, collaboration, and accountability. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 12(4), 18-28.
- Isfahani, A. N., & Nobakht, M. (2013). Impact of spiritual intelligence on the staff happiness (case study: Golpayegan Petrochemical Company. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 3(7), 253.

- Iwata, Y. (1999). Toward bridging the communication gap: Cross-cultural variation in Japanese-American business communication (Ph.D. Doctoral Dissertation), University of Mississippi.
- Jacob, N. (2005). Cross-cultural investigations: emerging concepts. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 18(5), 514-528.
- Jaramillo, F., & Grisaffe, D. B. (2009). Does customer orientation impact objective sales performance? Insights from a longitudinal model in direct selling. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 29(2), 167-178.
- Jeevan, J., & Sumeet, K. (2015). Assessing the cultural intelligence and task performance equation. *Cross Cultural Management*, 22(2), 236-258.
- Johnson, J., & Tellis, J. G. (2008). Drivers of Success for Market Entry into China and India. *Journal of Marketing*, 72(3), 1-13.
- Jones, J., & Alexander, R. (2000). *Communication Skills in English for Business Purposes* (New International Business English Updated Edition Teacher's Book ed. Vol. 3): Cambridge University Press.
- Jyoti, J., & Kour, S. (2015). Assessing the cultural intelligence and task performance equation: Mediating role of cultural adjustment. *Cross Cultural Management*, 22(2), 236-258.
- Kanten, P. (2014). The effect of cultural intelligence on career competencies and customer-oriented service behaviors *Instanbul University Journal of th School of Business*, 43(1), 100.
- Kara, A., Andalleb, S. S., Tura, M., & Cabuk, S. (2013). An examination of the effects of adaptive selling behavior and customer orientation on performance of pharmaceutical salespeople in an emerging market. *Journal of Medical Marketing: Device, Diagnostic and Pharmaceutical Marketing, 13*(2), 102-114.
- Kaufman, S. R., & Hwang, A. (2015). Cultural intelligence and mindfulness in two French banks operating in the US environment. *Management Research Review*, 38(9), 950-951.
- Kaynak, E., Kara, A. C. S., & Laukkanen, T. (2016). Role of adaptive selling and customer orientation on salesperson performance. *Journal of Transnational Management*, 21(2), 62-83.
- Ketkar, S., Kock, N., Parente, R., & Verville, J. (2012). The impact of individualism on buyer–supplier relationship norms, trust and market performance: An analysis of data from Brazil and the USA. *International Business Review*, 21(5), 782-793.
- Keung, E. K. (2011). What factors of cultural intelligence predict transformational leadership: A study of international school leaders. (Ph.D. Doctoral Dissertation), Liberty University.
- Khastar, H., Kalhorian, R., Khalouei, A. G., & Maleki, M. (2011). Levels of Analysis and Hofstede's Theory of Cultural Differences: The Place of Ethnic Culture in Organizations Paper presented at the International Conference on Financial Management and Economics IPEDR.
- Kim, T., & Mazumdar, T. (2016). *Influences of Product Concept Demonstrations in Trade Shows* (A. M. Association Ed.).
- Kitchens, L. (1998). *Exploring Statistics* (2nd Edition ed.). Pacific Grove: CA: Duxberry Express.
- Kline, R. B. (2004). Beyond significance testingL reforming data analysis methods in behavioral research (1st ed.). Washington, DC: American Psychological

- Association.
- Kline, R. B. (2015). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*: Guilford publications.
- Kock, N. (2015). WarpPLS 5.0 User Manual. 2015. Laredo, TX:: ScriptWarp Systems.
- Kock, N., & Lynn, G. (2012). Lateral collinerity and misleading results in variance-based SEM: An illustration and recommendations. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems*, 13(7).
- Koo Moon, H., Kwon Choi, B., & Shik Jung, J. (2012). Previous international experience, cross-cultural training, and expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment: Effects of cultural intelligence and goal orientation. . *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 23(3), 285-330.
- Kotur, B. R., & Anbazhagan, S. (2014). The influence of age and gender on the leadership styles. *Journal of Business and Management*, 16(1), 30-36.
- Lecky, P. (1945). Self consistency; a theory of personality.
- Lee, H. E. (2015). Does a server's attentiveness matter? Understandin intercultural service encounters in restaurants. *INternational Journal of Hospitality Management*, 50(2015), 134-144.
- Lee, L. Y., & Sukoco, B. M. (2010). The effects of cultural intelligence on expatriate performance: The moderating effects of international experience. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(7), 963-981.
- Liu, C. T., Guo, Y. M., & Lee, C. H. (2011). The effects of relationship quality and switching barriers on customer loyalty. *International Journal of Information Management*, 31(1), 71-79.
- Livermore, D. (2011). Master the One Skill You Can't Do Without in Today's Global Economy
- Livermore, D. (2017). My interview with Lynnette Collins, Diversity Leader at Amway.
- Lu, L. T. (2012). Etic or emic? Measuring culture in international business research. *International Business Research*, 5(5), 109.
- Luu, T., & Rowley, C. (2016). The relationship between cultural intelligence and ideals: Trust as a mediator and HR localization as a moderator. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 24(5), 908-931.
- Macnab, B. R. (2012). An Experiential Approach to Cultural Intelligence Education. Journal of Management Education, 36(1), 66-94.
- Magnussun, P., Westjohn, S. A., Semenov, A. V., Randrianasolo, A. A., & Zdravkovic, S. (2013). The Role of Cultural Intelligence in Marketing Adaptation and Export Performance. *Journal of International Marketing Journal* ©2013, American Marketing Association, 21(4), 44-61.
- Malek, A., Martin, & Budhwar, P. (2013). "Cultural intelligence as a predictor of expatriate adjustment and performance in Malaysia". *Journal of World Business*, 48(2013), 222-231.
- Malek, M. A., & Budhwar, P. (2013). Cultural intelligence as a predictor of expatriate adjustment and performance in Malaysia. *Journal of world business*, 48(2), 222-231.
- Mallalieu, L., & Nakmoto, K. (2006). Understanding the role of consumer motivation and salesperson behavior in inducing positive cognitive and emotional responses during a sales encounter. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 16(3), 183-198.

- Marks, R., Vorchies, W. D., & Badovick, J. G. (1996). "Methods in Sales Research: A Psychometice Evaluation of the ADAPTS Scale: A Critique and Rocommendations. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 16(4), 53-65.
- McIntyre, R. P., Claxton, R. P., Anselmi, K., & Wheatley, E. W. (2000). Cognitive style as an antecedent to adaptiveness, customer orientation, and self-perceived selling performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 15(2), 179-196.
- Mehembe, B., & Engelbrech, A. S. (2014). A preliminary study to assess the construct validity of a cultural intelligence measure on a South African sample. SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 12(1), 1-8.
- Mehrabi, J., Noorbakhash, K., Shoja, M., & Karim, M. (2012). Impact of Customer Orientation and Sales Orientation on Sales' Performance in International Market of Bilehsavar County. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 1(3), 17-26.
- Moghareh, A. G., Ghazaleh, & Haghighi, M. (2009). The effect of selling strategies on sales performance. *Business Strategy Series*, 10(5), 266-282.
- Moghareh, A. G., & Haghighi, M. (2009). The effect of selling strategies on sales performance *Business Strategy Series*, 10(5), 266-282.
- Moncrief, C. W. (1986). Selling Activity and Sales Position Taxonomies for Industrial Salesforces. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 23(3), 261-270.
- Morgan, W. F., & Stoltman, J. J. (1990). "Adaptive selling insights from social cognition. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 10(4), 43-54.
- Morris, W. M., Leung, K., Ames, D., & Lickel, B. (1999). Views from Inside and Outside: Integrating Emic and Etic Insights about Culture and Justice Judgment *ACAD MANAGE REV*, 24(4), 781-796.
- Munshi, M. M., & Hanji, S. V. (2015). Exploring th effect of sales personnel's demographics on theor work performance in the organize retail stores. *Asia Pacific Journal of Research*, 1(34), 113-121.
- Murdock, G. P. (1945). The common denominator of cultures. InR. Linton (Ed.) The science of man in the world crisis. New Youk: Columbia University Press.
- Ng, Y. K., Van Dyne, L., & Ang, S. (2009). Developing global leaders: The role of international experience and cultural intelligence *Advance in leadership*, 5(2009), 225-250.
- Nunes, I. M., Felix, B., & Prates, L. A. (2017). Cultural intelligence, cross-cultural adaptation and expatriate performance: a study with expatriates living in Brazil. *Human Resources and Organization*, 52(3), 219-232.
- Nunnally, J. (1978). Psychometric methods. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- O'Hara, B. S., Boles, J. S., & Johnson, M. W. (1991). The influence of personal variables on salesperson selling orientation *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 11(1), 61-67.
- Palthe, J. (2004). The relative importance of antecedents to cross-cultural adjustment: Implications for managing a global workforce. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 28(1), 37-59.
- Palumbo, F., & Herbig, P. A. (2002). Trade shows and fairs: An important part of the international promotion mix. *Journal of Promotion Management*, 8(1), 93-108.
- Parker, R. S., Haytko, D. L., & Hermans, C. M. (2009). Individualism and collectivism: Reconsidering old assumptions. *Journal of International Business Research*,

- 8(1), 127.
- Pascale, R. T. (1978). Communication and decision making across cultures: Japanese and American comparisons. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 91-110.
- Pelham, A. M., & Kravitz, P. (2008). An exploratory study of the influence of sales training content and salesperson evaluation on salesperson adaptive selling, customer orientation, listening, and consulting behaviors. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 16(5), 413-435.
- Pelin, K. (2014). The effect of cultural intelligence on career competencies and customer-oriented service behaviors. *Istanbul University Journal of the School of Business Administration*, 43(1), 100-119.
- Periatt, J. A., LeMay, S. A., & Chakrabarty, S. (2004). The selling orientation-customer orientation (SOCO) scale: Cross-validation of the revised version. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 24(1), 49-54.
- Pettijohn, C. E., Pettijohn, L. S., & Taylor, A. J. (2002). The influence of salesperson skill, motivation, and training on the practice of customer-oriented selling. *Psychology & Marketing*, 19(9), 743-757.
- Presbitero, A. (2016). "Culture shock and reverse culture shock; The moderating role of cultural intelligence in international students' adaptation. *Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 53(2016), 28-38.
- Putranto, N. A. R., & Ghazali, A. (2013). The effect of cultural intelligence to knowledge sharing behavior in university students. *School of Business and Management ITB*, 5(2013), 1-9.
- Racicot, M. B., & Ferrry, L. D. (2016). The impact of motivaional and metacognitive cultural intelligence on the study abroad experience. *Journal of Educational Issues*, 2(1), 115-129.
- Ramalu, S. S., Rose, R. C., Uli, J., & Kumar, N. (2012). Cultural intelligence and expatriate performance in global assignment: The mediating role of adjustment. *International Journal of Business and Society*, 13(1), 19.
- Ramulu, S. S., & Rose, R. C. (2010). Doing business in global arena: An examination of the relationship between cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, 15(1), 79-97.
- Rentz, J. O., David, S. C., Armen, T., Dabholka, P. A., & Ladd, R. T. (2002). A measure of selling skill: scale development and validation. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 22(1), 13-21.
- Rice, W. R. (1989). Analyzing tables of statistical tests *Evolution*, 43(1), 223-225.
- Rockstuhl, T., & Ng, Y., Kok. (2011). "The effects of cultural intelligence on interpersonal trust in multicultural teams". Handbook of cultural intelligence: Theory, measurement, and applications.
- Rohmetra, N., & Arora, P. (2013). *Navigating Cultural Diversity through Cultural Intelligence: A Case of Hospitality Industry in India*. Paper presented at the 3rd Biennial Conference of the Indian Academy of Management (IAM), 2013 India.
- Romi, S. M., Djajadikerta, H., & Ahmed, M. A. N. (2015). PLS-SEM Approach to Second-order Factor of Deviant Behaviour: Constructing Perceived Behavioural Control *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 28(2015), 249-253.
- Romon, S., & Iacobucci, D. (2010). Antecedents and consequences of adaptive selling confidence and behavior: a dyadic analysis of salespeople and their customers. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 38(3), 363-382.

- Sahin, F., & Gurbuz, S. (2017). Entrepreneurial orientation and international performance: The moderating role of cultural intelligence. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 1-25. doi:10.1017/jmo.2017.52, 52(2017), 1-25.
- Sahin, F., Gurbuz, S., & Koksal, O. (2014). Cultural intelligence (CQ) in action: The effects of personality and international assignment on the development of CQ. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 39(2014), 152-163.
- Saidimorady, N., Salavati, A., & Fatehiepore, M. (2013). The Study of Relationship between Culture Intelligence and Customer Oriented in Commercial Banks in Iran (Sanandaj City) *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research*, 3(8), 116-124.
- Saks, M. (2016). Patterns of developing cultural intelligence of the prime ministers of newly independent Estonia. (Ph.D. Doctoral Dissertation), University of Tarty.
- Samson, D., & Apperly, I. A. (2010). Why are there limits on theory of mind use? Evidence from adults' ability to follow instructions from an ignorant speaker. *Journal of Experimental Psychology* 63(6), 143.
- Saxe, R., & Weitz, B. A. (1982). The SOCO scale: A measure of the customer orientation of salespeople. *Journal of marketing research*, 19(3), 343-351.
- Schreuders-van den Bergh, R., & Du Plessis, Y. (2016). Exploring the role of motivational cultural intelligence in SIE women's adjustment. *Journal of Global Mobility*, 4(2), 131-148.
- Sharma, A. (2001). Consumer decision-making, salespeople's adaptive selling and retail performance. *Journal of Business Research*, 54(2), 125-129.
- Siminitiras, A. C., Ifie, K., Watkings, A., & Georgakas, K. (2013). Antecedents of adaptive selling among retail salespeople: A multilevel analysis. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 20(4), 419-428.
- Singh, R., & Das, G. (2013). The impact of job satisfaction, adaptive selling behaviors and customer orientation on salesperson's performance: exploring the moderating role of selling experience. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 28(7), 554-564.
- Sood, J., & Nasu, Y. (1995). Religiosity and nationality: An exploratory study of their effect on consumer behavior in Japan and the United States. *Journal of Business Research*, 34(1), 1-9.
- Spiro, R. L., & Weitz, B. A. (1990). Adaptive selling: Conceptualization, measurement, and nomological validity. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 27(1), 61-69.
- Spiro, R. L., & Weitz, B. A. (1990). Adaptive selling: Conceptualization, measurement, and nomological validity. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 27(1), 61-69.
- Spirtes, P., Glymour, C., Scheines, R., & Causation, P. (1993). Lecture Notes in Statistics.
- Sternberg, R. J., & Detterman, D. K. (1986). What is intelligence?: Contemporary viewpoints on its nature and definition: Praeger Pub Text.
- Stockert, J. P. (2015). Expatriate Adjustment of US Military on Foreign Assignment: The Role of Personality and Cultural Intelligence in Adjustment. (Ph.D. Doctoral Dissertation), Minnesota State University.
- Suan, C. L., & Narsurdin, M. A. (2014). An empirical investigation into the influence of human resource management practices on work engagement: the case of customer-contact employees in Malaysia. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 8(3), 345-360.

- Subramaniam, A., Ramalu, L., Wei, C. C., & Rose, R. C. (2011). The effects of cultural intelligence on cross-cultural adjustment and job performance amongst expatriates in Malaysia. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(9), 114-126.
- Subraniam, A., Ramula, I., Wei, C. C., & Rose, R. C. (2011). The effects of cultural intelligence on cross-cultural adjustment and job performance amongst expatriates in Malaysia. *Journal of International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(9), 59-71.
- Sujan, H., Sujan, M., & Bettman, R., James. (1988). Knowledge Strucutre Differeces Between More Effective and Less Effective Salespeople. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 25(1), 81-86.
- Suthatorn, P., & Charoennsukmongkol, P. (2018). Cultural intelligence and airline cabin crews members' anxiety: The mediating roles of intercultural communication competence and service attentiveness. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, n/a(n/a), 1-22.
- Templer, J. K., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2006). Motivational cultural intelligence, realistic job preview, realistic living conditions preview, and cross-cultural adjustment. *Group & Organization Management*, 31(1), 154-173.
- Tevan, J. J., & Winters, L. J. (2007). Pharmaceutical representatives' social influence behaviors and communication orientations: Relationships with adaptive selling and sales performace. *Human Communication*, 10(2007), 465-486.
- Thomas, C. D. (2006). Domain and Development of Cultural Intelligence the Importance of Mindfulness. *Group and Organization Management*, 31(1), 78-99.
- Thomas, C. D., & Inkson, K. (2003). *People skills for global business: Cultural intelligence*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koenler.
- Thomas, C. D., & Inkson, K. (2004). *Cultivating your cultural intelligence. Security Management* (Vol. 48). San Francisco, CA.
- Thomas, C. D., Stahl, G., Ravlin, E. C., Poelmans, S., Pekerti, A., Manznevski, M., . . . Au, K. (2008). Cultural Intelligence Domain and Assessment. *International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management*, 8(2), 123-143.
- Thomas, R. W., Soutar, G. N., & Ryan, M. M. (2001). The selling orientation-customer orientation (SOCO) scale: A proposed short form. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 21(1), 63-69.
- Thompson, F. M., Newman, A., & Liu, M. (2014). The moderating effect of individual level collectivist values on brand loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, 67(11), 2437-2446.
- Thurau, H. T., Gwinner, K. P., & Gremirer, D. D. (2002). Understanding relationship marketing outcomes an integration of relational benefits and relationship quality. *Journal of service research*, 4(3), 230-247.
- Triandis, H. C. (2006). Cultural intelligence in organizations. *Group & Organization Management*, 31(1), 20-26.
- Tuan, L. T. (2015). Entrepreneurial orientation and competitive intelligence: Cultural intelligence as a moderator. *Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship*, 17(2), 212-228.
- Tuan, L. T., & Rowley, C. (2016). The relationship between cultural intelligence and ideals Trust as a mediator and HR localization as a moderator. *International*

- Journal of Organization Analysis, 24(5), 908-931.
- Tung, R. L. (1998). American expatriates abroad: From neophytes to cosmopolitans. *Journal of World Business*, 33(2), 125-144.
- Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Koh, C. (2008). Development and validation of the CQS. Handbook of cultural intelligence. *Advances in international management*, 16-40.
- Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Livermore, D. (2010). Cultural intelligence: A pathway for leading in a rapidly globalizing world. *Leading across differences*, 131-138.
- Van Dynn, L., Ang, S., Ng, K. Y., Rockstuhl, T., Ling, T. M., & Koh, C. (2012). "Subdimensions of the four factor model of cultural intelligence: Expanding the conceptualization and measurement of cultural intelligence". *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 6(4), 295-313.
- Varghese, J., Manoj, E., & KP, A. (2015). "Perceived Organizational Influences on Customer Orientation and Sales Performance-A Financial Services Industry Perspective" *Journal of Marketing and Management*, 6(2), 11-21.
- Verbek, W., Bietz, B., & Verwall, E. (2011). Drivers of sales performance: a contemporary meta-analysis. Have salespeople become knowledge brokers? *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 39(3), 407-428.
- Wagner, C. H. (1982). Simpson's paradox in real life. . *The American Statistician*, 36(1), 46-48
- Ward, C., Wilson, J., & Fischer, R. (2011). Assessing the predictive validity of cultural intelligence over time. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 5(12), 138-142.
- Weber, R., & Crocker, J. (1983). Cognitive processes in the revision of stereotypic beliefs. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 45(5), 961.
- Weitz, B. A. (1978). Relationship between salesperson performance and understanding of customer decision making. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 1(11), 501-516.
- Weitz, B. A., Sujan, H., & Sujan, M. (1986). "Knowledge, motivation, and adaptive behavior: A framework for improving selling effectiveness" *The Journal of Marketing*, *I*(10), 174-191.
- Wu, P. C., & Ang, S. H. (2011). The impact of expatriate supporting practices and cultural intelligence on cross-cultural adjustment and performance of expatriates in Singapore. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(13), 2683-2702.
- Yakasai, M., & M., J. (2015). The impact of big five personality traits on salespeople's performance: Exploring the moderating role of culture. *Journal of Business and Management Review*, 4.5(2015), 11.
- Yoo, B. (2009). Cross-national invariance of the effect of personal collectivistic orientation on brand loyalty and equity: The United States versus South Korean consumers. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 21(1), 41-57.
- Yordanova, K. G. (2011). Managing with cultural intelligence. The new secret to multicultural team success. (Ph.D. Doctoral Dissertation), Aarhus University, Denmark.
- Zhang, Y. (2012). Expatriate Development for Cross-Cultural Adjustment: Effects of Cultural Distance and Cultural Intelligence. *Human resource Development Review*, 12(2), 177-199.
- Zoltners, A. A., Sinha, P., & Lorimer, S. E. (2008). Sales force effectiveness: A framework for researchers and practitioners. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales*

Management, 28(2), 115-131.



APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire's Cover Page

Cover letter

Dear Participant:

I would like to request you to participate in a research study entitled "Contribution of Cultural Intelligence to Adaptive Selling Behavior, Customer-Oriented Selling Behavior and Cross-Cultural Sales Performance of Thai Salespeople". I am a Ph.D. in Management candidate at International College of National Institute of Development Administration) ICO NIDA(in Bangkok, Thailand .The objective is to provide valuable information to the international business organizations and specially sales department manager in order to better understand about how cultural intelligence) CQ(facilitates their salespeople in performing cross-cultural selling tasks and influence on their cross-cultural sales performance .Your participation is entirely voluntarily .All the information will remain confidential .For this purpose, each completed questionnaire will be coded with a number and cumulative data will be only used for the analysis and interpretation, so that the individual responses will not be identified .

I look forward to your participation and would like to thank you for your valuable time and support for my research study .

Best Regards, Arti Pandey

Appendix 2: Questionnaire (Thai)



แบบสอบถาม

การตอบแบบสอบถามจะใช้เวลาประมาณ นาที คำถามต่าง 10ๆเป็นการแสดงความคิดเห็นของท่าน ไม่มีคำตอบที่ถูกหรือผิด ข้อมูล นี้

ถูกใช้เพื่อการศึกษา ที่ 1 ข้อมูลส่วนตัว		ป็นความลับ ไม่มีการระ 80	ะบุผู้ตอบ แ	เละข้อมูลจะถูกใช้เท็	พื้อการเก็บรวบรวม	มข้อมูลการวิจัย
1.1 อายุ						
1.2 เพศ	🗌 ชาย		่ 🗆 หญิง			
1.3 ระดับกา	รศึกษา	🗆 ประกาศนียบัตร	วิชาชีพ	🗆 ปริญญาตรี	🗆 ปริญญาโท	🗆 ปริญญาเอก
1.4 สถานภ	าพ	🗆 สมรส		่ โสค		
1.5 ประสบก	าร์ณการศึกษ	าในประเทศ อินเดียญี่ปุ่า	ม/ เวียดนา	ม/		
่	าย	🗌 เป็ หรือ น้อยกว่า		ประมาณ 2 ปี		
🗆 ประ	มาณ 3 ปี	🗌 ประมาณ 4 ปี	B	ภากกว่า 4 ปี		
1.6 ประสบเ	การ์ณการทำง	านที่มีมาก่อนงานขายใน	ประเทศ ฮิ	นเดียญี่ปุ่น/ เวียดน	าม /	
🗆 ไม่เค	าย	🗌 เป็ หรือ น้อยกว่า		ประมาณ 2 ปี		
🗆 ประ	มาณ 3 ปี	🗌 ประมาณ 4 ปี	$)_{\Lambda}$	มากกว่า 4 ปี		
1.7 ประสบก	าร์ณการขายใ	นประเทศ อินเดียญี่ปุ่น/	เวียดนาม	/ครื่	r F	
1.8 คุณต้องร์	มีล่ามแปลภาษ	าในการขายที่ประเทศ อิ	นเดีย ญี่ปุ่	น/ เวียดนาม หรือไม	J/	
่ ให่	่ ไม่"	ช่				
1.9 คุณรู้สึ	กว่าคน อินเดีย	บญี่ปุ่น/ เวียดนาม /มีควา	มต่างหรือ	คล้ายกับคนไทยมา	กน้อยเพียงใดในด้	านต่อไปนี้
ê	กักษณะน <mark>ิสั</mark> ย	ต่างกับคนไทย	มาก (5)	(4) (3) (2) (2)	l) เหมือนกับไท	ยมาก
Ĉ	เลีการดำเนิน	ชีวิต ต่างกับคนไทย	มาก (5)	(4) (3) (2) (3	l) เหมือนกับไท	ยมาก
g	ปแบบการสี่	อสาร ต่างกับคนไทย	มาก (5)	(4) (3) (2) (3	l) เหมือนกับไท	ยมาก
ç	์ฒนธรรมโด	ยรวม ต่างกับคนไทย	เมาก (5)	(4) (3) (2) (1)	1) เหมือนกับไท	ยมาก

<u>ส่วนที่ 2</u> <u>:</u>

กรุณาเลือกตัวเลขในแต่ละข้อความที่แสดงระดับความเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วย เกี่ยวกับคุณลักษณะดังกล่าวของตัวท่าน	ไม่	ใม่ เห็น ด้วย มาก (2)	เห็นด้วย ในระดับ ปาน กลาง (3)	เห็น ด้วย มาก (4)	เห็น ด้วย อย่าง ยิ่ง (5)
ฉันรู้จักระบบกฎหมายและเศรษฐกิจของประเทศอื่นๆเป็นอย่างคื					
ฉันรู้จักหลักภาษา คำศัพท์และ ไวยากรณ์ของภาษาต่างประเทศเป็นอย่างดี					
ฉันรู้จักค่านิยมทางวัฒนธรรมและความเชื่อทางศาสนาของประเทศต่างๆเป็นอย่างดี					
ฉันมีความรู้เกี่ยวกับวัฒนธรรมประเพณีการแต่งงานของชาติอื่นๆเป็นอย่างดี	7		111		
ฉันมีความรู้เกี่ยวกับศิลปะหัตถกรรมของประเทศต่างๆเป็นอย่างคื	Á				
ภายใต้สถานการณ์เดียวกันฉันรู้ว่าในบางวัฒนธรรมฉันควรแสดงลักษณะท่าทาง แบบหนึ่ง และแสดงออกต่างกันในอีกวัฒนธรรมหนึ่ง		2		(3)	
เมื่อฉันพูดคุยกับชาวต่างชาติฉันตระหนักถึงความรู้ทางวัฒนธรรมของฉันว่ารู้จริง หรือไม่	9		//%	3/	
เมื่อฉันพูคกุยกับชาวต่างชาติฉันไม่ยึดติดกับความรู้ทางวัฒนธรรมที่ฉันเคยรู้แต่ จะเปิดใจเรียนรู้วัฒนธรรมใหม่ในขณะที่พูดกุยกับพวกเขาเหล่านั้น	7	/,		//	
ฉันตระหนักถึงความรู้ทางวัฒนธรรมที่ฉันมีเวลาฉันใช้ความรู้นั้นพูดคุยกับ ชาวต่างชาติ		0			
ฉันมักตรวจสอบความรู้ทางวัฒนธรรมของฉันว่ามีความถูกต้องหรือไม่ในขณะที่ พูคลุยกับชาวต่างชาติ					
ฉันรู้สึกดีเวลาที่ได้พูดคุยกับชาวต่างชาติ					
ฉันมั่นใจว่าสามารถเข้าสังคมกับชาวต่างชาติจากวัฒนธรรมที่ฉันไม่คุ้นเคย					
ฉันมั่นใจว่าสามารถจัดการกับความกดดันในการปรับตัวให้เข้ากับวัฒนธรรม					
ต่างชาติ					
ที่ฉัน ไม่กุ้นเลย ได้ดี					
ฉันรู้สึกชอบหากได้มีโอกาสไปอยู่ในวัฒนธรรมต่างชาติที่ไม่กุ้นเคย					

ฉันมั่นใจว่าสามารถ shopping ด้วยตัวเองที่ต่างประเทศโดยไม่ต้องพึ่งใคร			
ฉันสามารถเปลี่ยนสำเนียงและน้ำเสียงในการพูคเมื่อต้องติคต่อสื่อสารกับ			
ชาวต่างชาติ			
เวลาพูคคุยกับชาวต่างชาติฉันรู้ว่าเวลาใหนควรพูดและเวลาใหนควรเงียบเพื่อให้			
เหมาะกับ			
วัฒนธรรมต่างชาติ			
ฉันปรับเปลี่ยนจังหวะความช้าเร็วในการพูดให้เหมาะกับสไตล์การพูดของคน			
ต่างชาติ			
เมื่อฉันต้องพูดกุยกับพวกเขา			
เวลาพูดคุยกับชาวต่างชาติฉันสามารถปรับเปลี่ยนลักษณะท่าทางให้เข้ากับ		1	
วัฒนธรรม	7 /		
ของชาวต่างชาติได้ดี		111	
เวลาพูดกุยกับชาวต่างชาติฉันสามารถปรับเปลี่ยนการแสดงออกทางสีหน้า			
ให้เหมาะกับวัฒนธรรมของพวกเขา	2		

คำถามในส่วนถัดไป) ผลสัมฤทธิ์ด้านการขาย , การปรับพฤติกรรมการขาย และ การขายที่มุ่งเน้นความต้องการของลูกค้า (มีส่วน เกี่ยวข้องกับการปฏิบัติการขายของพนักงานขายในงานแสดงสินค้านานาชาติในประเทศอินเดีย / ญี่ปุ่น / เวียดนาม

ส่วนที่ 3:

กรุณาเลือกตัวเลขในแต่ละข้อความที่แสดงระดับผลสัมฤทธิ์ด้านการขายของตัว	น้อย				
ท่านในประเทศอินเดีย / ญี่ปุ่น / เวียดนาม	ที่สุด	น้อย	ปานกลาง	มาก	มากที่สุด
TETTI OLIVE	(1)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(5)
ผลสัมฤทธิ์ด้านการหากลุ่มเป้าหมายลูกค้าต่างชาติ					
ผลสัมฤทธิ์ด้านการขยายฐานตัวแทนจำหน่ายสินค้าของบริษัทในประเทศ					
อินเคีย ญี่ปุ่น เวียดนาม ได้					
ผลสัมฤทธิ์ในการทำยอดขายในประเทศนี้ได้ตามยอดขายบริษัทกำหนดไว้ได้					
ผลสัมฤทธิ์ด้านการรับมือกับสินค้าประเภทเดียวกันของคู่แข่งในประเทศนี้					
ผลสัมฤทธิ์ด้านการวิเคราะห์จุดแข็ง จุดอ่อน รวมถึง โอกาส และ อุปสรรค					

ของสินค้าที่ท่านขายในประทศนี้			

<u>ส่านที่ **4:**</u>

กรุณาเลือกตัวเลขในแต่ละข้อความที่แสดงระดับความเห็นด้วย หรือไม่เห็นด้วยของท่านเมื่อท่านต้องขายสินค้าให้กับลูกค้าชาว อินเดีย / ญี่ปุ่น / เวียดนาม	ไม่เห็น ด้วยอย่าง ยิ่ง (1)	ไม่เห็น ด้วย มาก (2)	เห็นด้วยใน ระดับปาน กลาง (3)	เห็นด้วย มาก(4)	เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง (5)
ท่านสามารถปรับเปลี่ยนกลยุทธ์การขายได้อย่างรวดเร็วเมื่อท่าน ทราบว่ากลยุทธิ์ที่ใช้อยู่ไม่ประสบผลสำเร็จกับลูกค้าชาวต่างชาติ					
ท่านชอบที่จะใช้เทคนิคการขายที่แตกต่างกันไปกับลูกค้า ชาวต่างชาติ		35			
ท่านค่อนข้างยืดหยุ่นกับการเลือกวิธีการขายที่จะใช้กับลูกค้า ชาวต่างชาติ			2	(O)	
ท่านสามารถใช้กลยุทธิ์การขายที่หลายหลายได้กับลูกค้า ชาวต่างชาติ	5		-3	/2.	
ท่านพยายามที่จะเข้าใจความแตกต่างของลูกค้าชาวต่างชาติแต่ละ ราย		39	// ₂	566	

<u>ส่านที่ 5:</u>

ส่านที่ 5:					
กรุณาเลือกตัวเลขในแต่ละข้อความที่แสดงระดับความเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยของ ท่านเมื่อท่านต้องขายสินค้าให้กับลูกค้าชาว อินเดีย / ญี่ปุ่น / เวียดนาม	ใม่ เห็น	ไม่	เห็นด้วย	เห็น	เห็น
มาหาขอม เหตอง กฤษาย เหมากฝืนผา มาร ดหาตอ \ เกิศัห \ เวลดหาท	ด้วย	เห็น ด้วย	ในระดับ ปาน	ด้วย	ด้วย อย่าง
	อย่าง ยิ่ง	มาก	กลาง	มาก (4)	์ อุก อุก 14
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

ท่านพยายามวิเคราะห์ความต้องการของถูกก้าชาวต่างชาติ			
ท่านใส่ใจในรายละเอียดเกี่ยวกับสิ่งที่ลูกค้าชาวต่างชาติให้ความสำคัญเสมอ			
ท่านใช้วิธีการขายสินค้าและบริการให้กับลูกค้าชาวต่างชาติโดยการช่วยลูกค้า			
แก้ปัญหาเป็นหลัก			
ท่านมักจะแนะนำสินค้าที่ช่วยแก้ปัญหาลูกค้าชาวต่างชาติได้มากที่สุด			
ในการนำเสนอสินค้าท่านพยายามหาสินค้าและบริการที่สามารถตอบโจทย์ลูกค้า			
ชาวต่างชาติได้มากที่สุด			



Appendix 3: Questionnaire (English)



Questionnaire Survey

The entire process of responding to the following questions will take about 10 minutes of your valuable time .The questions do only indicate your opinion and do not have any right or wrong answers .The data collected for this study will only be used for academic purpose; strict confidence and anonymity will be kept for the data collected.

1. Age:	years		
2 .Gender :	□ Male	☐ Female	
3 .Highest educati	on level		
	□ Diploma Degr	ee)Vocation Course(
	□ Bachelor's De	gree)College Degree(
	□ Master's Degr	ree	
	☐ Doctoral Deg	ree	
4 .Marital status	☐ Married	□ Single	
5 .Prior education	experiences in India	/Japan/Vietnam	
	□ never	☐ 1 year or less	□ about 2
years			
	□ about 3 years	□ about 4 years	□ more
than 4 years			
6 .Prior work expo	eriences in India/Japa	an/Vietnam	
	\square never	☐ 1 year or less	□ about 2
years			
	□ about 3 years	□ about 4 years	□ more
than 4 years			
7 .Cross-cultural	selling experiences in	n India/Japan /Vietnam_	
times			

8 .Do you need translator in India/Japan/Vietnam

 \square Yes \square No

9. What is your perception towards Indian/ Japanese/Vietnamese in terms of these four aspects when compared to Thai.

	Personalities	Very different from Thai	(5) (4) (3) (2) (1) Very similar to
Thai			
	Lifestyle	Very different from Thai	(5) (4) (3) (2) (1) Very similar to
Thai	. 000		
116	Communication Style	Very different from Thai	(5) (4) (3) (2) (1) Very similar to
Thai		7/	(2) (1) (2) (2) (3)
1	Overall Culture	Very different from Thai	(5) (4) (3) (2) (1) Very similar to
That	Over all Culture	very unicrent from Thai	(3) (4) (3) (2) (1) very similar to
Thai			

Part II :4 Aspects of Cultural Intelligence)CQ(

Please choose only one scale in each statement that indicates your agreement or disagreement about your level of cognitive CQ, by tick marking) $\sqrt{}$ (in the space provided next to the statement.

	2 .1 Cognitive CQ			- //	b_ //	
No.	Cognitive CQ	Strongly Agree)5(Agree	Neutral)3(Disagree)2(Strongly Disagree)1(
1	I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures)V				
2	I know the rules)e.g .vocabulary, grammar (of other languages	12121	3			
3	I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures	NGS				
4	I know the marriage systems of other cultures					
5.	I know the arts and crafts of other cultures					
6	I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviours in other cultures					

Please choose only one scale in each statement that indicates your agreement or disagreement about your level of meta-cognitive CQ, by tick marking) $\sqrt{}$ (in the space provided next to the statement.

	2 .3 Meta-cognitive CQ					
No.	Meta-cognitive CQ	Strongly Agree)5(Agree)4(Neutral) 3(Disagree)2(Strongly Disagree)1(
1	I am conscious with cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with difference cultural background	8				
2	I adjust my cultural knowledge when I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me		55			
3	I am conscious of cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interaction					
4	I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different culture		KS		(3)	

Please choose only one scale in each statement that indicates your agreement or disagreement about your level of motivational CQ, by tick marking $)\sqrt{}$ in the space provided next to the statement.

	2 .2 Motivational CQ)*				
No.	Motivational CQ	Strongly Agree)5(Agree)4(Neutral (3(Disagree)2(Strongly Disagree)1(
1	I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures	30,0				
2	I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is new to me.					
3	I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me					
4	I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me					

	I am confident that I can get accustomed			l
5	to the shopping conditions in a different			
	culture			l

Please choose only one scale in each statement that indicates your agreement or disagreement about your level of behavioral CQ, by tick marking $)\sqrt{)}$ in the space provided next to the statement.

	2 .4 Behavioral CQ	5				
No.	Behavioral CQ	Strongly Agree)5(Agree)4(Neutral) 3(Disagree)2(Strongly Disagree)1(
1	I change my verbal behaviour)e.g . accent, tone (when a cross-cultural interaction requires it					
2	I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations		105			
3	I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it				. //	
4	I change my nonverbal behaviour when a cross-cultural situation requires it		39		S//	
5	I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.		7/	/K		

Part III : Adaptive Selling Behaviors

Please choose only one scale in each statement that indicates your agreement or disagreement about your level of adaptive selling behaviors, by tick marking) $\sqrt{}$ (in the space provided next to the statement.

	3 .Adaptive Selling Behaviors					
No.	Adaptive selling behaviors	Strongly Agree)5(Agree)4(Neutral (3(Disagree)2(Strongly Disagree)1(

1	When I feel that my sales approach is not working, I can easily change to another approach which appropriated to Indian/Japanese/Vietnamese consumers				
2	I like to experiment with different sales approaches with Indian/Japanese/Vietnamese consumers.				
3	I am very flexible in the selling approach I use with Indian/Japanese/Vietnamese consumers	יאר און			
4	I can easily use a wide range of selling approaches with Indian/Japanese/Vietnamese consumers		/ 7		
5	I try to understand how one customers differs from another among Indian/Japanese/Vietnamese consumes				

Part IV : Customer-Oriented Selling Behaviors

Please choose only one scale in each statement that indicates your agreement or disagreement about your level of customer-oriented selling behaviors, by tick marking $)\sqrt{)}$ in the space provided next to the statement.

4	Customer-Oriented Selling Behaviors	1			<u>_</u> //	
No.	Customer-oriented selling behaviors	Strongly Agree)5(Agree	Neutral (3(Disagree)2(Strongly Disagree)1(
1	I try to figure out what Indian/Japanese/Vietnamese customer's needs are)V				
2	I have the Indian/Japanese/Vietnamese customer's best interests in mind	1212	500			
3	I take a problem-solving approach in selling product or services to Indian/Japanese/Vietnamese customers					
4	I recommend products or services that are best suited to solving problems of Indian/Japanese/Vietnamese customers.					
5	I try to find out which kinds of products or services would be most helpful to my Indian/Japanese/Vietnamese customers					

Part V: Cross-Cultural Sales Performance

Please choose only one scale in each statement that indicates your agreement or disagreement about your level of cross-cultural sales performance, by tick marking $)\sqrt{)}$ in the space provided next to the statement.

	3. Cross-Cultural Sales Performance	701				
No.	<u>Cross-cultural sales performance</u>	Strongly Agree (5(Agree)4(Neutral (3(Disagree)2(Strongly Disagree (1(
1	I can find more prospective Indian/Japanese/Vietnamese customers	7	1			
2.	I can expand the sales territory in the India/Japan/Vietnam) .no .of distributors(7	3)			
3.	I can achieve the target sales in India/Japan/Vietnam according to the assigned target sales of my organization sales department.				(3)	
4.	I can effectively respond to the competitor brands in India/Japan/Vietnam	D				
5.	I can analyse the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the products I responsible to sell in India/Japan/Vietnam country		26			

Thank you for your cooperation ☺

Appendix 4: Lists of Thai exhibitors in three countries trade shows

1. List of Thai Exhibitors in India Classified by Product Group Order.

FOOD & BEVERAGES

- 1. D&G Foodsupply CO., Ltd.
- 2. Friendship Siam Beverage Co. Ltd.
- 3. Krung Siam Beverage Co., Ltd.
- 4. Lactasoy Co., Ltd.
- 5. New Concept Product Co., Ltd.
- 6. Siam Fruit Garden Co., Ltd.
- 7. SPJ Consumable Products
- 8. Tong Garden Co., Ltd.
- 9. Win Chance Foods Co., Ltd.
- 10. Pet Focus Co., Ltd.
- 11. AEC Frienship Co., Ltd.
- 12. PNP Grocery (Thailand)
- 13. Thai President Foods Public Company Limited

GARMENTS & FASHION ACCESSORIES.

- 1. Anong Thai Silk Ltd. Part.
- 2. Alta Auro Asia Limited
- 3. D.P.N. Marketing Ltd. Part.
- 4. Sabina Fareast Co. Ltd.
- 5. Spakits Co. Ltd.
- 6. SS Product Design Co. Ltd.
- 7. Summit Footwear Co. Ltd.
- 8. Yonana Co. Ltd.
- 9. Kuniya Enterprise Co., Ltd.
- 10. Dudee Collection Ltd. Part.
- 11. Buddy Handicraft Ltd. Part.
- 12. Inter Heritage Corp., Ltd.
- 13. Sa Sen Bon Co., Ltd.
- 14. Love Production Ltd. Part.
- 15. Prang-Zitaa Ltd., Part.
- 16. P.P. Nature Green Ltd. Part.
- 17. Tulip Ornament
- 18. De Bois International Co., Ltd.
- 19. Extreme Jewelry Co., Ltd.
- 20. Ananda Ltd. Part.

HEALTH & BEAUTY

1. Borwornvej Thai Herbs Co.

- 2. Calissa Group Co., Ltd.
- 3. Grace Official (Thailand) Co.
- 4. Kiss of Beauty Co., Ltd.
- 5. O-SOD Herbal Ltd. Part
- 6. P.O. Care (Thailand) Co., Ltd.
- 7. Paveemol Co. Ltd.
- 8. Pouchao TMA Co. Ltd.
- 9. Tiger Eyes Education Co., Ltd.
- 10. Gold Gross Co., Ltd.
- 11. Project D Co., Ltd.

HOME DÉCOR & HOUSEHOLD PRODUCTS

- 1. Flower International Co.
- 2. Idea Variety Co., Ltd.
- 3. Love Production Ltd. Part.
- 4. N.P. Quality Flower Co. Ltd.
- 5. Thai Idea Art & Craft Co. Ltd.
- 6. Tien Dahla Co., Ltd.
- 7. Creation World Wind Wood Co., Ltd.
- 8. DR Natural Art Ltd., Part.
- 9. Moon Shadow Bangkok Ltd.

OTHER

1. Department of International Trade Promotion (DITP)

2. List of Thai Exhibitors in Japan Classified by Product Group Order.

GARMENT

- 1. Apparel Crations Co., Ltd.
- 2. Chelae (Thaniland) Co., Ltd.
- 3.Fafalu Co., Ltd.
- 4. Fourstar Garment and Textile Co., Ltd.
- 5. Grand Knitwear Manufacturing Co., Ltd.
- 6. Green Cotton (Thailand) Co., Ltd.
- 7. Heart and Mind Apparel Co., Ltd.
- 8. Kimuraharu Import Export Co., Ltd.
- 9. Lonely Two-Legged Creature Co., Ltd.
- 10. S.P. Brother Co., Ltd.
- 11. Sabina Fareast Co., Ltd.
- 12. Spakits Co., Ltd.
- 13. Thai Bra & Lingerie Co., Ltd.
- 14. Thai Southease knitting Co., Ltd.
- 15. Theparerg Co, Ltd.
- 16. Thong Thai Textile Co., Ltd.
- 17. TK Garment Co., Ltd.
- 18. Uniform World Co., Ltd.
- 19. Walrus Trading Co., Ltd.

TEXTILE

- 1.AEC Textile Co., Ltd.
- 2. Bangkokcharoen Lace Co., Ltd.
- 3. Futuretex Co., Ltd.
- 4. ID Knitting Co., Ltd.
- 5. K.P.N. Internatioanl Import and Export Co., Ltd.
- 6. Ngarm Roong Textile Industry Co., Ltd.
- 7. Pacific Knitting Factory Co., Ltd.
- 8. Prasertsomboon Textile Co., Ltd.
- 9. Santavee Intergroup Co., Ltd.

- 10. Suratanapat Textile Ltd., Part.
- 11. Thanapaisal R.O.P.
- 12. The Natural Silk Ltd., Part.
- 13. United Textile Mills Co., Ltd.
- 14.Bella Pazzo Co., Ltd.
- 15. Big Bokeh Ltd., Part.
- 16. Chanchuda Ltd., Part.
- 17. Gallery Co., Ltd.
- 18. F.G. Leather Co., Ltd
- 19 Justino Co., Ltd.
- 20. Dudee Collections Ltd., Part.
- 21. Roongsilp Industry Ltd., Part.

FASHION ACCESSORIES

- 1.All Nine Co., Ltd.
- 2. Asal Shoes Co., Ltd.
- 3. Bangkok Rubber Public Co., Ltd.
- 4. Bkk Original Co., Ltd.
- 5. Classic Inter Leather Products Co., Ltd.
- 6. Fashion Hometex Co., Ltd.
- 7. Joe House Co., Ltd.
- 8. Oriental Bag Co., Ltd.
- 9.Ring Co., Ltd.
- 10. Suvino Corporation Ltd.
- 11. TGI Import Export Co., Ltd.
- 12. VR Vara Co., Ltd.

OTOP

- 1.As World Trading & Marketing Co., Ltd.
- 2.Boonkoon Group
- 3. Giga Collection
- 4. Impani Ltd., Part.
- 5.Jeda By Jedapa
- 6. Krajoodthai

- 7. Metta Handicrafts
- 9. Leaf Creation Co., Ltd.
- 10. Oriental Motifs
- 11.Reborn (Alex Design Brand Reborn)
- 12.S.T. Sea Star Leather Co., Ltd.
- 13. Sirita Batik
- 14. Suntree Thai Weaving Center
- 15. Thansuda Leather Group
- 16. Vanlapa Clothing
- 17. Yingthai

3. List of Thai Exhibitors in Vietnam Classified by Product Group Order.

FOOD

- 1. Boon Foods Co., Ltd.
- 2. Chua Hah Seng Fish Sauce Factory
- 3. Diamond Preserved Food Co., Ltd.
- 4. Kanokwan Food Products Co., Ltd.
- 5. Mulberrry Greentea Ltd. Part.
- 6. M&R Laboratory Co., Ltd.
- 7. Namchow (Thailand) Ltd.
- 8. Nature Best Food Co., Ltd.
- 9. Nine Star Food Co., Ltd.
- 10. Phiboonchai Maepranom Thai Chili Paste Co., Ltd.
- 11. Pouthong Standard Food (Thailand) Co., Ltd.
- 12. STW Groups Co., Ltd.
- 13. Surapon Foods Public Co., Ltd.
- 14. Trading Aplus Co., Ltd.

HOUSEHOLD PRODUCTS

- 1. AAA Agritec and Aquaculture (Thailand) Co., Ltd.
- 2. A B Toy Ltd., Part.
- 3. B.C.F. Grand Wood Co., Ltd.
- 4. B.K. Latex Product Co., Ltd.
- 5. Chainakin Co., Ltd.
- 6. Creation World Wild Wood Co., Ltd.
- 7. Keak Rungrueng Co., Ltd.
- 8. MCI Internaional Co., Ltd.
- 9. MMP Corporation Ltd.
- 10. Siam Cast Nylon Co., Ltd.
- 11. Solex International (Thailand) Co., Ltd
- 12. Sosuco and Group Co., Ltd.
- 13. Thai Stainless Steel Co., Ltd.
- 14. Toshino Supply Co., Ltd.
- 15. Uni-Top Trading Co., Ltd.
- 16. World Wide Mercantil Co., Ltd.
- 17. Yelowcare Limited

HEALTH & BEAUTY

- 1. Bio-Woman Co., Ltd.
- 2. Charm & Competence Co., Ltd.
- 3. Duangsiri Neo Cosmetic Co., Ltd.
- 4. Earth Ventures Co., Ltd.
- 5. Hatakabb (Sim Tien Hor) Co., Ltd.
- 6. Health Impact Co., Ltd.

- 7. Kiss of Beauty Co., Ltd
- 8. Lab and Beauty Co., Ltd.
- 9. Mary Manufacturing Co., Ltd.
- 10. Noelle Overseas Co., Ltd.
- 11. Paveemol Co., Ltd.
- 12. Project D Co., Ltd.
- 13. Sahapan Group Co., Ltd.
- 14. SD. Advanced Co., Ltd.
- 15. Silkina Nano Co., Ltd.
- 16. Smilephan Company Limited
- 17. TP4 International Co., Ltd.
- 18. Tropicana Oil Co., Ltd.
- 19. V Care Plus Ltd., Part.
- 20. Justino Co., Ltd



BIOGRAPHY

NAME Arti Pandey

ACADEMIC Bachelor's Degree with a major in Accounting from BACKGROUND Assumption University, Bangkok, Thailand in 2002 and

Master's Degree in Management at Assumption University,

Bangkok, Thailand in 2010

EXPERIENCES Lecturer, King Mongkut's University of Technology

Thonburi. Facaulty of Arts, Bangkok, Thailand

Lecturer at Assumption University from year 2010-2018

