CROSS CULTURAL COMPETENCE, HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES, CROSS CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT AND ADAPTIVE PERFORMANCE AMONG JORDANIAN MILITARY LEADERS IN UNITED NATIONS PEACEKEEPING

By
FAYEZ HAMED ABDO AL SHDAIFAT

Thesis Submitted to
Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business,
Universiti Utara Malaysia,
In Fulfillment of the Requirementfor the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

September 2014

PERMISSION TO USE

In presenting this thesis in full fulfillment of the requirements for a postgraduate degree from Universiti Utara Malaysia, I agree that University Library can make it freely available for inspection. I further agree that permission for copying of this thesis in any manner, in part or in whole, for scholarly purpose may be granted by my supervisor or, in his absence, by the Dean of Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business. It is understood that any copying or publication or use of this thesis or part thereof for financial benefit shall not be allowed without my written permission. It is also understood that due recognition shall be given to me and Universiti Utara Malaysia for any scholarly use which may be made of any material from my thesis.

Requests for permission to copy or make other use of materials in this thesis, in whole or in part should be addressed to:

Dean of Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business

Universiti Utara Malaysia

06010 UUM Sintok

Kedah Darul Aman, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

Numerous studies have been conducted by researchers who are either academicians or practitioners to understand the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of the military leaders in the United Nations' peacekeeping missions. However, little is known about the determinants of a military leader's adaptive performance in the United Nations missions. Hence a gap remains in the literature. This study fills the gap by examining the relationships that exist between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices, cross-cultural adjustment and adaptive performance by using a sample of 279 Jordanian military leaders who participated in the United Nations missions. Data was collected using the survey method. The five research questions and the seven research objectives of the study were addressed by performing appropriate descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. The Partial Least Squares Method (PLS) algorithm and the bootstrap techniques were used to test the hypotheses. The findings revealed that there is a significant positive relationship between (a) cross-cultural competence and psychological adjustment, (b) cross- cultural competence and adaptive performance, (c) human resource management practices and psychological adjustment, (d) cross-cultural competences and socio-cultural adjustment, (e) human resource management practices and adaptive performance and (f) psychological and socio-cultural adjustment and adaptive performance. The findings imply that cultural intelligence, emotional intelligence, selection and training are significant in predicting psychological adjustment and adaptive performance among military leaders in the United Nations peacekeeping missions. Moreover, the findings of this study reveal that psychological adjustment mediates the relationship between cross-cultural competence and adaptive performance, implying that cross-cultural competence is related to adaptive performance indirectly, mediated through psychological adjustment. The mediating role played by psychological adjustment helps to explain the underlying process that is responsible for the relationship between cross-cultural competence and adaptive performance of military leaders. The findings of this study have significantly contributed to the advancement of knowledge in the field of cross-cultural management as evidenced by the fact that cross-cultural competence and human resource management factors are vital to facilitate a military leader's psychological adjustment and adaptive performance in the United Nations' missions.

Keywords: adaptive performance, cross- cultural competence, human resource management practices, psychological adjustment, socio cultural adjustment, military leaders

ABSTRAK

Pelbagai kajian telah dilakukan oleh penyelidik-penyelidik sama ada ahli akademik atau pengamal industri untuk memahami faktor-faktor yang menyumbang kepada keberkesanan pemimpin tentera dalam misi pengaman Pertubuhan Bangsa-Bangsa Bersatu (PBB). Walau bagaimanapun, hanya sedikit maklumat yang diketahui tentang penentu prestasi adaptif pemimpin tentera dalam misi pengaman PBB. Ini jelas menunjukkan bahawa masih wujud jurang literatur dalam bidang ini. Kajian ini memenuhi jurang tersebut dengan menyiasat hubungan yang wujud di antara kecekapan silang budaya, amalan sumber manusia, penyesuaian silang budaya dan prestasi adaptif. Seramai 279 orang pemimpin tentera Jordan yang telah berkhidmat dalam misi pengaman PBB telah dijadikan sampel dalam kajian ini. Data telah dikutip dengan menggunakan kaedah tinjauan. Terdapat lima persoalan kajian dan tujuh objektif dalam kajian ini dan diselesaikan dengan melakukan analisis deskriptif serta statistik inferensi yang bersesuaian. Kaedah *Partial Least Squares (PLS)* algoritma dan teknik *Bootstrap* telah digunakan untuk menguji hipotesis kajian. Hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa terdapat hubungan positif yang signifikan di antara (a)kecekapan silang budaya dan penyesuaian psikologi; (b) kecekapan silang budaya dan prestasi adaptif; (c) amalan pengurusan sumber manusia dan penyesuaian psikologi; (d) kecekapan silang budaya dan penyesuaian sosiobudaya; (e) amalan pengurusan sumber manusia dan prestasi adaptif; serta (f) penyesuaian psikologi dan sosiobudaya dan prestasi adaptif. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa kecerdasan budaya, kecerdasan emosi, pemilihan dan pengambilan signifikan dalam meramal penyesuaian psikologi dan prestasi adaptif dalam kalangan pemimpin tentera dalam misi pengaman PBB. Selain itu, hasil kajian ini mendapati penyesuaian psikologi menjadi pengantara hubungan di antara kecekapan silang budaya dan prestasi adaptif. Ini mengambarkan kecekapan silang budaya berhubung secara tidak langsung dengan prestasi adaptif, dipengantara oleh penyesuaian psikologi. Peranan perantara yang dimainkan oleh penyesuaian psikologi membantu menerangkan proses yang mendasari hubungan di antara kecekapan silang budaya dan prestasi adaptif pemimpin tentera. Dapatan kajian ini telah memberikan sumbangan yang signifikan kepada kemajuan pengetahuan dalam bidang pengurusan silang budaya bersandarkan bukti kecekapan silang budaya dan amalan pengurusan sumber manusia adalah penting untuk memudahkan penyesuaian psikologi dan prestasi adaptif dalam kalangan pemimpin tentera dalam misi pengaman PBB.

Kata Kunci: prestasi adaptif, kecekapan silang budaya, amalan sumber manusia, penyesuaian psikologi, penyesuaian sosiobudaya, pemimpin tentera

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title   Page No.

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF APPENDICES

LIST OF ABREVIATION

APA	American Psychological Association Cross
CCC	Cultural Competence
CQ	Culture Intelligence
DOD	Department of Defense
DOS	Department of Statistics
DPKO	Department Of Peace Keeping Operations
EQ	Emotional Intelligence
HRMP	Human Resource Management Practices
JAF	Jordan Armed Forces
MONUSCO	UN Organization Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo
MINUSTAH	UN Stabilization Mission in Haiti
NCO	Non Comissioned Officer
NGO's	Non-Government Organizations
PTSD	Post Traumatic Stress Disorder
SQ	Social Intelligence
UN	United Nation
UNMIL	UN Mission in Liberia
UNOCI	UN Operation in Côte d'Ivoire

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The world suffered greatly during World War II when several capital cities were destroyed by ground battles and bombing (e.g., Paris, London and Berlin). Also, owing to wars, people suffered through persecution and hunger, which claimed the life of many civilians and military personnel. Over 62 million people were killed during the period of 1941-1945 (Kesternich, Siflinger, Smith & Winter, 2012). Therefore, to resolve conflict between countries and to maintain peace and security in the world, the powerful countries or the big-five (United States of America [USA], Russia, China, France and Great Britain) decided to establish the United Nations (UN) Security Council in 1945 (Guéhenno, 2010).

Since the establishment of the UN Security Council on 24 October 1945, the world has witnessed an increase in international peacekeeping activities (Guéhenno, 2010). At present, there are almost 92,407 personal serving on 17 peacekeeping operations in various part of the world (UN, 2013). The Department of Peacekeeping Operations is important for the effective functioning of international peacekeeping operations. Specifically, it significantly contributes to the support of peacekeeping operations throughout the world and plays a key role in establishing peace and security in international areas of conflict (Guéhenno, 2010). Furthermore, there are several

organizations working under the umbrella of the UN to restore peace and security in the world, such as the European Union (EU) and the African Union (AU). Other multinational bodies, such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) have overseen peacekeeping operations (Garren, 2007).

Despite great success in various peacekeeping operations, a number of missions are considered failures by the UN. For example, 200,000 people were killed, even with the protection of the UN peacekeeping forces in former Yugoslavia between 1992-1994 (Guzina & Marijan, 2013). Similarly, in Rwanda in 1994, more than 800,000 civilians (mainly Tutsi), were massacred within four months (Guzina & Marijan, 2013). Thus, it seems the UN peace- keeping operations and other organizations, such as NATO and the AU have failed to protect civilian lives, due to poor performance of the peacekeeping forces (Garren, 2007).

How successful a peacekeeping mission is in a country is assessed by its overall performance. However, how effective a military and its leaders are in peacekeeping missions is an unexplored area. Up to now, there are no proper performance indicators to assess "effectiveness" of UN peacekeepers, be it of individuals or units (Cutillo, 2013). Previous studies conducted among peacekeepers in international peacekeeping missions have made recommendations that how these missions adjust to local cultures and living conditions should be key indicators to measure performance of leaders (Wong, 2004; Thompson & McCreary, 2006).

Peacekeepers' [leaders] performance would lead to success in achieving the mission's goals (Monaghan, 2012). Studies have shown that many peacekeeping military leaders sent on international missions face great difficulties in adapting to local cultures and living conditions. Peacekeepers face various problems, such as environmental conditions (heat, rain and cold), damaged infrastructures, diseases, being far away from family and friends, hostile situations and other stressors (Thompson & McCreary, 2006; Kavanagh, 2005).

Similarly, a recent study conducted on the USA Army personnel found that the most frequently reported stressors associated with peacekeeping missions include being away from home (16.6%), deployment (13.4%), increased work load (12.9%) and supervisor problems (9.6%); almost 1.2% of USA Army personnel return early because of deployment (United States Army, 2010). The stressors will certainly have a physiological effect on individual members and a negative effect on their performance in the mission area (Kavanagh, 2005).

In addition, major problems faced by the USA Army in UN missions in Iraq and Afghanistan have frequently led to heightened suicide rate (United States Army, 2010). A report conducted recently indicates that in 2013, the rate of military suicides was more than combat deaths in Afghanistan in 2012, meaning that daily, suicides occur due to failure to adjust in the mission area (Anderson, 2013).

Adaptive performance requires those involved to possess the mental agility to perform duties aside from combat and to adjust to situations that can shift from non-threatening to threatening (Wong, 2004).

1.2 The Role of Jordan in the United Nations

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is geographically bordered by five countries, namely, Palestine and Israel to the west, Syria to the north, Iraq to the east and Saudi Arabia to the south. Jordan is about 91,880 square kilometers in size with a population of seven million people (Department of Statistics, 2013). Currently, Jordan is one of the most stable and safe countries in the Middle East. The Jordanian government pays considerable attention to security issues and enhances its Armed Forces' capabilities to face any internal or external threats. Jordan has an important location between unstable Arab countries, and this location has been given attention to keep strong Armed Forces in the Middle East region (Jordan Armed Forces, 2013).

Since 1989, Jordan has an excellent track record of serving in peacekeeping missions, and is facing greater demands. These peacekeeping missions not only involve the military but also government and non-governmental agencies, whose cooperation is vital for achieving the goals. However, such operations are often costly and dangerous and prone to failure. Another challenge for Jordan is that of having to adjust to peacekeeping doctrinal changes. As a member of the UN and long-time contributor to peacekeeping

missions, this has had profound implications for the country (Jordan Armed Forces, 2013).

As mentioned above, since 1989, the Jordanian army has been involved in several peacekeeping missions. For example, the army has been involved in cease-fire missions as military observer in former Yugoslavia in 1992 and Haiti in 2003 (Jordan Armed Forces, 2013). These missions have involved military as well as medical and field hospital personnel. In terms of peacekeeping activities, the Jordanian peacekeeping mission has been involved in various functions, such as observing ceasefires, clearing land mines, conducting training for the military in the host country, inspecting and supervising destruction of weapons, assisting refugees, providing medical and dental services and supervising and assisting in elections in the mission areas, for example in East Timor in 2000 and Haiti in 2003 (Jordan Armed Forces, 2013).

These activities mean that Jordanian peacekeepers are aware of the difficulties to coordinate peacekeeping operations. In 1993, the Jordanian Armed Forces commanded the International Forces in former Yugoslavia (Croatia), involving about 15,389 personnel from more than 24 nations. This was the largest single deployment of the Jordanian Armed Forces since 1989. Additionally, in 2003, the Army headed the mission to Eretria, involving about 14,834 personnel from more than 11 nations (Jordan Armed Forces, 2013). All these missions point to the increasing importance of the Jordanian Army in peacekeeping activities globally. In addition, these activities show that the

activities of peacekeeping missions stretch beyond the scope of mere military services to a focus on helping to create long-term stability in troubled states.

The Jordanian Armed Forces have developed a reputation for professionalism, reliability and resourcefulness; hence, the Jordanian Army is often approached to be involved in peacekeeping missions. Besides being well trained, the Jordanian Army is also skilled in negotiations, medical services and other humanitarian tasks. Since 1989, the Jordanian Armed Forces has participated in 19 UN peacekeeping missions; Jordan is among the first 10 countries that has contributed personnel to the UN peacekeeping missions and to date, has provided 103,000 personnel (United Nation, 2014). The Jordanian peacekeeping forces have been facing serious problems in the UN peacekeeping mission in Haiti since 2005. They have had to physically and mentally deal with the harsh operating and living environments and local languages used in the mission area and all these have led to lack of adaptability (Shurrman, 2013). Indeed, the Jordanian forces have suffered operational casualties since 1989, and to date, 34 military personnel have been killed and hundreds injured during their participation in the UN peacekeeping operations (Jordan Armed Forces, 2013; United Nations, 2013). Despite all casualties, peacekeepers' [leaders] adaptive performance would lead to success in achieving the United Nation mission's goals (Monaghan, 2012).

1.3 Problem Statement

Job performance is a significant construct owing to its key role in both international and national work environments. According to Sri Ramalu (2010), the concept of job performance is acknowledged in the national environment but its development in the international arena is still ambiguous. Pulakos, Arad, Donovan and Plamondon (2000) successfully cleared part of the ambiguity concerning the concept of job performance in international arena by developing of adaptive performance by developing an eight-dimensional taxonomy. The concept of adaptive performance depends on three factors, namely individual differences; skills and knowledge; and the environment (William & Waldo, 2010).

Researchers, such as Tucker and Gunther (2009), studied how to enhance the military leader's adaptive performance to achieve the organization's goals. In fact, the development of adaptive leaders has become first priority for the Army Headquarters (Mueller-Hanson, Wisecarver, Baggett, Miller & Mendini, 2007). Moreover, the adaptive leader's role has become essential in today's uncertain, unpredictable, stressful and turbulent environment (Burke, Pierce & Salas, 2006; DeRue & Wellman, 2009). Adaptive performance is a result of different factors, such as knowledge, skills and experience (Mueller-Hanson *et al*., 2007). Additionally, adaptive performance is a constellation of personality qualities found to characterize people who remain healthy and continue to perform well under a range of stressful conditions (Bartone, Roland, Picano & Williams 2008). Monghan (2012) mentioned that UN peacekeeping missions

need two competencies in order to achieve success: inter-cultural literacy and adaptive performance. The incoming personnel need training to build the knowledge and skills to perform in the mission (Cutillo, 2013).

Inability to handle stress is one of the indicators of adaptive performance (Thompson & McCreary, 2006). Suicides, absence without official leave and early return of personnel are mainly caused by cultural differences, besides lack of cultural understanding (United States Army, 2010). In addition, adaptive performance is one of the cornerstones of being a peacekeeping leader (White *et al.,* 2005). The USA Army has analyzed the military adaptive performance of personnel in UN operations in Iraq (Wong, 2004) and Afghanistan, and found adaptive performance is critical for the military leaders involved in these operations (Jeffrey, 2011). Jordan is no exception; adaptive performance is essential for their military leaders in peacekeeping missions. In his speech to his troops, Dempsey, a Brigadier General from the USA Army (2011) stated that 'the most important adaptation will be in how we develop the next generation of leaders; simply put, developing these adaptive leaders is the number one imperative for the continued health of our profession'.

The nature of peacekeeping missions has become increasingly complex (Ballone, 2000). The United States Army (2010) found that stressors associated with peacekeeping missions include being away from home with (16.6%), deployment with (13.4%), increased work load with (12.9%) and supervisor problems with (9.6%), and 1.2% of personnel return early because of deployment.

The concern for the safety and security of personnel involved in peacekeeping missions has grown since the last two decades, mainly because of the increased risks deriving from deployment in volatile environments (Gadler, 2010). According to the UN sources, the total number of death reach the summit of 3263 personnel, a thousands were injured in 2012, and the department of peace operation los t(112) personnel (UN, 2013). It seems that the Jordan peacekeeping forces are no exception because (34) were killed , kidnapped, repatriate back home and a hundreds were injured in the UN missions (Jordan Armed Forces, 2013). The intensity of accidental attacks in different missions has led to a massive degree of stress placed upon them, leading to refusal to participate in UN missions. Also, the stress of separation from families and the poor conditions of service (Shurrman, 2013).

To date, only a few studies have been conducted on military adaptive performance (Cutillo, 2013; Griffin, Neal & Parker, 2010; Leitch, 2005; Mueller-Hanson, White, Dorsey & Pulakos, 2005; Pulakos *et al*., 2000; Pulakos *et al*., 2002; Shardrick, Lussier & Christopher, 2007; William & Waldo, 2010). Pulakos *et al*. (2000) stressed that adaptive performance deserves greater attention to understand the actual performance of military leaders. In modern peacekeeping missions, adaptive performance is recognized as a crucial dimension of job performance for army leaders (Center for Advanced Defense Studies, 2006). Furthermore, studies on the association between the UN peacekeeping forces and adaptive performance are limited. Specifically, these studies usually have a western viewpoint and have limited contribution to peacekeeping forces in general (Garren, 2007; Thompson & Creary, 2006; Tucker *et al*., 2007; Wong, 2004), when in

fact, the first 10 countries that contributed personnel to UN missions were non-Western countries (United Nations, 2013).

In this study, the cross-cultural competence components (cultural intelligence, emotional intelligence, social intelligence and language) are examined. The concept of cross-cultural competence, which constitutes the knowledge and skills components needed in peacekeeping missions, is an important aspect for adjustment. It is important that military leaders have knowledge and skills for interacting with individual members of the host country (Abbe & Halpin, 2009). Military leaders translate these overseas experiences into knowledge and skills that enhance their adaptive performance (Ng, Ramaya, Tony & Wong, 2005), which are vital to help adjust in a foreign country (Abbe, Gulick & Herman, 2007). In contrast, it has been reported that the staff deployed in peacekeeping missions are not adequately trained on cultural issues; hence, United Nation personnel need knowledge and skills to perform in the mission (Cutillo, 2013; Monghan, 2012).

Most studies dedicated to adjustment have focused on the importance of cultural awareness. In contrast, the current study investigates the effect of cross-cultural competence on adaptive performance and the effectiveness of leaders in managing peacekeeping forces. UN peacekeepers should be modern and equipped with professional leadership skills (Haltiner & Paul, 2005).

Another important issue related to performance among those on international assignments is human resource management practices (Ahmad & Schroeders, 2003). The importance

of human resource management practices (selection, training, and compensation) primarily stems from the fact that selecting the right leaders (Bratton & Gold, 2007), modern training (Abdullah, Ahsan & Alam, 2009; Cutillo, 2013), high motivation and positive reinforcement (McNulty & Tharenou, 2004) can facilitate environmental adjustment, thus improving adaptive performance.

At the same time, adjustment is also an important factor in improving the adaptive performance of peacekeeping leaders. Better overseas adjustment also enhances performance (Sri Ramalu, 2010; Zhou & Qin, 2009). Kumar and Sri Ramalu (2008) found that adjustment has a significant influence on job performance. With regards to adjustment level in psychological and socio-cultural contexts, peacekeeping soldiers [military leaders] are confronted with long periods of separation in overseas missions from family and friends, feelings of isolation, boredom and unexpected emotions, such as depression, anger, fear and apathy (Litz, King, King, Orsillo & Friedman, 1997). Inability to adjust to new cultural environments and work conditions and lack of adaptive performance can be harmful to military leaders on UN missions (Wong, 2004).

Therefore, the current study aims to support the initiative of developing military leaders via adjustment (psychological and socio-cultural), as the facilitating factor of cross-cultural competence (individual), and human resource management practices (organizational) for adaptive performance. Johnson, Lenartowicz and Apud (2006) revealed that adjustment is expected to facilitate intercultural interactions in a foreign host country to enable smooth adjustment, thus enhancing performance.

This study focuses on cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adjustment (physiological and socio-cultural) as determinants of the adaptive performance among Jordan's military leaders on peacekeeping missions. In response to the gaps in previous research, this study seeks to analyze the influence of cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices on the adaptive performance of the peacekeeping leaders on UN missions.

Parker and McEvoy (1993) developed a model distinguishing between individual, organizational and contextual antecedents that may influence the international assignment adjustment and the outcome of job performance. Campbell, McCloy, Oppler and Sager (1993) applied the performance theory, and focused on knowledge, skills, ability in predicting job performance.

With regards to the above, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no study has integrated the constructs of cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices, socio-cultural and psychological adjustment and adaptive performance in a single work. The present study's framework attempts to shed light on the human resource management practices in order to manage the UN peacekeeping missions, which is particularly important, since there is a gap in knowledge in literature pertaining to the UN peacekeeping forces in the context of Eastern countries, such as Jordan.

This study also develops and tests a comprehensive model that investigates the relationship between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices, adjustment (physiological and socio-cultural) and adaptive performance.

1.4 Research Questions

This study intends to answer the following questions:

1. What is the level of cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices, adjustment and adaptive performance among Jordanian peacekeeping leaders?

2. Does a relationship exist between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adjustment?

3. Does a relationship exist between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance?

4. Does a relationship exist between adjustment and adaptive performance?

5. Does adjustment mediate the relationship between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance?

1.5 Research Objectives

The general objective of this study is to examine the relationship among cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices, adjustment and adaptive performance. Specifically, the study aims to:

1. Identify the level of cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices, adjustment and adaptive performance among Jordan military leaders on peacekeeping missions;

2. Examine the relationship between cross-cultural competence and adjustment;

3. Examine the relationship between cross-cultural competence and adaptive performance;

4. Examine the relationship between human resource management practices and adjustment;

5. Examine the relationship between human resource management practices and adaptive performance;

6. Examine the relationship between adjustment and adaptive performance; and

7. Ascertain the mediating effects of adjustment on the relationship among cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study has chosen military leaders as sample of the study. The unit is individual military leaders. Specifically, the respondents in this study are military leaders (officers from the rank of lieutenant up to colonel) serving in the Jordanian Armed Forces, who have been deputed on UN missions. The study selected a sample of 234 respondents representing nine missions namely Haiti, Ivory Coast Battalion Force, Ivory Coast Special Unit, Liberia, Congo, officers in headquarters, Ivory Coast Headquarters, Congo hospital and military observers, because these missions are peacekeeping missions only.

Jordan, one of the countries in the Middle East, is a non-Western country that actively participates in peacekeeping missions.

This study is limited to examining the effects of cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices on adaptive performance and the mediating effect of adjustment on military leaders deputed on UN peacekeeping missions.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The present study is able to significantly add towards extending the boundary of existing knowledge as well as providing valuable empirical support for practitioners. The present study does this by examining the relationship between cross-cultural competence (culture intelligence, emotional intelligence, social intelligence and language), human resource management practices (selection, training and compensation), adjustment (social cultural and psychological adjustment) and adaptive performance among Jordanian military leaders deputed to UN missions.

The new contribution to knowledge is the use of adjustment as a mediator between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance as a component of job performance in the military setting (e.g., Chen & Thomas, 2005; Jundt, 2010; Lang & Bliese, 2009; Lepine, Colquitt & Erez, 2000). To the researcher's knowledge, this is the first study that attempts to measure the performance of leaders in the military setting as previous research on adaptive performance have concentrated on

business expatriates and students (Griffin *et al*., 2010; Kazmi, Amjad & Khan, 2008; Kommers, Stoyanov, Mileva & Mediano, 2008; Mueller-Hanson *et al*., 2007).

Another contribution to knowledge is the underpinning theories employed to explain the model of the study, including the performance theory by Campbell *et al*. (1993); and Parker and McEvoy's (1993) model, to distinguish among individual (cross-cultural competence), organizational (human resource management practices); and contextual antecedents that may influence adjustments and performance during international assignments. Comprehensive integrated theoretical framework for further research on military setting.

 There are limited empirical studies dedicated to adaptive performance in general, and specifically, in Jordan. The present study also contributes to literature by highlighting the requirement for more empirical research in the future of the same caliber, specifically in non-western countries. The present study provides additional insight from an Eastern perspective on leadership performance. This study also focuses on the international role of the UN members (nonprofit organization).

The research findings are expected to assist the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations, other countries participating in UN missions and the Jordanian Armed Forces in laying down strategies to develop plans (selection, training and compensation) for military leaders serving in UN missions. Moreover, investigations of leaders' adaptive performance have significant implications for the UN, Jordanian policy makers that cater

to professional military leaders. The study is also helpful to Jordanian decision- makers, particularly in the Headquarters, who are directly involved in peacekeeping activity, such as the peacekeeping department. The findings are expected to prove useful for developing strategies to improve the level of the military leaders' work environment, which impacts their performance in UN missions. Additionally, this study can assist human resource management professionals in military organizations in their planning and implementing of appropriate human resource management and cross-cultural training courses for peacekeeping military leaders in international peacekeeping missions.

Furthermore, the findings will also be invaluable for the creation of national policies, particularly those that motivate, support and enhance the development of professional peacekeeping forces and military leaders, which eventually, will impact Jordanian Armed Forces in a positive way and reflect the positive image in international missions. The present study focuses on defining adaptive performance and the knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics that can predict adaptive performance (Cutillo, 2013; Pulakos *et al*., 2000; Tucker & Gunther, 2009).

Finally, the recommendations made through this study will help the UN, as well as Jordan and other countries, to develop leadership and training programs that focus on the adaptive performance of peacekeeping leaders, thereby maximizing and improving leadership behavior, adjustment, leadership capabilities and adaptive performance prior to deployment to a mission area (Monaghan, 2012).

1.8 Definitions of Key Terms

This section aims to clarify in brief some important conceptual definitions used in this study. The concepts and operationalization of variables are detailed in chapters two and three.

Adaptive Performance

Adaptive performance as adjusting one's behavior to meet the demands of a new situation (Pulakos *et al*., 2000).

Cross Cultural Competence

Cross-cultural competence is a set of cognitive, behavioral and affective factors providing individuals the ability to effectively adjust to intercultural environments (Abbe *et al*., 2007).

Cultural Intelligence

Cultural intelligence is defined as the capability of the individual to effectively function in culturally diverse circumstances (Ang *et al*., 2007).

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is the individual's capability to understand and relate to other people's emotions (Bagshaw, 2000).

Social Intelligence

Social intelligence is the individual's capability to understand one's self and thoughts, and behavior of others, to act according to the situation (Marlowe, 1986).

Language Proficiency

A person who is proficient in languages has the ability to communicate using the language both orally and in writing (Johnston, Paris, McCoy, Severe & Hughes, 2010).

Human Resource Management Practices

Human resource management practices refer to the management of an organization's people working there who individually and collectively contribute to the achievement of the organization's goals (Armstrong, 2006).

Adjustment

Adjustment is the process and result of change induced in individuals by the move into an unfamiliar host cultural environment (Black and Mendenhall, 1991).

1.9 Organization of the Study

The current study is divided into five chapters. The following provides an overview of each chapter's contents. Chapter one provides the background and the problem statement of the study, significance of the study and scope of the study. Chapter two discusses the review of relevant literature on each variable by presenting arguments of previous studies

in the area and synthesizing those arguments to be able to position this study in the body of knowledge. Chapter three sheds light on the research methodology of the study; then framework and hypothesis development are discussed. This chapter also offers the research design, population and sampling techniques, data collection procedure, instrumentation and data analysis strategy. Chapter four presents the data analysis using Smart Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) and the study findings. Chapter five contains discussions, findings and contributions of this study from the perspectives of theory and practice, as well as the limitations and finally the conclusion.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related to the study and examines the theoretical relationship among adaptive performance, cross-cultural competence, international human resource management practices and adjustment. The chapter also expounds on the influence of the above variables on the adaptive performance of Jordanian military leaders deputed on UN peacekeeping missions.

2.2 Adaptive Performance

Job performance is a significant construct owing to its key role in both international and national work environments. According to Sri Ramalu (2010), the concept of job performance is acknowledged in the national environment but its development in the international arena is still ambiguous. Taxonomy of job performance expatriation model argues that job performance includes both the task and contextual dimensions (Caligiuri, 1997). Pulakos *et al.* (2000) developed a model of adaptive job performance providing theoretical framework for adaptive behavior in job performance. However, they found that not all individual differences validate the Adaptive Job Performance model successfully. The dimension of adaptive performance, according to Pulakos *et al.'s* (2000) model, likely influences adaptive behavior. Individual adaptive performance is an

important skill in the workplace due to rapid technological changes and evolving needs (Pulakos *et al.,* 2000). Individuals must be able to change their behavior to effectively handle a variety of situations in the workplace (White *et al.,* 2005).

2.2.1 Conceptualization of Adaptive Performance

The concept of job performance has evolved since Campbell's model of performance (Campbell *et al*., 1993). Since Campbell *et al.'s* (1993) taxonomy, various researchers have made progress in clarifying the concept of performance (Borman & Motowidlo 1993; Campbell *et al.,* 1993; Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999). Borman and Motowidlo (1993) proposed a two dimensional model that separates job performance into a task and a contextual dimension. Task performance refers to an individual's proficiency with which he or she performs activities which contribute to the organization's goals. According to Borman and Motowidlo (1993) and Campbell *et al* (1993), task performance dimension represents the aspect of job performance which, in job analytic terms, is represented by the tasks or duties incumbents perform. Campbell *et al* (1993) consider task performance as the core of the individual's job specific task proficiency.

On the other hand, contextual performance dimension is those aspects of job performance which are not directly related to the technical tasks or duties of the job performed (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). However, Borman and Motowidlo explain that contextual behaviors support the environment in which the technical core must function rather than the technical core itself. Hesketh and Neal (1999) have also persuasively argued that the

current partitioning of the performance domain into task and contextual performance be expanded to include adaptive performance. In the same regard, Campbell (1999) stated that individual job performance (adaptive performance) is a function of knowledge, skills and ability. Adaptive performance is new dimension captures both the task and contextual performance tailored specifically for military leaders working on international peace keeping missions.

However, as the changes in work environments are so rapid, the need for an adaptive leader has become very important (Pulakos *et al.,* 2000; Smith *et al.,* 1997). Further, performance is often conceptualized as performance of a task following a change or the transfer of skills from one task to another. For instance, Kozlowski *et al.* (2001) operationalized adaptability as one's exhibited generalized knowledge and skills from one task to another.The present study reviews the literature that discussed different aspects of job-relevant adaptive performance to develop a definition and a preliminary model that could be used as a starting point for understanding the adaptive performance requirements of jobs. The following eight dimensions of adaptive performance were conceptualized and developed based on this literature review.

Accordingly, Pulakos *et al.* (2000) provided a clear definition of them for adaptive performance. The first dimension is handling emergency situations or crises. The peacekeeping leaders in the UN are responsible for carrying out their missions in various types of environments characterized by unpredictability. These military leaders' ability to be mentally versatile is therefore a requirement. According to Pulakos *et al.* (2000),

handling emergencies or crises refers to reacting with suitable and appropriate urgency in situations rife with life-threatening and dangerous factors, expediting the options for tackling crises and their outcomes, conducting on-the-spot decisions according to focused thinking, maintaining emotional control and objectivity while concentrating on the situation, taking the initiative for actions and handling emergencies in an appropriate manner.

In recent times, the UN peacekeeping mission has been focuses on leaders who are capable of working in uncertain environments that need effective handling. Being able to determine clear options, making quick decisions and maintaining emotional control are attributes that are needed in a general workplace, but this especially holds true in military environments. This is owing to the fact that military leaders often encounter situations where the impacts of their decisions are gauged in life and death outcomes. Also, operational may increase uncertainty and cultural differences, thereby resulting in an environment where adaptive performance is necessary to complete the mission (White *et al.,* 2005).

The second dimension of adaptive performance is work stress handling ability. Handling work stress refers to the practice of being level-headed even when faced with challenging situations or highly demanding workload, remaining calm in the face of unexpected situations, controlling frustration by concentrating effort on constructive answers as opposed to playing the blame game, and practicing resilience and the greatest degrees of professionalism in bad situations. In the context of military leaders, having the ability to

effectively manage stress will directly lead to positive results. However, the nature of peacekeeping missions has become increasingly complex (Ballone, 2000). Peacekeeping missions face particular forms of stresses associated with operating in areas with disease, poor infrastructure, poor security, unfamiliar culture and language problems (Garren, 2007). In the same regard, Thompson and McCreary (2006) opined that inability to handle stress is one of the indicators of adaptive performance.

Related studies in the USA Army show that stress components, such as uncertainty (Leitch, 2005); being away from home (Hosek &Totten, 2002); fear of disease; and environmental stressors, such as heat and cold, affect job performance (Campbell, Ritzer, Valentine & Gifford, 1998).

Creative problem solving is the third dimension of adaptive performance. Specifically, the term is defined as using distinct methods of analyses and producing novel, innovative ideas in relevant areas, including the integration of inconspicuously related information and creating solutions, looking into extensive possibilities that may not be evident, thinking outside the box for an effective approach, creating innovative techniques of obtaining and utilizing resources in case of insufficient resources (Pulakos *et al.*, 2000). In certain instances, peacekeeping leaders encounter situations where the solution entailed may be unclear such situations call for distinct solutions. Peacekeeping leaders should take the initiative to establish a collaborative effort aimed specifically at modifying and enhancing military policies and practices. These policies should encourage military leaders to work diligently, to achieve mission objectives, to make

difficult decisions, to accept responsibility for the unit's performance and to develop willingness in entertaining several approaches in solving problems (Kilcullen, Goodwin, Chen, Wisecarver & Sanders, 1999). Military leaders should develop suitable solutions and their relevant course of action to handle challenging problems (Endsley & Robertson, 2000).

Fourth, physical adaptability is another dimension of adaptive performance, which concerns the adjustment to difficult environmental circumstances, like heat and cold, among others, exerting effort to complete tasks, and being proficient in completing physical tasks as required (White *et al*., 2005). Military leaders have to be physically fit to achieve the mission's goals (White *et al*., 2005), and they have to successfully achieve the goals, while at the same time, adjusting to environmental situations that may influence the mission (Pulakos *et al*., 2000).

Fifth, learning work tasks, technologies and procedures is another dimension. Learning work tasks, technologies and procedures refers to the demonstration of enthusiasm for learning novel methods of carrying out work; doing what is needed to maintain knowledge and skills in an ever-changing environment; expediently and effectively learning new tasks; looking into training for new tasks; adapting to new processes and procedures; expecting work demand changes; identifying and participating in assignments that will contribute to smooth transition; and adopting action to improve work performance deficiencies (Pulakos *et al*., 2000).

The sixth dimension is uncertain and unpredictable work situations (Pulakos *et al*. (2000) in dealing with unclear and unpredictable work situations, specifically taking necessary effective action after a clear picture of the overall scenario emerges; smoothly shifting gears to respond to crucial events and situations; modifying plans effectively to tackle changing situations; following regulations that concentrate on a more dynamic synergy; clarifying ambiguous situations; and pro-actively working in uncertain and ambiguous situations. Peacekeeping leaders' interaction with host personnel and the unit's members is reflective of a successful mission or otherwise. This is because military leaders, in addition to working in new and unfamiliar cultural environments must interact with the different cultural values and expectations of the local people. The lack of cultural sensitivity and awareness could lead to uncomfortable situations for both military leaders and the local population (Center for Advanced Defense Studies, 2006).

The seventh dimension of adaptive performance concerns interpersonal adaptability. It covers the understanding of others' needs and motives, particularly cultures (White *et al*., 2005). According to Pulakos *et al*. (2000), interpersonal adaptability entails flexibility, open-mindedness and cooperation when dealing with others; being a good listener, considerate to other's points of view and changing one's opinion when the situation calls for it; being receptive to negative/developmental feedback concerning work, cooperating and maintaining relationship with other personalities. Military leaders should possess interpersonal adaptability when conducting operations involving indigenous peoples. A high level of interpersonal adaptability is required when working with peers and other peacekeeping forces. It is important that military leaders possess knowledge and skills to

interact with individual members of the host country (Abbe & Halpin, 2009). Military leaders should possess communication skills, negotiation skills, conflict resolution skills, persuasion skills and collaborative skills (Pulakos *et al.,* 2000; Zaccaro, 2001a).

The final dimension of adaptive performance is displaying cultural adaptability, which refers to learning and understanding the climate, orientation, requirements of group values, organizations and cultures, integrating and adapting to different values, customs, norms and cultures, modifying behavior to adhere to and respect values and customs of others. In fact, cultural adaptability is one of the pillars of being a peacekeeping leader. Military leaders often carry out their mission by, with or via the host country. Hence, cultural adjustment is important when working with indigenous forces; sending soldiers from one country to another for a dangerous mission needs cultural adaptability as customs and traditions of countries may clash with the national culture of the forces.

In other words, peacekeeping forces should be able to adjust to the new culture to make sure that they succeed in their mission. Culture training is important in order to adapt easily to achieve mission tasks (Shurrman, 2013). Different terms, such as adaptability and adaptive performance, have been used interchangeably in the literature (Lang & Bliese, 2009; Jundt, 2010). A study by Musallam (2011) on Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) used job adaptability and the eight dimensions by Pulakos *et al*. (2000), as having the same meaning as adaptive performance.

2.2.2 Definitions of Adaptive Performance

Job performance refers to behaviors that can contribute to organizational goal accomplishment. Job performance constitutes behaviors and actions that are relevant to an organization's goals. Pulakos *et al.* (2000) defined adaptive performance as adjusting one's behavior to meet the demands of a new situation. In this case, two things must happen for adaptive behavior to be possible: first, the environment must change; and second, the individual must deal with the change in an effective way. Adaptive performance entails responding effectively to change, when a behavioral change becomes necessary (Chan, 2000; White *et al.,* 2005). Ployhart and Bliese (2006) defined adaptive performance as an individual's ability, skill, disposition, willingness and/or motivation to change or fit into different tasks and social and environmental features.

The importance of adaptive military leaders lies in the fact that the army needs military leaders who can influence others by providing direction and motivation, while operating in a complex environment of uncertainty and ambiguity to achieve mission goals and improve the organization (Mueller-Hanson *et al.,* 2009); and by how a leader assists others to solve any problem (DeRue &Wellman, 2009). An individual such as military leader first has to realize the need to change based on some current change in the environment. Second, he has to adjust his behavior as appropriate and third, in order to be adaptive, an individual must be aware and recognize when an adjustment in action is needed as a response to a change in the environment (reactive); or as an action to shape the environment (proactive) (Mueller-Hanson *et al.,* 2007).

Dempsey (2011) stated that the concept of operational adaptability is similar to adaptive performance. It is the ability to shape conditions and respond effectively to changing threats and situations with appropriate, flexible and timely actions. Change actions must lead to more effective functioning, evaluating the result of this change and making more adjustments to achieve the required result (Mueller-Hanson *et al;* 2007).

Kozlowski *et al*. (2001) defined adaptive performance as one's exhibited generalized knowledge and skills from one task to another. In addition, adaptability is an individual's aptitude that is developed through education, training and experience (White *et al.,* 2005). Finally, adaptive performance used in this study is defined as is an effective change in reaction to a changed circumstance (Dorsey *et al*., 2006).

2.2.3 Expatriate Performance Model

Parker and McEvoy (1993) developed the Expatriate Effectiveness model that distinguishes between individual, organizational and contextual antecedents that may influence the international assignment adjustment and the outcome of job performance. The Parker and McEvoy (1993) model of intercultural adjustment are targeted at expatriates' intercultural adjustment and performance.

Individual
Work preparation/experience
Education
Host language fluency
Personality characteristics:
   Extraversion, Open-mindedness,
   Empathy, and Flexibility
Self-efficacy
Perception and relation skills
Pre-departure knowledge of host country
Motivation to go abroad
Free time spent with locals vs. other
expatriates

Contextual
Urban/rural location
Family/spouse adaptation
Culture novelty

Adjustment
Work
General living
Interaction

Performance
Turnover
Absenteeism
Early returns
Performance

Organizational
Compensation and benefits
Repatriation/career practices
Promotion opportunities
Length of opportunities
Extent of home office contact
Mentor assignment
Relocation assistance
Work assignment
Role clarity, job challenge
Expatriate/repatriate training
Organizational culture
Organization size

Figure 2.1
Expatriate Performance Model
Source: Parker and McEvoy (1993)

The model in Figure 2.1 show the difference between individual, organizational and contextual antecedents that can have an effect on the work, living conditions and interactions in the country to which a person is expatriated to. Focus on the individual (host's language fluency, self-efficacy and knowledge of host country) and these variables are important in international assignments, organization (compensation and benefits and training), adjustment (work, general living and interaction) and performance

contributes to investigations of cross-cultural competence (language of the host country and knowledge of host country), human resource management practices (training and compensation and benefits), and adjustments (socio-cultural and psychological adjustment) and performance (adaptive performance). Equally important are skills, knowledge and language of the mission area, and skills and ability to perform duties, thereby increasing adaptive performance in order to accomplish specific goals (e.g., peace and security settlement).

2.2.4 Theory of Performance

The performance theory of Campbell *et al*. (1993) focuses on knowledge, skills and ability to predict job performance. Theoretically, adaptive performance is a function of knowledge, skill, ability, and others (e.g., motivation to execute the mission even under difficult conditions) (Campbell, 1999). It includes an action that is relevant to organizational goals (e.g., accomplishment of peace agreement or work assignment). Language is considered as an individual's skill to enhance job performance (Parker and McEvoy, 1993). The job performance theory indicates that job performance is a multi-dimensional construct consisting of the mission dimension (deadline-driven) and contextual dimension (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). In peacekeeping missions, leaders are expected to perform well in task and contextual performance dimensions and accomplish specific goals to achieve a certain mission (e.g., peace and security settlement). The performance theory is an influential theory in the investigation of job performance and has been used by scholars in empirical studies (Sri Ramalu, 2010).

2.2.5 Empirical Studies on Adaptive Performance

Empirical studies dedicated to adaptive performance are still limited (Mueller-Hanson *et al;* 2005). Majority of the studies have focused on the performance of business expatriates. Adaptive performance is considered as the key to operational success among peacekeeping military leaders.

A study by Sri Ramalu (2010) examined the expatriates' effectiveness in terms of job performance in Malaysia. In the study involving a sample of 332, he found that cultural intelligence enhances job performance. Similary, a study by Jing and Yingqian (2011) focused on transformational leadership on employees' adaptive performance using a sample of 364 staff found that performance has a positive impact. Additionally, Karami (2001) examined the effectiveness of human resource management practices on the performance of the electronic manufacturing industry, particularly in highly technical small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). Through a sample of 500 SMEs, Karami noted that increasing the core competencies of the firm, particularly the human resource management practices, is the key to a firm's success. Griffin *et al.* (2010) conducted a study on leadership vision and development of adaptive performance. Their result showed that leadership vision leads to an increase in employee performance, particularly for employees who are open to role change. A study by Atteya (2012) in the petroleum sector in Egypt, revealed that human resource management practices effect job performance.

Other researchers have investigated the effects of job stress on adaptive performance, and found that excessive job stress can lead to staff turnover, absenteeism because of illness, and decreased work quality, job satisfaction and performance (Kazmi *et al.,* 2008). Hassan and Dialo (2013) conducted a study among expatriates in five private colleges in Malaysia using a sample of 100 respondents. The result found a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and expatriates' job performance. Kommers, Stoyanov, Mileva and Martínez Mediano (2008) studied the effect of adaptive performance on the support system of learning achievements in the Open University of the Kingdom of Netherlands. The researchers found that students working with an adaptive performance support system obtained higher scores than students using non-adaptive performance system. Similarly, Stokes, Schneider and Lyons (2008) examined a causal model of adaptive performance in the Midwestern University, USA. Their results showed that the causal model supports divergent measurement methods for adaptive performance. Therefore, if a person [the leader] has high work satisfaction, he or she will show high adaptive performance (Narimawati, 2007).

A study in the USA Army shows that uncertainty (Leitch, 2005), being away from home (Hosek & Totten, 2002), fear of disease and environmental stressors, such as heat and cold, affect job performance (Campbell *et al*., 1998). Shard, Lustier and Christopher (2007) investigated the adaptive performance of junior leaders in the USA Army. Their results showed that high levels of adaptive performance are present particularly for military leaders who have served in UN operations. Leaders with experience performed

better on tests of adaptive thinking, and this performance increases with rank. Their findings revealed a significant relationship between leadership experience and adaptive performance. Therefore, experience is a critical predictor of adaptive performance.

Studies on the adaptive performance of UN peacekeeping forces are limited. Several empirical studies in the past have focused on the performance of expatriates and students (Stokes *et al.,* 2008; Griffin *et al.,* 2010; Kommers *et al.,* 2008), such as performance effectiveness, adaptive performance and development of adaptive leaders (Pulakos *et al.,* 2000; Pulakos *et al*., 2002; Shardrick *et al.,* 2007). Generally, these studies have revealed that adaptive thinking, experience and leader's vision have significant relationship with adaptive performance. Peacekeeping leaders can mitigate the effect of stress through training programs to deal and adjust successfully with new environments and to maintain a better level of adaptive performance in mission areas (Leitch, 2005).

In line with this, peacekeeping missions require military leaders who can manage effectively in multicultural environments and develop their knowledge and skills that can enhance their adaptive performance. Therefore, further studies are needed on the adaptive performance of the peacekeeping leaders of the UN. The current study examines the importance of the adaptive performance of peacekeeping forces from a non-Western viewpoint.

2.3 Cross-cultural Competence

Cross-cultural competence (CCC) is the ability to quickly understand the host culture, and at the same time, act effectively (Abbe *et al*., 2007). Cross-cultural competence prepares individuals to attain the skills needed for problem resolution, stress coping, communication, language acquisition, experience in living among other cultures and tolerance for ambiguity (McDonald, McGuire, Johnston, Selmeski & Abbe, 2008). Johnson *et al*. (2006) revealed that several definitions of cross-cultural competence include the ability to effectively function in a different culture. Deardorff (2009) found that cross-cultural competence enhances the ability to better work with people in and of different cultures and origins.

Generally, cross-cultural competence refers to a set of cognitive, behavioral and affective/motivational elements providing the individuals the ability to effectively adapt to intercultural environments (Abbe *et al.,* 2007). Cross-cultural competence can determine the success or failure of a mission in the current operating environment (McCloskey, Grandjean, Kyle, Behymer & Ross, 2010).

The concept of cross-cultural competence deems knowledge as a very important component. Cultural knowledge is more effective when military leaders accompany it with skills and affect. Military leaders also need the ability to use situational cues to determine when and how culture is relevant, as well as other skills for interacting with individual members of the host country (Abbe & Halpin, 2009). Abbe *et al.* (2007)

developed a cross-cultural competence framework for military leaders, which involves capability that contributes to intercultural effectiveness, regardless of the coming together of cultures. This capability comprises knowledge, skills and affect/motivation used by an individual to be successful in dynamic cultural settings. Under this framework, cultural competence is a developmental construct, because an individual's knowledge, skills and affect/motivation evolve radically over time.

Cross-cultural competence in peace missions can allow military leaders to adapt to culture when interacting with the locals. Such a skill is also necessary for expatriates when they adjust in foreign countries (Abbe *et al.,* 2007). In addition, cross-cultural competence is a crucial element for military leaders during their interaction with people of various cultures (Semleski, 2009). It is evidenced that individuals with cross- cultural competence have better adjustment in the host country (Gabrenya *et al*., 2011a). In summary, cross-cultural competence among military leaders is the capability to enhance intercultural effectiveness (Abbe *et al.,* 2007).

McCloskey *et al.* (2010) found that cross-cultural competence can determine mission success in the operating environment. In line with this, the peacekeeping mission requires military leaders who can manage effectively in multicultural environments. Although it is assumed that military leaders can enhance their multicultural skills as well as their subordinates' skills through international UN assignments, it is clear that it is how leaders translate these overseas experiences into knowledge and skills that can enhance their adaptive performance (White *et al*., 2005).

Furthermore, it is important for leaders in international missions not only to adjust to the new host country's culture but also to help the soldiers understand host country cultures and enhance their cultural competence. In the military setting, modern military forces have to adjust to new roles of operations beyond warfare [peacekeeping operations], and among the new competencies identified for leadership in the new operating environment is cultural competence (Kok-Yee, Van Dyne & Soon, 2005). In order to succeed, soldiers [military leaders] require the ability to rapidly adjust to another cultural environment even in the absence of extensive knowledge of the region (McCloskey *et al.,* 2010).

In this study, four skill areas are identified as critical for effective adaptive performance among military leaders deputed on peacekeeping missions: (a) cultural intelligence (CQ); (b) emotional intelligence (EQ); (c) social intelligence (SQ); and (d) language proficiency.

2.3.1 Components of Cross Cultural Competence

2.3.1.1 Cultural Intelligence

Cultural Intelligence (CQ) is a construct comprising: (a) cognitive dimension; (b) motivational dimension; (c) meta cognitive dimension; and (d) behavioral dimension (Earley & Ang, 2003). CQ refers to the capability of an individual to function in various cultural circumstances effectively (Ang *et al*., 2007). An individual requires knowledge in various cultures in order to face the needs of the international community effectively.

Also, an individual with a high level of CQ is able to learn in new cultural environments and adapt to new cultures easily (Deng & Gibson, 2008). CQ is an important determinant of effective performance and interaction among diverse cultural environments (Amiri Moghimi & Kazemi, 2010; Isfahani, Jooneghani & Azar, 2013).

CQ allows people [leaders] to find out how others think and how they respond to behavioral patterns, in order to reduce intercultural barriers and manage cultural diversity (Abzari & Khani, 2010). CQ is a new domain of intelligence, which is closely related to diverse work environments, and it provides people [leaders] with a framework and a language to understand the differences and capitalize on them, not just ignore them (Isfahani *et al.*, 2013).

Dimensions of CQ have been developed by Ang *et al*. (2007). Researchers (Olders, Chernyshenko and Stark, 2008; Sri Ramalu, 2010) highlighted its four components as cognitive, motivational, meta-cognitive and behavioral. CQ components are: cognitive CQ-acquired knowledge about a certain culture (Imai & Gelfand, 2010), reflecting traditions in different cultures acquired through training, experience and cultural distance, including recognizing economic, religious, legal and social systems in culture and the value bases. People [leaders] with cognitive CQ can appreciate cultural similarities and differences (Ang *et al*., 2007).

The second component, motivational CQ, is a self-concept, which directs and motivates one to adapt to new cultural surroundings. Knowing oneself is not sufficient for high

cultural intelligence because awareness does not guarantee flexibility. A certain level of cognitive flexibility is critical to CQ since new cultural situations require constant reshaping, and people and leaders must be motivated to use this knowledge and produce a culturally appropriate response (Ang *et al.,* 2007). Early and Ang (2003) conceptualized motivational CQ as the drivers of performance that originate from within an individual; and self-efficacy as people's belief that they can be effective on a given mission. Ang *et al.* (2007) found that motivation is linked to cultural adaptation in expatriate managers. Motivation is important for CQ since it stimulates more effort and leads to the expansion of personal search for the best ways of adapting to new situations (Imai & Gelfand, 2010).

The third component, meta-cognitive CQ refers to a person's cognitive processing to recognize and understand expectations that are appropriate for cultural situations. It consists of two elements: knowledge and experience (Earley & Ang, 2003). Further, people from certain cultures possess meta-cognitive characteristics that differ from people from another culture (Shaffer & Miller, 2008).

The fourth component, behavioral CQ, reflects the ability to utilize culturally sensitive communication and behavior when interacting with people from cultures different from one's own. This component reflects a person and leader's ability to acquire or adapt to behaviors appropriate for a new culture. Individuals who are high in behavioral CQ show an ability to interpret indirect messages and adapt to communication with others. As matter of fact, Imai and Gelfand (2010) found that behavioral CQ predicts sequences of

cooperative relationship management behaviors in negotiations. Moreover, the external factors of CQ, motivational and behavioral, are directly related to how people adjust to their surrounding environment.

Thomas (2006) developed a CQ model that categorizes CQ into three components: knowledge, behavioral abilities and mindfulness. Thomas focused on cultural development, and provided indicators of performance across competence levels. CQ is one of the most important factors that affect employees'[leaders'] performance, and thus can be used as a criterion to select leaders based on their activities and determining training for leaders to improve effectiveness (Isfahani *et al*., 2013).

In general, most of the research on CQ has been conducted in the expatriate sector, these research have revealed that CQ predicts a variety of important outcomes in intercultural contexts, such as expatriate performance (Ng, Van Dyne & Ang, 2012).

Ang *et al*. (2007) noted that behavioral and meta-cognitive CQ has a significant and positive relationship with job performance. Kelidbari *et al*. (2012) posited that there is a positive relationship among CQ, cognitive and motivation aspects and job performance. Fakhreldin (2011) conducted a study in Egypt and found positive relationship between CQ and performance.

In theory, adaptive performance is a function of knowledge, skills, ability, etc. An action that is congruent with organizational objectives is deemed to be part of the job

performance of an individual. In addition, the knowledge, skills and motivation aspects of CQ of an individual are important in different environments and cultures. Many previous empirical studies have revealed the relationship between CQ and performance. Amiri *et al.* (2010) found the relationship between cognitive, metacognitive and motivational dimensions of CQ and [leaders] performance is significant. Additionally, Sri Ramalu (2010), in a study on expatriates in Malaysia, found that CQ is an essential factor of cross-cultural competence that facilitates expatriates' job performance in international assignments. A study by Isfahani *et al.* (2013) in Iran indicated that a positive relationship between CQ and employee performance.

There are few studies that have investigated the relationship between CQ and job performance (Ang *et al.,* 2007; Rose, 2007; Lee & Sukoco 2010; Sri Ramalu, 2010). All these studies found a significant and positive relationship between CQ and job performance. CQ is an important factor in interaction within and among diverse cultural environments (Ang *et al.,* 2007; Amri, 2010; Reza *et al.,* 2012; Sri Ramalu, 2010). A recent study found that CQ predicts outcomes, such as decision-making, effectiveness of leaders and task performance better than EQ (Moon, 2010; Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne & Annen, 2011; Ward, Fischer, Lam & Hall, 2009).

Previous empirical research has focused on how CQ alters effectiveness and adjustment of expatriates. For instance, Lee and Sukoco (2010); and Sri Ramalu (2010) found that the effect of CQ on expatriate adjustment and cultural effectiveness is positive. Ang *et al*. (2007) discovered that motivational CQ is linked to cultural adjustment in expatriate

managers. Sri Ramalu (2010) studied expatriates in Malaysia, using a sample of 332 expatriates, and found that CQ is an essential factor in cross-cultural competence that facilitates expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment in international assignments. CQ is found to have a significant effect on international business (Fakhreldin, 2011). In line with this, a study by Thomas & Inxon (2004) revealed the significant relationship between cognitive and motivational aspects of CQ and employees' adjustment and performance. CQ also has a significant influence on expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment (Kumar *&* Sri Ramalu, 2008).

Similary, Lee and Sukco (2010) found that expatriates with a high level of cultural intelligence have high level of cultural adjustment; on the other hand, expatriates with low CQ have a lower level of cultural adjustment. Additionally, other research (Ang *et al*., 2007; Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Sri Ramalu, 2010; Ward *et al*., 2008) have indicated a significant relationship between CQ and cross-cultural adjustment. These results have shown that the greater the CQ level, the greater the cross-cultural adjustment level.

2.3.1.2 Emotional Intelligence

Salovay and Meyer (1990) defined the second cross-cultural competence factor, i.e., emotional intelligence (EQ), as the ability to monitor one's own feelings and feelings and emotions of others and to discriminate among them so as to guide one's thinking and actions. Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) defined EQ as the following: (a) the ability to accurately and adaptively perceive, appraise and express emotions; (b) the

ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; (c) the ability to access and generate feelings to facilitate cognitive and adaptive actions; and (d) the ability to regulate emotions not only in oneself but also in others. In addition, it is the ability to perform accurate reasoning based on emotions, and using the emotional knowledge to develop thought (Mayer, Roberts & Barsade, 2008). Bagshaw (2000) defined EQ as the ability to understand and relate to people.

EQ can be learned and enhanced in the workplace. A person's behavior can be changed with EQ, leading to improved personal adaptive performance. EQ can also expand leaders' decision-making capabilities (Weston, 2010). Jordan and Troth (2004) found that EQ influences the preferred style of conflict resolution by employees, thus contributing to improved understanding of organizational performance and its determinants. Goleman's (1995) EQ builds on the work done by Salovey and Mayer (1990). There are four dimensions of EQ: (a) self-emotion appraisal (SEA) - to have good sense, certain feelings most of the time, understand one's own emotions and feelings; (b) others' emotion appraisal (OEA) - know friends' emotions from their behavior and observation and be sensitive to the feelings of other people's emotions; use of emotion (UOE) - to set goals and encourage one self and try hard to achieve them; and regulation of emotion (ROE) - to control one's own emotions, rationally handle difficulties and be calm when agitated (Ping &Yue, 2010).

Emotions have an impact on everything that people do (Bagshaw, 2000). An individual's EQ can be seen to dictate interpersonal relationships; despite this, many managers

[leaders] in the workplace prefer not to deal with emotional issues (Ping &Yue, 2010). Research by Cooper (1997) found that emotions have successful outcomes and can drive loyalty, commitment and trust, as well as accomplishment in the individual sphere (Cooper, 1997). It is believed that if someone has the best training in the world, and high intelligence level, the person would still not make a good leader without EQ.

Goleman's (1998) study has shown that EQ is more important at all workplace levels compared to technical skills. EQ facilitates individual adjustment and change (Quy, 1999). In addition, people who have developed skills related to EQ understand their own emotions, recognize others' emotions and use emotions to motivate adaptive behaviors (Mayer & Salovey, 2000). Schutte *et al*. (1998) posited that EQ is linked to affective outcomes, for example, lower levels of depression and impulsivity and more optimistic outlook. EQ is linked positively to task mastery and life satisfaction; and negatively to depression and its symptoms (Martinez-Pons, 1997). In line with this, supervisors' use of emotions is optimistically connected to employees' job satisfaction (Kafetsios, Nezlek & Vassiou, 2011). In a study by Kong Zhao and You (2012) in China, the participants were 678 Chinese adults with an age range of 18-35 years. The scale used consisted of four dimensions consistent with Mayer and Salovey's (1997) definition of EQ: SEA, OEA, ROE and UOE. Results revealed that Chinese adults with higher levels of EQ had an increase in their life satisfaction. A related study by Affandi and Raza (2013) in Pakistan investigated the relationship between leaders' EQ and employee performance. The sample consisted of 92 medical doctors working in various hospitals across Pakistan. Results indicated that leaders' EQ is positively linked to employee performance.

Nawi, Redzuan, and Hamsan (2012) undertook research in Malaysia; their findings are that personality traits have a positive and significant correlation with overall EQ among school leaders. EQ can provide persons [leaders] with strong understanding, assign guidelines for current performance and provide a process for behavioral changes, leading to performance improvement. Weston (2010) said that an intuitive manager [leader] has special skills that can be more valuable in a dynamically evolving environment. Cartwright and Pappas (2008) concluded that EQ may have implications for the selection and development of employees, particularly those involved in stressful jobs.

Hassan and Dialo (2013) studied expatriates in five private colleges in Malaysia comprising 100 respondents, and found a positive relationship between EQ and job performance of expatriates. Sy, Tram and O' Hara (2006) examined the relationship between EQ and performance of employees and found that employees' EQ is associated with job performance positively.

Previous experiences highly influence EQ. An individual's EQ indicates how he or she interacts with others and understands him or herself so as to successfully interact with people; in so doing, they adjust their behavior towards task achievement (McFarland, 2005). Shahzad, Sarmad, Abbas and Khan (2011) conducted a study in Pakistan and found a positive relationship between EQ and employee performance. EQ enhances work performance by enabling people [leaders] to work effectively (Seibert, Kraimer & Liden, 2001); and to regulate their emotions to cope with stress and perform effectively

under work pressure. In their study, Bhalla and Nauriyal (2004) reported that EQ is useful for understanding and predicting an individual's work performance. Lyons and Schneider (2005) examined the relationship between ability-based aspects of EQ facets and performance under stress; they posited that high levels of EQ promote improved performance levels.

EQ is confirmed to be a strong predictor of job performance (Cote & Miners, 2006). Sy *et al.* (2006) investigated the relationship between EQ and job performance. The results reveled that employees' EQ is positively related to satisfaction and job performance. Furthermore, Khokhar and Kush (2009) found a link between EQ and effective job performance. The findings of the study revealed that executives [leaders] with high level EQ showed better quality of job performance. In addition to job performance, other behavioral outcomes have attracted research attention and job satisfaction is one of them. Previous studies have investigated the relationship between EQ and job satisfaction. Chiva and Alegre (2008) examined the relationship between EQ and job satisfaction. The results showed that individuals with high EQ are likely to have high levels of job satisfaction. Similarly, Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008); and Najafi and Mousavi (2012) carried out a study on the relationship between EQ and job satisfaction. The results revealed that a significant relationship exists between EQ and job satisfaction. Khalili (2011) found that there is a significant and positive relationship between EQ and organizational commitment.

The EQ of SEA, OEA, UOE and ROE are very important to the leaders (Ping &Yue, 2010). Afolabi (2010), in a study among police officers in Nigeria, which reported that officers with EQ are more satisfied and perform better than those without EQ. Shakuntala and Santosh (2011) found a significant positive relationship between EQ and adjustment. In addition, a study by Affandi and Raza (2013) investigated the relationship between a leader's EQ and the quality of work life. The sample consisted of 92 medical doctors working in various hospitals across Pakistan. Results indicated that leaders' EQ is positively linked to quality of work life. Leaders who use their emotions intelligently always build good relationship with others by providing them helpful environment which results in successful adjustment (Affandi & Raza, 2013). Akerjordet and Severinsson (2008) said that leaders' EQ facilitates and motivates others and creates a healthy environment. Rose (2007) concluded that cultural gaps in unfamiliar environments should be bridged to accomplish the mission; thus, working with different cultures requires sensitivity to cultural differences.

2.3.1.3 Social Intelligence

The third cross-cultural competence is social intelligence (SQ), which affects a person's ability to interact with and understand people and act wisely in interactive relations (Goleman, 2006). SQ is also the ability to act appropriately in human relations (Marlowe, 1986).

SQ is a person's ability to understand his or her own feelings as well as other people's feelings, thoughts and behaviors and to react appropriately based on the understanding (Marlowe, 1986). SQ is one of the pillars of cross-cultural competence skills; SQ can help leaders to adapt to new cultural settings. People's [leaders'] understanding of SQ can inspire other people from diverse cultural backgrounds; SQ makes them think about the feelings and needs of others, know the cultural values of the group, establish strong interactions with them to adjust and attain the goals of the mission (Goleman, 2006). Fernandez (1991) posited that the most important way to be successful [in interacting with diverse others] is 'to know and understand who you really are; [it also] demands that you have a clear understanding of the psychological mindset of the people you are dealing with'. SQ can increase creativity and problem solving skills (Kolski-Anderaco, 2010).

In addition, SQ aspects have been found to be linked to improved ability to solve problems, experiences and positive interpersonal experience (Dong *et al*., 2005). SQ elements can lessen stress through greater understanding, by moderating conflicts and enhancing stability and cooperation (Kolski-Anderaco, 2010). Research has shown that SQ is multi-faceted and can be distinguished from general intelligence domains (Marlowe, 1986). Chen, Yien, Huang and Huang (2011) investigated the relationship between social support, adjustment and work performance in Taiwan, using a sample of 213 expatriates; their findings indicated that the higher the level of social support, the better the work performance of the individual.

The above review indicates that many studies have shown the importance of SQ of expatriates in work assignment or business settings (Cheng, Chiu, Hong & Cheung, 2001; Goleman, 2006; Schneider, Ackerman & Kanfer, 1996). The study by Jeloudar, Yunus, Roslan and Sharifah (2012) in Malaysia to analyze the level of SQ among teachers in government secondary schools revealed that there is a significant difference among the teachers from India, China and Malaysia and their respective SQ. Also, the study showed that there is a significant difference in teachers between moderate and high levels of SQ; teachers with high level of SQ scored higher in classroom social interactions, involvement, discussion, active management in learning, self-motivation and recognition. The peacekeeping forces must be capable of operating in diverse environments in which there is a need to understand local culture, social structure and language (McFate & Jackson, 2005). SQ is crucial for effective leadership and can facilitate effectiveness and subsequently, success of leaders (Beheshtifar & Roasaei, 2012).

2.3.1.4 Language

Language is the fourth cross-cultural competence. A person who is proficient in languages has the ability to communicate using the language both orally and in writing (Johnston *et al*., 2010). Researchers have shown that language is important for better understanding of culture. Language ability is a significant predictor of interaction adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.,* 2005) and performance (Mol, Born, Willemsen & Van der Molen, 2005). To be successful in globally competitive environments,

expatriates, besides other international capabilities, need to be fluent in foreign languages so as to be able to adjust to different cultures (Caligiuri, Phillips, Lazarova, Tarique & Bürgi, 2001). Being fluent in the language of the host country is very important (Jackson, 2005).

To prepare for UN operations, leaders should emphasize on learning the culture and language of the host country, as much as learning combat skills; both are equally important to achieve mission goals (Abee *et al*., 2007). Foreign language skills can enhance the abilities and skills of peacekeeping leaders. The learning of foreign languages (English, Russian, French and Spanish), in the school, university and even in the workforce can improve adaptive performance of peacekeeping military leaders. With language fluency, peacekeeping leaders can effectively engage foreign people. With good language proficiency, military leaders can show their respect for other cultures (Shurrman, 2013). Military leaders have to bridge the cultural gaps but often, lack the language skills to effectively engage with people of the host country (Roan *et al.,* 2009).

Language skills and the ability to communicate are important factors in cultural adjustment (Takeuchi, Yun & Tesluk, 2002). Xu (2008) undertook a study in China, whereby the results showed that language ability is related significantly to interaction and work adaptation. In this regard, it can be assumed that language skills and cultural understanding play a crucial role in military leader's adaptive performance (Abbe, 2008).

Proficiency in the English language can enhance the adjustment of expatriates. An empirical study by Oddou and Derr (1992) revealed that firm's expatriates must have different skills, and understand different world cultures and language, in order to adjust to the host country. Claus, Lungu and Bhattacharjee (2011) revealed that local language skills are important for overseas assignment adjustment.

2.4 Human Resource Management Practices

The human resource management practices are system policies and practices that can influence individuals' work in organizations. Human resource management practices are defined as organizational activities directed at managing the human resource management pool and ensuring that resources are employed toward the fulfillment of organizational goals (Jackson & Schuler, 1995; Wright & Gardner, 2003). The study identifies three Human resource management practice areas (selection and recruitment, training and development and compensation and benefit) that have been found to be critical among military leaders in peacekeeping missions. The importance of human resource management practices (selection, training, and compensation) primarily stems from the fact that selecting the right leaders (Bratton & Gold, 2007), modern training (Abdullah *et al*., 2009), high motivation and positive reinforcement (McNulty & Tharenou, 2004) can facilitate environmental adjustment, thus improving adaptive performance.

According to Huang (2001), human resource management practice is an area that influences employees' levels of job satisfaction, intention to stay or leave and

organizational commitment. Additionally, from the military perspective, human resource management practices are a series of integrated decisions about the employment relationship that influence the effectiveness of employees and organizations (USA Army War College, 2007). Efficient and effective human resource management practices will produce productive individuals who can minimize the problems related to human resource management, such as absenteeism, dissatisfaction and turnover of employees (Mansour, 2010). The success of these practices is one of the important sources of competitive advantage in the global environment (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1987).

Leon and Megginson (1977) defined human resources management practices as: total knowledge, skills, creative abilities, talents and aptitudes of an organization's workforce, as well as the values, attitudes and beliefs of the individuals involved. Human resource management involves strategically managing employee relations and leveraging on people's capabilities to achieve competitive advantage; these can be achieved through employment policies, programs and practices (Bratton & Gold, 2007). Additionally, Shen (2005) explained human resource management comprises of a set of specific activities, functions and processes that are geared towards the attraction, development and maintenance of human resources of a multi-national corporation (MNC).

Plessis (2010) explained domestic human resource management as covering all the concepts, strategies, policies and practices which organizations use to manage and develop the people who work for them. The only major difference between international human resource management and domestic human resource management is the fact that

one relates to MNCs and the other to local firms. Furthermore, human resource management involves all management decisions and practices that directly or indirectly affect the human resources working for the organization (Armstrong, 2006). Human resource management is aimed at recruiting capable, flexible and committed people, managing and rewarding their performance and developing key competencies (Price, 2004). Nowadays, the core function of human resource management is getting the right people for the right position so that the required output can be achieved by getting work done by the appropriate people through proper motivational packages (Budhwar & Katou, 2010).

Early empirical studies found evidence that link human resource management practices and performance (Huselid, 1995). A significant body of previous research has reported positive association between human resource management practices and organizational performance. These studies focused on the relationship between human resource management practices and performance and the positive impact on organizational performance (Ahmad & Schroeder, 2003; Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Fey & Bjorkman, 2000; Wright & Gardner, 2003). Unfortunately, most of these studies on human resource management practices and organizational performance have been conducted in the Western countries. The present study focuses on the international human resource management activities, including selection, training and compensation management (Sang, 2005; Jarventaus, 2007; Kundu & Malhan, 2007; Rizov & Croucher, 2008), from an Eastern country perspective.

Guthrie (2001) in New Zealand, investigated the impact of human resource management practices on turnover and revealed that international human resource management practices have a positive impact on turnover and productivity, when firms implement high-involvement human resource management practices. The influence of human resource management practices on organizational performance has been an important and a critical area of research (Choi, 2010). A study by Atteya (2012) in Egypt revealed a significant relationship between human resource management practices and job performance. A study by Khan (2010) in Pakistan using a sample of 150 managers showed that recruitment and selection, training and compensation and reward have a positive and significant relationship with performance.

Abdullah *et al*. (2009) studied the effect of l human resource management practices on Malaysian private companies' performance. The sample consisted of 153 managers, and the result showed that support for the human resource management practices (training and development, compensation/incentives) has a positive and significant influence on performance, except compensation/incentives.

Wright, McCormick, Sherman and McMahan (1999) examined the influence of human resource management practices (selection, training and compensation) and the performance of 190 petro-chemical refineries in the USA. Results revealed that international human resource management practices (selection and compensation) are positively related to firm performance. Empirical studies also indicate a strong and positive association between human resource management practices and employee

performance (Katou & Budhwar, 2007). Tsui, Pearce, Porter and Tripoli (1997) found a significant relationship between employee training and development investment, commitment and performance.

In a similar direction, several studies in the USA and Europe revealed that human resource management practices positively influence job performance (Boselie, Dietz & Boon, 2005). Researchers have indicated that essential human resource management practices include training and development (Kundu, 2003), recruitment and selection (Kulik, 2004) and compensation and reward (Milkovich & Newmen, 1999). Ahmad and Schroeders (2003) found that human resource management practices namely, selection and hiring, compensation/incentives and extensive training have significant relationship with performance. The most important human resource management practices are efficient recruitment and selection of leaders, contingency and reward systems and training and development (Boselie *et al.,* 2005).

In the United Kingdom, Karami (2001) examined the effectiveness of human resource management practices on the performance of the electronic manufacturing industry, particularly in highly technical SMEs. Using a sample of 500 SMEs, it was found that human resource management practices are the keys to a firm's success. Mansour (2010) examined the relationship between human resource management practices (selection, training and compensation) result revealed that a positive influence on performance. Wright *et al.* (1999) further confirmed the existence of a direct relationship between training and performance. Wright and Gardner (2003) noted that both organizational

commitment and human resource management practices are significantly related to operational measures of performance. Further, Chand (2010) revealed a positive relationship between human resource management practices and performance. Positive relationships between human resource management practices and organizational performance have been found (Armstrong *et al*; 2008; Birdi *et al*; 2008; Gong, Law, Chang & Xin, 2009).

2.4.1 Human Capital Theory

Human capital resources comprise knowledge, skills and abilities of employees and they affect behavior and performance of employees. Human capital theory postulates that skills, ability, experience and knowledge of employees are deemed as valuable assets that can be managed to increase value in an attempt to benefit the firm. The human capital theory is based on the premise that people/leaders have skills, experiences and knowledge that can be considered as a form of capital (Becker, 1964). According to Becker (1964), this indicates that the unit's level effectiveness is improved through the development of general, as well as specific human capital. Thus, this theory sheds light on decisions concerning planning, development, conservation, compensation and appropriation of human capital resources of the unit (Flamholtz & Lacey, 1981). Human capital is defined as the knowledge developed by and stored in the employees and this, along with structural capital, human capital embodiment, empowerment and supportive infrastructure, form intellectual capital (Edvinsson & Malone, 1997).

Human resource management practices may be considered as investments in human capital that attempt to improve the military leaders' level of skill, knowledge and ability, and in turn, to increase satisfaction, adjustment and adaptive performance. In addition, human resource management culture training can be deemed as an investment that generates future returns to adjust in the mission area. All these factors are expected to facilitate a smooth adjustment, thus enhancing a military leader's adaptive performance.

2.4.2 Recruitment and Selection

Selection strategy is dominated by different factors, such as psychological which include personality characteristics and language fluency. These factors are important for international assignee adjustment and performance (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.,* 2005; Caligiuri *et al;* 2001). According to Bratton and Gold (2007), recruitment is the process of generating a pool of capable people to apply to an organization for employment, and selection is the process by which managers and others use specific instruments to choose a person from a pool of applicants. Recruitment and selection allow firms to choose the appropriate human resources to achieve organizational objectives (Dessler, 2010). Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou and Mazenevski (2008) found that many expatriates are assigned to posts based on technical skills, willingness to go and general competence. Effective international managers have to be open-minded, adaptable, flexible and proficient in international languages (Smith, 1992). Claus *et al.* (2011) revealed several factors should be considered on overseas assignment adjustment, such as local language skills, cultural flexibility, cultural sensitivity, social adaptability, tolerance for

ambiguity, interpersonal interest and people leadership. Stone (1991) addressed international selection criteria, such as the ability to adapt, technical competence, human relations skill, desire to serve overseas, previous overseas experience , understanding host country culture , host country language ability and understanding home country culture. Selecting a suitable expatriate is crucial; therefore, a valid reason should be present when choosing a particular person for an assignment, and not just selecting any person to fill the vacancy (Osland, 2002).

In addition, human resource management practices should identify all the desired skills and search for the best candidate even though finding the ideal person who is both able and willing to go overseas is sometimes impossible (Caliguiri & Cascio, 2002). According to Bratton and Gold (2007), selection is the process by which managers and others use specific instruments to choose from a pool of applicants the person(s) most likely to succeed in the job(s), given management goals and legal requirements. Furthermore, recent research findings suggest that selections continue to be made on a limited basis, such as willingness to be expatriated and previous international experience (Claus, *et al.,* 2011).

Ko and Yang (2011) studied assignment selection systems in an environment in which expatriates need to work effectively. Most MNCs acknowledge that the wrong person in an expatriate assignment can result in poor individual job performance, early repatriation or other emotional problems (Caligiuri *et al.,* 2001). Furthermore, Harel and Tzafrir (1999) found a significant relationship between effective selection practices and

performance. Selecting the best international assignees is a complicated process but critical to the future success of multinational organizations (Scullion & Collings, 2006). Selecting individuals for international assignments is unique given that the selection system focuses on predicting the job context (working internationally) rather than job content (duties and tasks) (Mol *et al*., 2005). Claus *et al*. (2011) found that selection has a vital impact on performance.

Katou (2008) identified significantly positive correlation of human resource management practices, namely selection with organizational performance. Singh (2004) revealed a positive relationship between human resource management practices, like selection, training compensation system and firm performance. One main factor attributed to specific causes of failure appears to be lack of pre-departure cross-cultural training.

A relationship exists between human resource management practices and adjustment. Boselie *et al.* (2005) revealed that the most important human resource management practices are efficient recruitment and selection of leaders, training and development and contingency and reward system. Armstrong (2005) observed that human resource management practices significantly reduce stress and develop individual and organizational effectiveness among expatriates through proper selection, training and compensation.

Finally, recruitment and selection are the essential elements of human resource management practices (Kundo, 2003). According to the selection plan, the selection of peacekeeping leaders is based on the efficiency, experience and adequacy of candidates

to ensure that the right leader is appointed to the right position in order to adjust smoothly (Kulik, 2004). In addition, selecting a particular person for a UN position should be based on the previous experience, skill, language fluency and adjustment capability of the candidate and not just appointing any person to fill a required vacancy (Osland, 2002).

2.4.3 Training and Development

Training is the effective preparation before starting an overseas assignment. Cross-cultural training should include values and attitudes in different stages. Peacekeeping officers should participate in cross-cultural training to meet a certain level of satisfaction and to increase chances of adapting when living in a host country. Gregersen and Black (1992) showed a negative relationship between length of pre-departure training and adjustment to the general environment.

Gomez-Mejia, Balkin and Cardy's (2004) study in China revealed that there is a high failure rate of 20 - 40 % among USA expatriates, which is around three times higher than those experienced by Asian and European company expatriates. Specific causes of failure appear to be lack of pre-departure cross-cultural training. Expatriates want their organizations to eliminate all constraints in their host countries (Gomez-Mejia *et al*., 2004). A positive relationship exists between training and development and performance (Fey & Bjorkman, 2000). Katou (2008) found significantly positive correlation between human resource management practices, namely training, and

organizational performance. Moreover, there is strong evidence that cultural training prior to departure is vital and beneficial (Shin, Morgeson, & Campion, 2007).

In a related study, Abdullah *et al*. (2009) examined the effect of human resource management practices on the performance of private companies in Malaysia. Abdullah revealed that training and development has a positive and significant influence on business performance. Eschbach, Parker and Stoeberl (2001) found that cross-cultural training could aid in hastening and improving the cultural adjustment of trained managers. Lee and Li (2008) suggested that cross-cultural training could ease adjustment by providing expatriates [leaders] with cultural behavior norms that can facilitate their adjustment. The level of satisfaction when living in a host country also has a positive influence on the anticipated duration of stay and adaptability. Additionally, a study by Rizwan *et al*. (2013) in Pakistan found a positive and significant relationship between cultural training and employee performance.

Black and Mendenhall's (1990) study on cross-cultural training noted that training is effective for reducing cross-cultural conflict. Empirical evidence demonstrates that cross-cultural training programs can improve the job performance of expatriate managers. Eschbach *et al*. (2001) also noted that managers with cross-cultural training have experienced decreased adjustment time, less culture shock and decreased time needed to become effective and productive in overseas assignments. Cross-cultural training is an important factor in adaptive performance in overseas missions (Abdullah *et al*., 2009; Eschbach *et al.,* 2001; Lee and Li, 2008). Military leaders who have

undergone cross-cultural training are able to smoothly adjust in the host country and perform better than those without such training.

Pre-departure cross culture training should be implemented at all organizational levels for better adjustment (Koteswari, & Bhattacharya, 2007). Similarly, there is strong evidence that cultural training prior to departure is vital and beneficial and integrated cross-cultural training has a positive influence on expatriate adjustment (Eschbach, 1997).

Hassan and Diallo (2013) conducted a study on the impact of cross-cultural adjustments on expatriates' job performance in Malaysia, using a sample of 100 respondents from five private colleges. The result showed that a positive relationship exists between cross-cultural training and expatriates' adjustment and job performance. Okpara & Kabongo (2011) found that cross-cultural training programs for employees are crucial for successful international operations; these programs also affect the adjustment of expatriates.

2.4.4 Compensation and Rewards

Motivating employees through rewards can positively affect the behavior of employees toward their jobs (Ali & Ahmed, 2009). Compensation contains elements, such as a base salary and annual bonus used to motivate employees towards better performance (Chih-Ying, 2003). Bratton and Gold (2007) defined reward as all monetary, non-monetary and psychological payments that an organization provides for its employees in exchange for

the work they perform. Armstrong and Murl (2007) stated that reward strategies are an important part of an organization's human resource strategy and should be bundled with other human resource strategies so that they complement and reinforce one another. Additionally, proper incentives can influence employees to contribute to the growth of an organization (Dessler, 2010). In this regard, Qureshi Shams and Kashif (2009) concluded that the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are highly correlated to the performance of employees. Moreover, employees feel satisfied and perform better if they feel they are receiving what they deserve (Plessis, 2010).

Masood (2010) found a significant relationship between rewards and performance. Batt (2002) revealed that compensation and rewards have a positive effect on performance. Shahzad *et al.* (2008) posited that there are significantly positive relationships of human resource management practices, i.e., compensation and employee performance. Katou (2008) identified significant positive correlation between human resource management practices, namely compensation and organizational performance. Additionally, creating the right climate involves developing reward systems to reinforce satisfaction, commitment, adjustment and adaptive performance (Zacarro & Banks, 2004). A study by Rizwan *et al*. (2013) in Pakistan found a positive and significant relationship between compensation and employee performance.

Dowling, Welch and Schuler (1999) stated that compensation and benefit packages are provided to convince expatriates to accept a foreign assignment, to be prepared to accept a standard of living overseas and to take advantage of the financial opportunity

through higher income (Andreason, 2003). Compensation packages are often critical factors in motivating expatriates not only to accept international assignments but also to perform jobs in a difficult location (McNulty & Tharenou, 2004). Huselid (1995) found that motivation, through a good reward system, results in increased employee productivity. Using management systems and incentives to enhance performance of employees creates a positive work environment, where individuals feel equitably rewarded for their efforts (Wright, Gardner, Moynihan & Allen, 2005). In contrast, Abdullah *et al*. (2009) examined the effect of human resource management practices on the performance of 153 managers in private companies in Malaysia. The result revealed that compensation/incentives have a negative influence on business performance.

Additionally, motivation is an important factor for peacekeepers and their families; thus, personnel should be given adequate salaries, compensation and rewards (Batt, 2002). The UN provides good salaries (Kulik, 2004), compensations and rewards (Milkovich & Newmen, 1999). Considering that majority of the workforce is from developing countries, higher salary is a good motivator for developing adjustment. Humanitarianism also restores peace; thus, fighting poverty through food and medical aid and protecting civilians should be considered as motivation of peacekeeping forces.

Finally, the headquarters of the peacekeeping force should establish a comprehensive strategy for developing the capabilities of military leaders. The peacekeeping force needs professional education and leadership development training programs to ensure the development of a comprehensive, powerful and sustainable cross-cultural capability

(Kundo, 2003). Programs should be conducted in coordination with the UN headquarters and include cross-cultural training, language learning, adjustment strategies, exposure of leaders to difficult situations to test planning skills, problem-solving strategies and effective decision-making exercises, such as case studies and practical scenarios (Mueller *et al*., 2005).

2.5 Adjustment

The first concept of adjustment is the level of psychological adjustment perceived by the individual in a new society or it is the level to which psychological comfort and familiarity are perceived in such a society. It also refers to the process by which individuals maintain a state of mental and physical well-being in the new environment (Black and Mendenhall, 1991). Adjustment is also the process and result of change induced in individuals by the move to an unfamiliar cultural environment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*., 2005; Black & Mendenhall, 1990, 1991). Haslberger (2005) said that adjustment is a complicated process where a person has to learn to function effectively within a culture different from the one he or she originally socialized in.

Adjustment has two dimensions, namely socio-cultural and psychological. The concept of socio-cultural adjustment in the literature refers to the ability to interact effectively with members of the host country (Ward & Kennedy, 1996). Socio-cultural adjustment is defined in terms of social and behavioral competence as affected by culture-specific factors, such as length of stay in the host country, interactions with local nationals and

language. Additionally, the first conceptualization of socio-cultural adjustment is the degree of adjustment experienced by the individual in a new society or the degree of psychological comfort and familiarity perceived within a new environment (Black & Mendenhall, 1991). Socio-cultural adjustment is therefore the process by which individuals learn to understand their environment to augment their ability to live in an unfamiliar cultural environment (Swagler & Jome, 2005). According to Bhugra and Arya (2005), socio-cultural adjustment is affected by culture factors, such as cultural distance, host country language fluency, length of stay in the host country and interactions with host nationals.

The second conceptualization of adjustment is the psychological adjustment based on a problem-oriented view, focusing on variables of the adjustment process (Juffer, 1986; Oberg, 1960; Ward & Kennedy, 1999). This second conceptualization concentrates more on objective terms, such as performance criteria or turnover-rates of expatriates (Edmond, 2002). Psychological adjustment focuses on the mental health of leaders, such as mood disturbances, self-satisfaction and depressive symptoms (Black & Mendenhall, 1991). Psychological adjustment is therefore the mental make-up of a person and the process by which he or she tries to maintain a sense of mental and physical well-being in the host country (Swagler & Jome, 2005).

Kia-Keating, Grossman, Sorsoli and Epstein (2005) argued that psychological difficulties are associated with depression and negative coping styles and incidences of life changes. The success of an overseas assignment is also significantly influenced by the expatriate's

cross-cultural adjustment in the host country (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Therefore, most expatriate studies focused on the issue of cross-cultural adjustment as one of the important determinants of the success of an overseas assignment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, *et al.,* 2005; Sri Ramalu, 2010).

Extensive cross-cultural research has identified the developmental pathways involved in the adjustment process of peacekeepers to new cultures. Adjustment has been studied in terms of two major categories: psychological and socio-cultural. Psychological adjustment focuses on the mental health of peacekeeping leaders, such as mood disturbances, depressive symptoms and self-satisfaction (Black & Mendenhall, 1991). Socio-cultural adjustment refers to social competence and communication proficiency in the host country (Ward & Searle, 1991).

Positive psychological outcomes, including the ability to cope adequately with the demands of the host culture while persevering in interrelationships, are related to positive life changes. Consequently, low incidence of life changes and adequate social support facilitate psychologically adaptive outcomes (Ward & Searle, 1991). Successful socio-cultural outcomes for peacekeeping leaders are determined by cultural similarities between the local and national culture, level of contact with local people and communication ability of peacekeeping leaders (Bhugra & Arya, 2005).

Physiological and socio-cultural adjustments are important factors for the adaptive performance of peacekeeping forces. Models and theory have been developed to explain

adjustment to new workplaces and the effect of such adjustment on performance (Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Campbell *et al*., 1993).

In a study on China, Japanese business expatriates in China demonstrated less psychological adaptability in work compared to American business expatriates. Better overseas adjustment and interaction with others also enhance the performance of foreign labor and expatriates (Zhou & Qin, 2009). Sri Ramalu (2010) studied expatriates in Malaysia, using a sample of 332 expatriates and found that a positive relationship exists between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance among expatriates in Malaysia.

Additionally, Hassan and Diallo (2013), in a study on the impact of cross-cultural adjustments on expatriate's job performance in Malaysia using a sample of 100 respondents from five private colleges, found that a positive relationship exists between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance. Kumar and Sri Ramalu (2008) found that expatriate adjustment has a significant influence on job performance. In line with this, Lee and Liu (2006) found a significant relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and job satisfaction, which leads to better performance. Chen *et al*. (2011) investigated the relationship between social support, adjustment and work performance in Taiwan, using a sample of 213 expatriates. The finding revealed that better overseas adjustment leads to enhanced work performance of the foreign workers.

Empirical investigations have revealed many predictors of successful adjustment related to performance such as: older age group (Selmer, Lauring & Feng, 2009), cultural

awareness and host language ability (Selmer, *et al.,* 2009), marital status (Selmer, Lauring & Feng, 2009), emotional adaptability (Molinsky, 2007) CQ (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004) and previous international experience (Kase & Yamao, 2011).

In addition, skills, knowledge and motivation are important for leaders to accomplish the unit's tasks. Studies on the adaptive performance of UN peacekeeping forces are very limited. Empirical studies have focused more on the adjustment and performance of business expatriates and students (Chen *et al*., 2011; Sri Ramalu, 2010; Zhou & Qin, 2009). Therefore, more research is needed to cover the relationship between the adjustment and adaptive performance of UN peacekeeping military leaders.

2.5.1 Adjustment Model and Theory

Models and Theories have been proposed in studies involving adjustment. Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) (see Figure 2.2) proposed a model for international assignment adjustment. According to the model, the training provided for expatriates [military leaders], as well as their previous experiences, and selection mechanisms should set precise expectations of overseas missions. Such expectations counteract the negative effects of culture shock. In new areas, adjustment is more complex because it integrates new factors, such as new environment, tasks and the culture of the host country, in which individual skills are related to the degree of adjustment. Higher skills correspond to higher degrees of adjustment in the mission area.
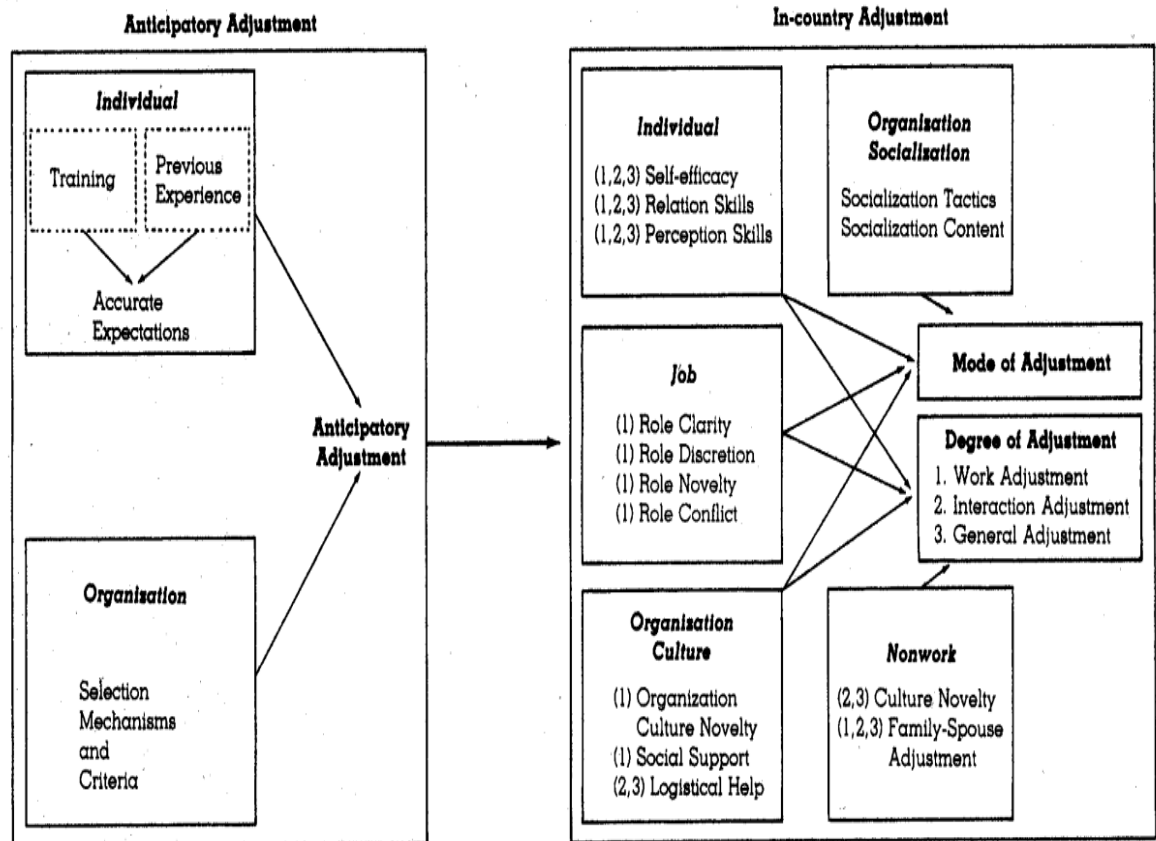
Figure 2.2
Framework for International Adjustment
Source: Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991)

The U-Curve theory is described as the cross-cultural adjustment process of expatriate employees in a host culture (Lysgaard, 1955; Oberg, 1960; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Usunier, 1998). The U-Curve adjustment theory consists of four stages and is based on the original work of Lysgaard (1955).

71
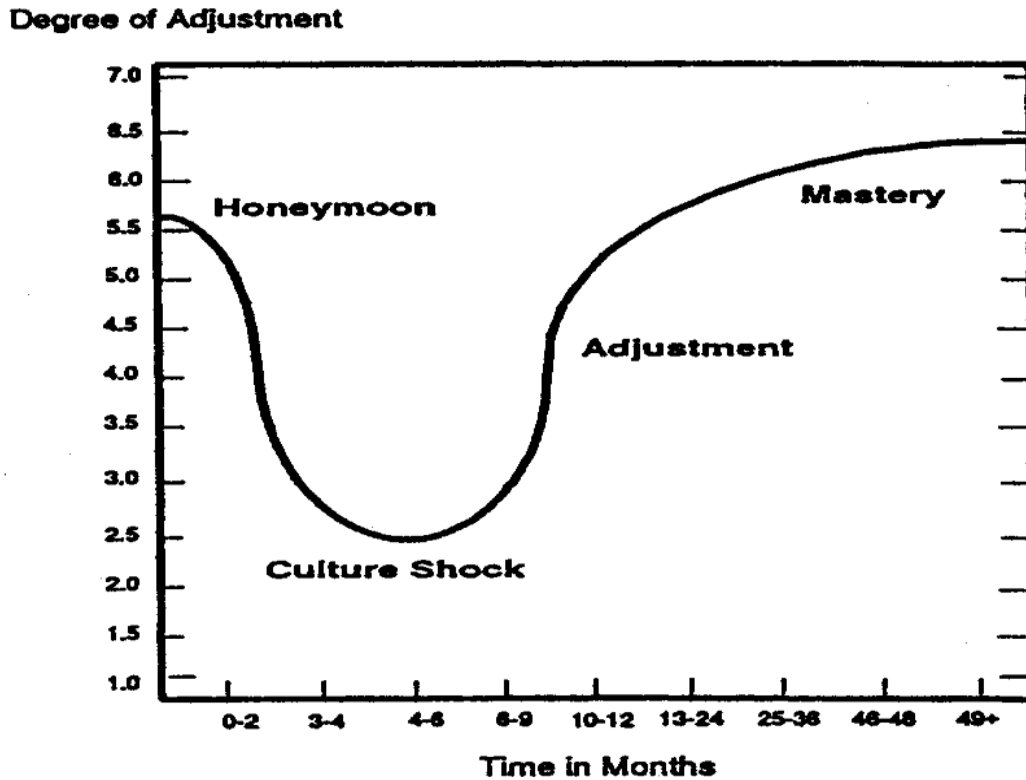
Figure 2.3
The U-curve of cross-cultural adjustment
Source: Lysgaard (1955)

In this study, the theory states that military leaders' adjustment goes through the following stages: (a) the honeymoon stage is the first stage of adjustment, in which military leaders arrive to the mission site, which is a new environment and leaders compare this place to what they have been used to. After eight weeks, cross-cultural comparison starts, and military leaders soon realize that reality is not what they had imagined; (b) the hostility/stereotype stage is the period when culture shock occurs after 12-24 weeks. At this stage, military leaders respond to the new culture with a fight response, which involves criticizing and complaining about the new culture, or a flight response, which involves separating oneself from the new culture and spending time with people from their own culture, rejecting what is new; (c) the recovery stage is the

72

period after 24 weeks ,when military leaders learn to deal with or even embrace cultural differences to achieve their mission; and (d) the adjustment stage is when military leaders adjust to the new culture and interact with the local people. This stage usually takes 24 - 36 weeks to occur. Furthermore, new technology allows for easy interaction with families and friends, which reduces stress in the overseas missions, thus leading to psychological adjustment more than socio-cultural adjustment.

In addition, the time for adjustment varies from leader to leader; normally, the degree of adjustment is measured in terms of factors, such as contact with host nationals, satisfaction with the mission area and attitudes toward host nationals (Black & Mendenhall 1990). Adjustment is marked by the degree of satisfaction in being able to cope to the new environment. Increasing satisfaction arises from better knowledge and culture training before deployment to the mission area and how to function effectively within the host nation environment (Usunier, 1998).

2.6 Review of Empirical Evidence (Gaps)

Cultural awareness training is merely treated as a training task (i.e., tactical training) and a prerequisite rather than a serious educational issue. Therefore, the military leaders are more familiar with cultural concepts than with real skills and knowledge (Cutillo, 2013). However, cultural competence cannot be developed overnight through pre-departure training (Kok-Yee, Van Dyne & Soon, 2005). Previous studies (Abee *et al*., 2007; McFarland, 2005) focused on culture awareness and culture education.

In contrast, the present study discusses new components of cross-cultural competence, such as CQ, EQ, SQ and language. Thus, cross-cultural training should include not only awareness but also cultural competence to reduce stress and facilitate successful adjustment to the new environment to enhance adaptive performance. Cross-cultural competence is not merely briefings on the host country; gaining cross cultural competence needs many years of education and experience (Febbraro, 2008; Selmeski, 2007). UN peacekeepers should be modernized and equipped with professional leadership skills (Haltiner & Paul, 2005). Peacekeeping military leaders need the capacity to understand the conflict history, practices, laws and geography in order to adjust to the host country's culture (Monaghan, 2012).

 It is therefore clear that there is a gap in this area. The present study attempts to address this gap and expand the scarce empirical knowledge on the relationship between cross cultural competence (CQ, EQ, SQ and language), adjustment and adaptive performance among military leaders.

Limited empirical studies have examined the mediating effect of adjustment on the relationship between individual differences and job performance (e.g., Kim & Slocum, 2008; Sri Ramalu, 2010). This study examined the mediating effect of adjustment involving the cross cultural competence constructs is absent in the literature. The new gap is the use of adjustment (social cultural and psychological adjustment) as a mediator between cross-cultural competence, international human resource management practices and adaptive performance on the military setting, and not only in the expatriate sector

(e.g., Chen & Thomas, 2005; Jundt, 2010; Lang & Bliese, 2009; Lepine et al., 2000). Previous studies have focused more on business expatriates. On the other hand, limited empirical studies have been conducted concerning the effects of international human resource management practices on the adaptive performance of peacekeeping military leaders.

The review on the relevant studies on military leaders' adjustment and adaptive performance reveals that none of the studies has been conducted in the Middle East and specifically in Jordan. The dearth of studies on Jordan has contributed to serious gaps in the knowledge of military leaders and their assignment effectiveness in UN missions. Studies on peacekeeping military leaders' adjustment and performance must be conducted in the context of eastern countries, considering that Jordan has continuously witnessed a gradual increase in the number of peacekeeping assignments. For instance, the Jordanian Armed Forces has participated in 19 UN peacekeeping missions, and Jordan is among the first 10 countries that contributed personnel to the UN peacekeeping missions, by providing 103,000 personnel since 1989 (United Nation, 2014). The findings of this study may be generalizable to Middle East countries as many countries also participate in peacekeeping missions.

There is serious concern on the generalization of the findings of these studies in Eastern countries (cultural competence, selection, training and compensation). Culture difference is an important issue in international missions (Geeraert & Demoulin, 2013). Military leaders must adjust to the culture of the host country in which they operate in order to be

successful (Bhugra & Arya, 2005). Studies that examined the relationship between individual differences and adaptive performance have used western theories (e.g., Performance theory, U-curve theory and Human capital theory), its worth to examine these theories among military setting.

While previous studies focused on expatriate cross cultural adjustment, present study investigates the effect of cross-cultural competence on adjustment and the adaptive performance of peacekeeping military leaders. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this study is the first to focus on the international role of cross-cultural competence. Thus, this study (nonprofit study) is important for all UN employees. The recommendations made in this study can help the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations, other UN members who contribute peacekeeping personnel and the Jordanian Armed Forces. This study can also assist in the development of leadership skills and training programs on adaptive performance to improve and maximize the behavior and adaptive performance of military leaders prior to deployment to the mission area.

Another gap is the underpinning theory and model that are employed to explain the model of the study, including the performance theory by Campbell *et al*. (1993) and Parker and McEvoy's (1993) model used in military settings to distinguish among individual (cross- cultural competence), organizational (international human resource management practices) and contextual antecedents that may influence adjustments and adaptive performance during international assignments. Also, this study seeks to examine

the relationship of cross-cultural competence and international human resource management on adjustment and the adaptive performance of Jordanian military leaders in UN missions, thus filling the gaps in previous studies and benefiting practitioners at individual and organizational levels.

2.7 Summary

This chapter reveals the importance of cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices, adjustment and adaptive performance of peacekeeping military leaders during UN missions in a host country. The foundation for building the framework of the study, the research methodology, underpinning theories, hypothesis development, research design and operational definitions are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This study investigates the relationship between cross-cultural competence, international human resource management practices, adjustment and adaptive performance among Jordanian military leaders deputed on UN peacekeeping missions. This chapter discusses the theoretical framework of the study, underpinning theory, hypotheses development, research design including population, sampling frame, sample size, sample techniques and unit of analysis, operational definitions of constructs, research instrument, data analysis and partial least squares (Smart PLS) technique. The following section discusses the construction of the theoretical framework for this study.

3.2 Theoretical Framework

Previous studies have highlighted the importance of adaptive performance, which is the main issue examined in this study. In the current study, cross-cultural competence and international human resource management practices, are studied as independent variables, adjustment as the mediator and adaptive performance as dependent variable.

The model as depicted in Figure 3.1 illustrates the effect of cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adjustment on adaptive performance. The first independent variable of this study is cross-cultural competence consisting of four factors,

namely culture intelligence (CQ), emotional intelligence (EQ), social intelligence (SQ) and language proficiency. Cross-cultural competence (CQ, EQ, SQ and language proficiency) is the predictor of adjustment (socio-cultural and psychological adjustment) and adaptive performance, indicated by the arrow (I) and (II). The second independent variable is international human resource management practices (recruitment and selection, training and development and compensation and reward). International human resource management practices is the predictor of adjustment and adaptive performance, indicated by the arrow (III) and (IV). Adjustment is proposed to be related to adaptive performance and is indicated by the arrow (V). Adjustment is proposed to mediate the relationship between cross-cultural competence, international human resource management practices and adaptive performance, and is indicated by the arrow (VI) and (VII). The research model is based on the framework of the Intercultural Adjustment model by Parker and McEvoy (1993) and Campbell *et al.*'s (1993) performance theory.

Independent Variables **Mediating Variables** **Dependent Variable**

Cross Cultural Competence

Cultural Intelligence CQ
CQ cognitive
CQ Motivational
CQ Meta-Cognitive
CQ Behavioral
Emotional Intelligence EQ
EQ Other
EQ Use
EQ Regulation
EQ Self

Social Intelligence SQ

Language Proficiency

II

VI   VII

I

Adjustment

Socio-cultural adjustment

Psychological adjustment

V

Adaptive Performance

HRMP

Recruitment & Selection

Training & Development

Compensation & Reward

III

IV

Figure 3.1 *Theoretical Framework*

3.3 Underpinning Theory

Job performance is an important construct; however, not much has been studied about this crucial workplace dimension (Campbell, 1990a). Few efforts have also been made in developing generalizable models of performance (e.g., Viswesvaran, 1993). Campbell et al. (1993) equated job performance with behavior: what people do that can be observed and measured in terms of each individual's proficiency or level of contribution.

Researchers have developed theories of job performance and posited that some latent performance dimensions can be generalized across a broad range of jobs (Campbell et al., 1993). The model provided by Campbell (1990a) is an important theory of work performance. Progress has been achieved in specifying major predictors and processes associated with individual performance (Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999). The performance theory by Campbell et al. (1993) argues that knowledge, skill, ability and others (KSAO) predicts job performance. An action that is relevant to organizational objectives (e.g., peace agreement accomplishment) is considered as individual job performance (Campbell et al., 1993). Theoretically, individual job performance (adaptive performance) is a function of KSAO (e.g., motivation to execute the mission even under difficult conditions) (Campbell, 1999). The job performance theory indicates that job performance is a multi-dimensional construct consisting of mission dimension (deadline-driven) and contextual dimension (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

In addition, Black *et al*.'s (1991) integrated theoretical framework of international adjustment specifically highlighted individual dimension (i.e., training) and organizational dimension (i.e., compensation and selection) that are required to facilitate the anticipatory adjustment. Parker and Mac Evoy (1993) instrumental adjustment model on the other hand distinguished two types highlighted individual ability dimension (i.e., training) and organizational dimension (i.e., compensation and selection) that are required to facilitate the anticipatory adjustment.Guided with these two models and the performance theory, the researcher propose cross cultural competences(CCC) and human resource management practices (HRMP) factor as the predictor (i.e. independent) variables of this study. Each of these variables and their dimensions were investigated separately with the military leader's adjustment.

To further enhance the knowledge on military leader's literature, each of these variables and their dimensions is also studied separately on military leader's adaptive performance. Additionally, this research is also embarking on assessing the potential mediating role adjustment may play on the relationship between the individual differences (i.e., CCC and HRMP) and military leader's adaptive performance. In this study, CCC is an independent variable and it is related to adjustment and adaptive performance. The human resource management as an independent variable is related to adjustment and adaptive performance. In this study, adjustment functions as mediating variable and expected to mediate the relationship between CCC and adaptive performance, and between the HRMP and adaptive performance. Adaptive performance as a dependent variable is expected to be influenced by three variables.

In peacekeeping missions, leaders are expected to perform well in task and contextual performance dimensions and accomplish specific goals to achieve a certain mission, e.g., peace and security settlement. The performance theory is an influential theory in the investigation of job performance and has been used by many scholars in empirical studies. Based on the above discussion, the performance theory by Campbell *et al*. (1993) underpins the model of this study. The performance theory explains the connection between variables in this study. Cross-cultural competence is considered as the skills necessary for military leaders; and human resource management practices is knowledge that military leaders need during the mission. Campbell (1999) stated that individual job performance (adaptive performance) is a function of knowledge, skills and ability (e.g., motivation to execute the mission even under negative conditions).

3.4 Hypothesis Development

This section discusses the development of hypotheses. The hypotheses were formed from the extensive review of literature and based on the research questions and objectives of this study. The study has ten (10) constructs and thirty five (35) hypotheses were formulated for testing the relationships between the variables.

3.4.1 Cross-Cultural Competence and Adjustment

Several studies on cross-cultural competence and adjustment have shown their importance during international assignments (e.g., Chen *et al*., 2011; Kim & Slocum, 2008; Sri Ramalu, 2010). Previous studies have focused on one component

of cross-cultural competence, such as CQ and expatriates' cross-culture adjustment (general, interaction and work) (Sri Ramalu, 2010).

Flaspöler (2007) investigated the relationship between CQ and adjustment measures. The sample consisted of 49 expatriates and international students in 22 countries. Results revealed meta-cognitive and motivational CQ are significant predictors of general adjustment. In line with this, a study by Sri Ramalu (2010) in Malaysia examined the relationship between CQ and expatriates' effectiveness in terms of cross-cultural adjustment using a sample of 332 expatriates, and the result revealed that a positive relationship exists between CQ and cross- cultural adjustment. Lee and Sukco (2010) found that expatriates with a high level of CQ have a high level of cultural adjustment; on the other hand, expatriates with low CQ have a lower level of cultural adjustment.

Similarly, a positive relationship exists between the motivational and cognitive aspects of CQ and employee adjustment (Thomas & Inxon, 2004). However, the relationship between CQ and adjustment is reported to be inconsistent and therefore an inconclusive relationship (Sri Ramalu, 2010). Further research is important to provide more empirical validation of CQ and adjustment. Clear understanding of the association between CQ and adjustment relationship is important in formulation of hypothesis for this study. CQ creates a pervasive positive culture context, thus positively affecting military leaders' adjustment. The proposed positive relationship between CQ and adjustment of this study is consistent with some research findings (Fakhreldin, 2011; Lee & Sukco, 2010; Sri Ramalu, 2010; Thomas & Inxon, 2004). Military leaders with CQ are expected to adapt in the host country's new cultural

environment during UN missions. Therefore, it is expected that all the four dimensions of CQ are related to adjustment (social cultural and psychological).

EQ is an important factor in military education, especially for military leaders on international assignments (McFarland, 2005). A study by Punia and Sangwan (2011) investigated the extent of the relationship between EQ and adjustment of high school adolescents. His sample consisted of 120 adolescents. The result showed that EQ had significant positive relationship with adjustment. This finding is consistent with a previous study by Ping and Yue (2010). Most of the results of previous research revealed a strong relationship between EQ and job satisfaction and adjustment. However, only few studies have been directly related to adjustment (Ping & Yue, 2010; Punia & Sangwan, 2011). This study tries to make unique contribution by exploring a new mechanism through which the relationship between EQ and adjustment could be enhanced by examining the relationship between EQ and adjustment among military leaders.

SQ affects the ability of leaders to adjust to new cultural environments. Prior empirical studies have supported the relationship related to adjustment. For example, Jeloudar et al. (2012) studied high school teachers in Malaysian, where the sample comprised 203 teachers. The findings revealed that teachers with high level of SQ scored higher in the classroom social interactions, active management in learning and self-motivation. It is therefore posited that there is a positive relationship between social awareness, relationship management and employee adjustment (Shahzad et al., 2011). It has also been found that SQ improves the ability to solve problems and enhances interpersonal experience (Beheshtifar & Roasaei, 2012). Further research is

important to provide more empirical validation of the relationship between SQ and adjustment. This study proposes a positive relationship exists between SQ and adjustment. The proposed positive relationship between SQ and adjustment is consistent with some research findings (e.g., Goleman, 2008; Jeloudar *et al*., 2012).

Prior empirical studies have supported the positive relationship between language and adjustment. A study was carried out by Xiaofei and Du-babcock (2012) in China on expatriates' adjustment, using a sample of 190 expatriates. The result revealed that language proficiency affects different aspects of expatriate adjustment. Learning cultural and language skills are important to adjust to the environment and achieve mission goals (Abee *et al*., 2007). Therefore,understanding a foreign language by military leaders provides an advantage for working and building relationships with the host country. Moreover, military leaders are expected to encounter multiple languages in their operational experiences during their peacekeeping mission. This is consistent with previous studies (Jackson, 2005; Xiaofei & Du-babcock, 2012).

Generally, it can be concluded that cross-cultural competence is positively related to adjustment (social cultural and psychological adjustment). The dimensions of cross-cultural competence, such as CQ (e.g., Fakhreldin, 2011; Thomas & Inxon, 2004; Sri Ramalu, 2010), EQ (e.g., Shahzad *et al*., 2011), SQ (e.g., Beheshtifar & Roasaei, 2012; Goleman, 2008; Jeloudar *et al*., 2012) and language (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*., 2005; Mol *et al*., 2005; Xiaofei & Du-babcock, 2012) are positively related to adjustment. Individuals with high cross-cultural competence adjust more successfully to new cultures during overseas missions. On this basis, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H1: There is a positive relationship between cross-cultural competence and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H1a: There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence cognitive and socio- cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H1b: There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence motivational and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H1c: There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence meta-cognitive and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H1d: There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence behavioral and social cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H1e: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence others and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H1f: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence use and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H1g: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence regulation and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H1h: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence self and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H1i: There is a positive relationship between social intelligence and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H1j: There is a positive relationship between language and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H2: There is a positive relationship between cross-cultural competence and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H2a: There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence cognitive and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H2b: There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence motivational and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H2c: There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence meta-cognitive and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H2d: There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence behavioral and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H2e: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence others and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H2f: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence use and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H2g: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence regulation and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H2h: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence self and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H2i: There is a positive relationship between social intelligence and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H2j: There is a positive relationship between language and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

3.4.2 Cross-Cultural Competence and Adaptive Performance

Cross-cultural competence is a skill needed for problem solving, coping with stress, communication, language acquisition and experience when living with people of

other cultures (McDonald *et al*., 2008). Empirical studies have supported the existence of positive relationship between CQ (cognitive and motivational) aspects and job performance (Kelidbaril *et al*., 2012). Employees with high levels of CQ exhibit high performance. A positive relationship exists between CQ and employee performance (Fakhreldin, 2011). A study by Sri Ramalu (2010) in Malaysia, result revealed that there is a positive relationship between CQ (cognitive, motivational, meta-cognitive and behavioral) and job performance. Similarly, a study by Isfahani *et al*. (2013) investigated the relationship between CQ and employee performance. The sample consisted of 100 employees of Azaran Industrial Group in Iran. The result indicated that there is positive relationship between CQ and performance; particularly, the motivational aspect had the highest effect on employee performance.

Empirical studies have supported the relationship between EQ and performance. The study by Hayward (2005) investigated the relationship between EQ and performance, using a sample of 160 leaders in a South African country. The result revealed that a significant relationship exists between employee performance and EQ. A study among Nigerian police officers investigated the relationship between EQ and performance, using a sample of 199 officers. The result revealed that positive relationship between EQ and performance (Afolabi, 2010).

A study by Chen *et al*. (2011) investigated the relationship between social support and work performance in Taiwan, using a sample of 213 expatriates. Findings revealed that the higher the level of social support, the better the work performance of the individual. SQ is associated with enhanced social problem-solving abilities (Jones &

Day, 1997) and positive interpersonal experience (Cheng *et al.*, 2001). SQ facilitates leadership effectiveness and success (Beheshtifar & Roasaei, 2012). Prior empirical studies have supported the relationship between SQ and performance (Cheng *et al.*, 2001; Goleman, 2006; Jones & Day, 1997; Schneider *et al.*, 1996).

Another crucial component to understand culture is language proficiency. Many studies have empirically supported the relationship between language and performance, where it has been postulated that there is a positive relationship between language and expatriates' performance (Takeuchi, Yun & Tesluk, 2002). Expatriates (leaders) fluent in the host country language adapt and perform better than others (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). Language proficiency is therefore a crucial component for military leaders on UN peacekeeping missions to achieve mission goals (Shurrman, 2013).

Previous studies' results have revealed a positive relationship between CQ (Fakhreldin, 2011; Isfahani *et al*; 2013; Kelidbaril *et al.*, 2011; Sri Ramalu, 2010), EQ (Afolabi, 2010), SQ (Jones & Day, 1997), language (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005) and performance.

The performance theory by Campbell *et al.* (1993) explains the relationship between individual cross-cultural competence and adaptive performance. Campbell *et al.* (1993) stated that adaptive performance is a function of KSAO.

Parker and McEvoy (1993) developed a model to distinguish between individual, organizational and contextual antecedents that may influence international assignment

adjustment and the outcome of job performance. The performance theory has been used to explain the relationship between skills and job performance (Sri Ramalu, 2010). On this basis, this study proposes:

H3: There is a positive relationship between cross-cultural competence and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H3a: There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence cognitive and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H3b: There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence motivational and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H3c: There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence meta-cognitive and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H3d: There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence behavioral and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H3e: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence others and adaptive performance adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H3f: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence use and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H3g: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence regulation and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H3h: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence self and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H3i: There is a positive relationship between social intelligence and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H3j: There is a positive relationship between language and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

3.4.3. Human Resource Management Practices and Adjustment

Human resource management is a system policy and practice that influence an individual's work in an organization. A positive relationship exists between human resource management practices and adjustment. Okpara & Kabongo (2011) found that cross-cultural training programs for employees are crucial for successful international operations; these programs also affect the adjustment of expatriates. Additionally, Armstrong (2005) observed that international human resource management practices significantly reduce stress and develop individual and organizational effectiveness among expatriates through proper selection, training and compensation. Studies linked issues like selection and recruitment (Kundo, 2003; Ko & Yang, 2011); training (Eschbach, 1997; John & Kabongo, 2011); and compensation and reward (Jones & Day, 1997) which are necessary prerequisites for adjustment. In contrast, Gregersen and Black (1992) argued that a negative relationship exists between length of pre-departure training and adjustment to the general environment in international assignments.

Similarly, Black *et al*. (1991) proposed a model for international assignment adjustment. According to the model, the training provided for expatriates [military leaders] as well as selection mechanisms should set precise expectations of overseas missions. However, individual skills are related to the degree of adjustment. Higher skills correspond to higher degrees of adjustment at the mission area.

Based on the aforementioned, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H4: There is a positive relationship between human resource management practices and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H4a: There is a positive relationship between recruitment & selection and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H4b: There is a positive relationship between training & development and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H4c: There is a positive relationship between compensation & rewards and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H5: There is a positive relationship between human resource management practices and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H5a: There is a positive relationship between recruitment & selection and physiological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H5b: There is a positive relationship between training & development and physiological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H5c: There is a positive relationship between compensation & rewards and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

3.4.4. Human Resource Management Practices and Adaptive Performance

Human resource management practices have a significant positive relationship with business performance (Chang & Chen, 2002). A significant relationship exists between effective selection practices and performance (Harel & Tzafrir, 1999; Kundo, 2003; Scullion & Collings, 2006). Fey and Bjorkman (2000) found a positive relationship between training and development and performance. Khan (2010)

undertook a study in the Oil and Gas Industry on the effects of human resource management practices on organizational performance. He used a sample of 150 managers, and the findings indicated that there is a positive and significant relationship among recruitment and selection, training and development and compensation and reward with performance.

Abdullah *et al*. (2009) conducted a study to identify the effect of human resource management practices on Malaysian private companies' performance, using a sample of 153 managers. The result showed that support for the human resource management practices (training and development) had a positive and significant influence on performance except for compensation/incentives. In line with this, Hassan and Diallo (2013) made a study of five private colleges in Malaysia, using a sample of 100 respondents. The result showed that a positive relationship exists between cross-cultural training and expatriates' job performance. Wright *et al*. (1999) examined the influence of international human resource management practices (selection, training and compensation) and the performance of 190 petro-chemical refineries in the USA. Results revealed international human resource management practices (selection and compensation) were positively related to firm performance. In addition, Eschbach *et al.* (2001) found that managers with cross-cultural training become more effective and productive during overseas assignments.

The human capital theory by Becker (1964) stated that international human resource management practices is a function of knowledge, skill and ability (e.g., motivation to execute the mission even under negative conditions). Human resource management practices can be seen as deliberate investments in human capital which aim at

improving existing levels of skill, knowledge and ability of the military leaders, and thereby enhance adaptive performance.

Accordingly, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H6: There is a positive relationship between human resource management practices and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H6a: There is a positive relationship between recruitment & selection and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions

H6b: There is a positive relationship between training & development and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H6c: There is a positive relationship between compensation & rewards and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

3.4.5 Adjustment and Adaptive Performance

Being assigned internationally can be daunting for military leaders. They may have to face several cultural barriers, leading to psychological stress. If expatriates can successfully adjust in the host country, it can reduce stress, thereby helping them to expend more energy and efforts on their jobs (Kim *et al*; 2008).

Previous literature has shown that expatriates' psychological stress caused by maladjustment negatively affects their job performance (Chen *et al*., 2011; Sri Ramalu, 2010). Thus, it is expected that military leaders who adjust well socially will be able to perform better. This study discusses adjustment in terms of two major categories: psychological and socio-cultural. Sri Ramalu (2010) in Malaysia, result revealed that there is a positive relationship between adjustment and job performance.

In line with this, Hassan and Dialo (2013) conducted a study among expatriates in five private colleges in Malaysia, using a sample of 100 respondents, revealed a positive relationship exists between adjustment and job performance. In addition, Chen *et al*. (2011) carried out a study in Taiwan using a sample of 213 expatriates. Findings revealed that better adjustment also enhances the work performance. This result is also supported by Zhou and Qin (2009).

Parker and McEvoy (1993) investigated the adjustments (work, general living and interaction) and performance. In this regard, the intercultural models explain different variables. In peacekeeping missions, military leaders should adjust to enhance adaptive performance in order to accomplish specific goals to achieve a certain mission (e.g., peace and security settlement). In addition, social culture, including interaction with local people and psychological adjustment, including living condition, food and sleep, are critical for military leaders to adjust smoothly in the host country, and to enhance adaptive performance.

From the aforementioned discussion, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H7a: There is a positive relationship between socio-cultural adjustment and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H7b: There is a positive relationship between psychological adjustment and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

3.4.6 Mediator Effect of Adjustment

The transition from home country to host country is important for the facilitation of better adjustment to the culture of the host country. Two specific areas of adjustment

are present in this area: (1) socio-cultural adjustment; and (2) psychological adjustment (Ward & Kennedy, 1996). Smooth transition across work assignments is critical to the adaptive performance of military leaders' mission because the work that leaders have to execute in the host country may be new to them. According to Sri Ramalu (2010), adjusting to a new role affects performance outcomes over time. Individuals with a higher level of cross-cultural competence tend to demonstrate better adaptive performance by successfully transiting to new UN assignments; this is because they learn to adjust effectively in a new cultural context. In the same way, leaders who are selected and given training for the new role in an international context, can make smooth work transition, which helps them to perform effectively.

 It is therefore evident that cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices alone, though necessary, are not sufficient for military leaders' adaptive performance. Previous studies revealed that adjustment might mediate the relationship between individual differences and expatriate performance (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*., 2005). Indeed, few researchers have provided the evidence for the mediating role of cross-cultural adjustment on the relationship between individual differences and job performance (Kim & Slocum, 2008; Sri Ramalu, 2010).

A study by Sri Ramalu (2010) revealed that adjustment mediates the relationship between cross-cultural competence and job performance. In line with this, study in Taiwanese revealed that overseas adjustments mediate the relationship between social support and work performance (Chen *et al*., 2011).

The performance theory of Campbell *et al.* (1993) focuses on knowledge, skills, and others in predicting job performance. Theoretically, individual job performance (adaptive performance) is a function of KSAO (e.g., motivation to execute the mission even under difficult conditions) (Campbell, 1999). Human resource management practices and adjustments on adaptive performance. The theory supports the relationship between cross-cultural competence (skills), and human resource management practices (knowledge) as predictor of adjustment and adaptive performance.

In these previous studies, cross-cultural adjustment mediates the relationship between individual and various expatriates' assignments (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Sri Ramalu, 2010). These studies have revealed that cross-cultural adjustment is positively related to job performance, implying that the greater the cross-cultural adjustment, the greater the job performance level becomes. The results show that cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices are positively related to adjustment; i.e., the greater the cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices level is, the greater the adjustment and performance level becomes.

From the above discussion, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H8: The relationship between cross-cultural competence and adaptive performance is mediated by adjustment among leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H8a: The relationship between cross-cultural competence and adaptive performance is mediated by socio-cultural adjustment among leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H8b: The relationship between cross-cultural competence and adaptive performance is mediated by psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H9: The relationship between international human resource management practices and adaptive performance is mediated by adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H9a: The relationship between international human resource management practices and adaptive performance is mediated by socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

H9b: The relationship between international human resource management practices and adaptive performance is mediated by psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.

3.5 Research Design

The researcher used a quantitative research survey. Quantitative research depends on statistical analysis of data and leads to valid and reliable results. The purpose of social research is examination, description and explanation by a systematic effort to gather, analyze, and interpret information that describes how social characteristics, behaviors and interactions among people affect each other. To accomplish the objectives of this study, the researcher chose the quantitative methodology approach. The reason behind this choice is because the researcher wanted to further validate the relationships that exist among the study's variables (Kelley, Clark, Brown & Sitzia, 2003; Neuman, 2006). In addition, the researcher chose cross-sectional survey method because he aimed to collect data that reflects military leaders' opinion and attributes which are

not available from other sources, including secondary sources. In addition, it is consistent with Babbie (2010).

3.5.1 Population of the Study

The researcher further stated that population of the study is the group of people or events of interest for which a researcher wants to make inferences based on a derived sample. Population is a defined collection of individuals or objects known to have related characteristics. All individuals or objects within a certain population usually have common requisite characteristics. Population is regarded as one of the most important elements in research. Castillo (2009) pointed out that population could be categorized into two: target population and accessible population. Target population refers to the whole group of individuals or objects in which researchers are interested to generalize the conclusions (it is also called theoretical population). The accessible population, on the other hand, is the population in which the researchers can apply their conclusions.

In this regard, the population of this study consists of Jordanian military leaders serving in overseas peacekeeping UN missions. The total number of Jordanian military leaders in UN missions in 2012 was 561. These military leaders have served in various regions such as Asia, Europe, Africa, Central America and the former Russian countries; in different positions, such as military observers, staff officers in sector headquarters, and leaders of field units in peace keeping missions (Table 3.1) (Jordan Armed Forces HQ, 2013). The researcher chose military leaders who had served in the UN in 2012 to obtain recent information and accurate results. The

sample finally consisted of military leaders serving in nine UN missions in different

missions: Haiti, Ivory Coast Battalion Force, Ivory Coast Special Unit, and Liberia,

and Congo, leaders in headquarters, Ivory Coast Headquarters, Congo Hospital and

military observers. The unit of analysis in this study is each of the 561 military

leaders.

Table 3.1
Numbers of Jordanian Military Leaders Who Served in Peacekeeping Missions

Mission	2010	2011	2012
1) Haiti, second group peacekeeping force	126	126	81
2) Ivory coast, peacekeeping force battalion	166	166	166
3) Ivory coast, peacekeeping force unit	48	48	48
4) Congo, peacekeeping force unit	54	54	54
5) Liberia hospital	70	70	70
6) Congo hospital	40	38	34
7) Ivory coast, sector headquarters	_	_	9
8) Military observers	40	38	34
9) Headquarter officers (all the missions)	60	63	65
Total	602	603	561

Source: Jordan Armed Forces HQ, (2013)

3.5.2 Sampling Frame

Sampling frame is a list of items in the field of population research (Sekaran &

Bougie, 2010). The sampling frame for this study consists of military leaders who

served in different peacekeeping missions in the UN in 2012. For security reasons, the

Jordanian Armed Forces Headquarters refused to give names and numbers of military

leaders in some missions. It was therefore difficult for the researcher to count all the

military leaders to find the population frame. In this study, the population 561 military leaders, the sample includes 234 military leaders.

3.5.3 Sample Size

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010) the appropriate for a quantitative research to have a sample size larger than 30. The determinant of the sample size should be based on a suitable power of statistical tests. Power analysis takes into consideration few elements, namely sample size, significant criteria and the population size effect (Cohen, 1997). In this case, there is a need to balance the power analysis with sample size reviews. Another advantage of using power analysis is that it can be used to calculate the number of respondents to be used in any study. It can be said that using the power analysis tends to increase the size of the samples and enhances the probability of detecting the effects.

G-Power of statistical tests of power analysis is a popular method used in determining the suitable sample size by means of using GPOWER, V2 software, for a medium effect size of 0.15 and above, for a statistical significance at 0.05, for a statistical power of rejecting the null hypothesis at 0.95, having seven main predictor variables, including (i.e., CQ, EQ, SI, language, selection, training and compensation), the mediating variable, including (socio-cultural and psychological adjustment), and the adaptive performance. In the case of multiple regressions statistical analysis, the total sample size required is 166 that has been rounded up to 170. According to Roscoe (1975), there is a seldom justification in behavioral science research for sample sizes less than 30 or larger than 500. In addition to using a prior power analysis through

using GPOWER, the researcher also referred to other means of deciding the representative sample size for a given population. First of these, by referring to the sample size table generated by Krejcie & Morgan (1970), the researcher found that a sample size of n= 234 is representative for the population of N=561. Having assessed the above means of deciding the adequate sample size, the researcher decided to use a sample size of 234 generated from Krejcie & Morgan's (1970) sample size table because it is satisfies all the above stated requirments.

3.5.4 Sampling Technique

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), sampling design comprises two main types: probability and non-probability sampling. The elements of the population in this study, the military leaders) this research used probability sampling technique, which provides every unit an equal opportunity to be selected as the sample object (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Using probability sampling enables high generalizability (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001).

A proportionate stratified random sampling technique is used for sample selection. Stratified random sampling involves dividing the population into strata/subgroups and then randomly selecting the final subjects proportionally from the different strata. Proportionate stratified random sampling is appropriate for this study because it is an efficient research sampling technique that provides more information on a given sample size (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The strata in this study is military leaders consist of individuals with various demographic backgrounds, education, age, attitudes and behavior, which are similar to those of military leaders in the population.

This study adopted the proportionate stratified random sampling procedure, since the aim of the study is to have adequate samples representing the nine peacekeeping missions, namely Haiti, Ivory Coast Battalion Force, Ivory Coast Special Unit, Liberia, and Congo, leaders in headquarters, Ivory Coast Headquarters, Congo hospital and military observers. In addition, proportionate stratified random sampling is efficient because each important segment of the population is represented despite the size of the group in each mission (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Each stratum is not equally numbered; therefore, the researcher used proportionate stratified random sampling.

This section discusses the selection of 234 military leaders from the rank of lieutenant to colonel, who served in UN missions in the year 2012. A percentage distribution of military leaders among the missions was ensured. According to Gay and Diehl (1992), this sample selection consists of five steps. The first step was to define the population, where it is 561 military leaders serving in nine UN missions in 2012. The sample size (i.e., 234 in this study) was determined according to Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table for determining sample size for a given population. The next step involved defining the stratum. The logical stratum in the present study is the UN missions around the world in which Jordanian military leaders have participated. The average number of population officers per stratum was then estimated by dividing the sample size (i.e., 234 leaders) with the number of population (i.e., 561 military leaders for 2012), which resulted in 41% of leaders from the total population in each mission per stratum. Finally, the number of military leaders from each mission was determined by multiplying 41% to the number of leaders in each stratum. In order to achieve a

logical number, some missions used more than 41%, and some less than 41%, to keep

the number of 234 respondents, and to ensure each stratum is equally represented.

Table 3.2

Number of Jordanian military leaders (Sample Size) Who Served in Peacekeeping Missions

Mission	Number of Elements	Proportionate Sample (41%)
1) Haiti, second group peacekeeping force	81	34
2) Ivory coast, peacekeeping force battalion	166	69
3) Ivory coast, peacekeeping force unit	48	20
4) Congo, peacekeeping force unit	54	23
5) Liberia hospital	70	29
6) Congo hospital	34	14
7) Ivory coast, sector headquarters	9	4
8) Military observers	34	14
9) Headquarter officers (all the missions)	65	27
Total	561	234

3.5.5 Unit of Analysis

The quality of a research work becomes high if information is acquired from different

sets of respondents. However, this study focused only on one single set of

respondents, i.e., military leaders who had served in UN missions in the year 2012.

The researcher chose the military leaders of the selected UN missions as the unit upon

which the analyses was based.

3.6 Conceptual Definition

This section aims to clarify in brief some important conceptual definitions used in this study. The concepts and operationalization of variables were detailed in chapters two and three.

3.6.1 Adaptive Performance

Adaptive performance is studied as the dependent variable in this study. The concept of adaptive performance has been a challenge to understand, measure and predict effectively in different contexts. Pulakos *et al*. (2000) successfully removed part of the ambiguity concerning this concept by developing an eight-dimensional taxonomy of adaptive performance. The concept of adaptive performance depends on three factors, namely, individual differences, skills and knowledge, and the environment that permits adaptive performance (William & Waldo, 2010). According to Mueller, Johnathan & Swartout (2009), adaptive performance occurs in an environment that can constrain or facilitate individual adaptive performance. Dorsey *et al*. (2006) defined adaptive performance as an effective change in reaction to a changed circumstance. Adaptive performance refers to the level to which individuals cope with, react to and support changes in order for effective contribution as individuals (Pulakos, 1999; Pulakos *et al*., 2000; Griffin, Neal & Parker, 2007). The conceptual definition used in this study for Adaptive performance as adjusting one's behavior to meet the demands of a new situation (Pulakos *et al*., 2000).

3.6.2 Cross Cultural Competence

The skills is necessary when military leaders try to adjust to new environments (Abbe *et al*., 2007). The conceptual definition of cross-cultural competence a set of cognitive, behavioral, and affective factors providing the individuals the ability to effectively adjust to intercultural environments (Abbe *et al*., 2007). The conceptual definition used in this study for cross-cultural competence is a set of cognitive, behavioral and affective factors providing individuals the ability to effectively adjust to intercultural environments (Abbe *et al*., 2007).

3.6.2.1 Cultural Intelligence

Cultural Intelligence (CQ) is defined as the capability of the individual to effectively function in culturally diverse circumstances (Ang *et al*., 2007). In addition, CQ construct is a person's capacity to function effectively in settings characterized by cultural diversity (Earley & Ang, 2003). The conceptual definition used in this study for cultural intelligence is defined as the capability of the individual to effectively function in culturally diverse circumstances (Ang *et al*., 2007).

3.6.2.2 Emotional Intelligence

Bagshaw (2000) defined emotional intelligence (EQ) as the ability to understand and relate to people. The conceptual definition used in this is the individual's capability to understand and relate to other people's emotions (Bagshaw, 2000).

3.6.2.3 Social Intelligence

Marlowe (1986) defined social intelligence (SQ) as the individual's ability to comprehend his or her as well as other people's feelings, thoughts and behaviors in interpersonal connections and to appropriately react based on such comprehension. The conceptual definition used in this study is the individual's capability to understand one's self, thoughts, and behavior of others and to act according to the situation (Marlowe, 1986).

3.6.2.4 Language proficiency

A person who is proficient in languages has the ability to communicate using the language both orally and in writing (Johnston, Paris, McCoy, Severe & Hughes, 2010).

3.6.3 Human Resource Management Practices

The definition of human resource management practices is organizational activities directed at managing the human resource management pool and ensuring that resources are employed toward the fulfillment of organizational goals (Jackson & Schuler, 1995; Wright & Gardner, 2003). Human resource management practices refer to a strategic and clarified method of managing the organization's people who contribute as individuals and as a group to the achievement of the firm's objectives (Armstrong, 2006). The conceptual definition used in this study for human resource management practices refer to the management of an organization's people working

there who individually and collectively contribute to the achievement of the organization's goals (Armstrong, 2006).

3.6.4 Adjustment

Adjustment is defined as the process and result of change induced in individuals by the move into an unfamiliar cultural environment (Black & Mendenhall, 1991). The conceptual definition used in this study for adjustment is the process and result of change induced in individuals by the move into an unfamiliar host country's cultural environment (Black & Mendenhall, 1991).

3.7 Instrumentation

Instrumentation is important in research because it is a means through which researchers see, analyze and generalize a phenomenon. The researcher used the questionnaires techniques as the instrumentation for data collection in this study.

3.7.1 Questionnaire Structure

The questionnaire structure is a vital aspect (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006), because of the importance of the rate of responses and the validity of the data (Hair, Money, Samouel & Page, 2007). Researchers should take different precautions, such as separating items according to constructs, appropriate and clear scale of items and protect the respondents' privacy (Organ *et al.,* 2006).

The cover letter on the first page of the questionnaire stressed that the survey is for academic purposes only and all responses will be strictly confidential and anonymous. In addition, there are no known risks to any military leaders taking part in this study. The cover letter included the approximate time to complete the survey, purpose of the survey and identification of the researcher. Finally, it contained a thank you note to every military leader in advance for his cooperation in completing this questionnaire. The questionnaire contained 109 items which was divided into five sections as follows: (a) Section A-personal information; (b) Section B-adaptive performance; (c) Section C-adjustment; (d) Section D- human resource management practices; and (e) Section E-cross-cultural competences (Refer to Appendix A for complete questionnaire).

3.7.2 Operational Definitions

As depicted in the theoretical framework (see Figure 3.1), the present study has four major constructs to be measured, namely adaptive performance, social cultural and psychological adjustment, cross-cultural competence and international human resource management practices. The following section discusses the instruments used in measuring the four constructs of the model.

3.7.2.1 Adaptive Performance

Adaptive performance was measured using eight items based on the Job Adaptability Inventory developed by Pulakos *et al.* (2000). These eight items were used to assess the dimensions of adaptive performance. An eight-item measure was developed to

assess to what degree a particular job requires each of the eight dimensions of adaptive performance. The self-report measure based on the Pulakos *et al.*'s (2000) eight-dimension taxonomy is designed to measure individual adaptability, one single item measuring each dimension. Participants were instructed to indicate to what extent their job requires the eight adaptive behaviors. This assessment was performed by using a five-point Likert-type response format (1 = no extent; 2 = slight extent; 3 = moderate extent; 4 = great extent; and 5 = very great extent). According to previous studies Griffen *et al.* (2007), individual task adaptively reliability alpha value .93; Stokes (2008) reliability alpha value .97; Bartone, Dennis, & Matthews (2012) reliability alpha value .90. Sample items are depicted in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3
Adaptive Performance

1. Handling Emergency or Crisis Situations
2. Demonstrating Interpersonal Adaptability
3.Dealing Effectively with Unpredictable
or Changing Work Situations
4.Demonstrating Physically-Oriented Adaptability
5.Learning Work Tasks, Technologies and Procedures
6.Handling Work Stress
7. Displaying Cultural Adaptability
8.Solving Problems Creatively

Source: Pulakos et al 2000

3.7.2.2 Adjustment

Cultural adjustment consists of social-cultural and physiological adjustment, both of which are measured separately by different scales and items. Socio-cultural adjustment was measured by adopting Ward and Kendy's (1999); and psychological adjustment was measured by using the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) developed by Goldberg (1972). This is because military leaders need to focus more on two things: how they interact with host country people, and how they feel, act, sleep and eat during the mission.

3.7.2.2.1 Socio-Cultural Adjustment

Socio-cultural adjustment was measured by adopting Ward and Kendy's (1999) 10 items with some modification. Scale item was utilized to assess the socio-cultural adjustment of expatriates. The respondents had to indicate how well adjusted they are to their respective host location on a scale ranging from 1 ("much unadjusted") to 5 ("completely adjusted"). A study by Ward and Kennedy's (1999) reported reliability alpha value of .85. Sample items are as depicted in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4
Socio-Cultural Adjustment

1. Making friends.
2. Using the transport system.
3. Making yourself understood.
4. Getting used to the pace of life.
5. Going to social events/gatherings/functions.
6. Worshipping in your usual way.

Table 3.4 Continued

8. Understanding jokes and humor.

9. Dealing with someone who is Unpleasant/cross/aggressive.

10. Living away from family members overseas/independently from your spouse

Source: Ward and Kendy 1999

3.7.2.2.2 Psychological Adjustment

Psychological adjustment was measured using the General Health Questionnaire's (GHQ-12) 12 items developed by Goldberg (1972) with some modifications. Responses ranged from 1 ("more than usual") to 5 ("less than usual"). In a previous study by Zhou and Qin (2009), psychological adjustment's reliability alpha value ranged from .78 to .95 in various studies. Sample items are as depicted in Table 3.6.

Table 3.5
Psychological Adjustment

1. Felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties?

2. Felt capable of making decisions about things?

3. Been feeling unhappy and repressed?

4. Felt that you are playing a useful part in things?

5. Been able to concentrate on whatever you are doing?

6. Lost much sleep over worry?

7. been thinking of yourself as a worthless person

8. Been feeling reasonably happy all things considered?

9. Been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?

10. Been able to face up to your problems?

11. Felt constantly under strain?

12. Been losing confidence in yourself?

Source: Goldberg (1972)

3.7.2.3 Cross-Cultural Competence

Cross-cultural competence consisted of four factors, namely CQ, EQ, SQ and language proficiency, which were included in the instruments.

3.7.2.3.1 Culture Intelligence

Culture Intelligence (CQ) was measured using the 20-item scale developed by Ang *et al*. (2007). The inventory included six items for cognitive; four items for metacognitive; five items for motivational; and five items for behavioral dimension of CQ. Military leaders were asked to select the response that best described their capabilities on a scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sri Ramalu (2010), in his study reported reliability alpha value of metacognitive 0.77; cognitive 0.84; motivational 0.77; and behavioral 0.84. Amiri *et al.* (2010) reported reliability alpha value of (0.78), meta-cognitive (four items 0.71), cognitive (six items 0.82), motivational (five items 0.80) and behavioral (five items 0.70). Sample items are as depicted in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6
Culture Intelligence

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 values and religious beliefs of other cultures
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 non-verbal behaviours in other cultures.
7. I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.

Table 3.6 Continued

---

9. I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me

10. I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.

11. I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me

12. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge i use when interacting with people with

different cultural backgrounds

13. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge i apply to cross-cultural interactions

14. I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.

15. I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as i interact with people from different cultures.

16. I change my verbal behaviour (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

17. I change my non-verbal behaviour when a cross-cultural situation requires it.

18. I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.

19. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.

20. I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

Source: Ang et al. (2007).

3.7.2.3.2 Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EQ) was measured by adopting the EQ scale developed by Wong and Law (2002), consisting of 16 items. EQ had four factors: "self-emotion appraisal, others-emotion appraisal, use of emotion, and regulation of emotion." A five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was adopted. A study by Kong *et al*. (2012) reported reliability alpha value of SEA - .79; ROE - .87; OEA - .88; and UOE - .75. The reliability alpha value of all items was .89. Sample items are as depicted in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7
Emotional Intelligence

1. I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.

2. I have good understanding of my own emotions.

3. I really understand what I feel.

4. I always know whether or not I am happy

5. I always know my friends emotions from their behavior.

6. I am a good observer of others emotions

7. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.

8. I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.

9. I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.

10. I always tell myself I am competent person

11. I am a self-motivated person

12.I would always encourage myself to try my best

13. I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.

14. I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.

15. I have good control of own emotions

16. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.

Source: *by Wong and Law (2002)*

3.7.2.3.3 Social Intelligence

The Social Intelligence (SQ) Scale (Dong *et al*., 2005) consisted of 8-items. A five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was adopted. The study by Dong, Koper and Collaco (2008) had a reliability alpha value of .90. Sample items are as depicted in Table 3.9.

Table 3.8
Social Intelligence

1. I can identify with others
2. I am a good listened.
3.I try to relate to what other people say
4. I am able to see others viewpoint
5.I am good at leading a group task
6.I discuss my thoughts with others
7.I am good at persuading others
8. I often influence others in situations.

Source: Dong et al (2005)

3.7.2.3.4 Language

Xiaofei's and Du-babcock (2009) 3-item scale is adopted from Krosnick & Fibiger (1997). The measurement used a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The study by Xiaofei (2009) had a reliability alpha value of English proficiency .89. Sample items are as depicted in Table 3. 9.

Table 3. 9
Language proficiency

1.General English language
2.Professional English Language
3.Social English language Proficiency

Source: by Krosnick & Fibiger (1997).

3.7.2.4 Human Resource Management Practices

Human resource management practices were measured by adopting the scale developed by Rathnaweera (2010) consisting of 21 items. Human resource management practices had three dimensions. Most statements used in the survey were based on human resource management practices consistent with prior empirical work in the field (Becker and Gerhart, 1996; Huselid, 1995; Koch &McGrath, 1996; and Ulrich, 1997). These practices included recruitment and selection (6-items); training (4- items); and compensation and social benefits (11-items). Respondents (military leaders) were asked to indicate their perception on these human resource management practices, using a five-point likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). In a study by Khan (2010), the reliability alpha value for recruitment (0.785); training (0.802); compensation and reward (0.794). Sample items are as depicted in Table 3.11.

Table 3.10
Human Resource Management Practices

1. Applicants are fully informed about the qualifications required to perform the job before being sent to peace mission

2. Applicants undergo a medical test before being selected to UN mission

3. Vacancies are filled from qualified officers who are working in the field

4. Applicants undergo structured interviews(job related questions, same questions asked of all applicants) before being deputed to peace keeping mission

5. Applicants for this job take formal test (written or work sample) for selecting applicants for vacancies

6. Job announced through military channels to recruit officers training

7. I have training opportunities to learn and grow

8. I get training I need to do my job well.

Table 3.10 Continued

9. I get the training from the unit for my next promotion
10. Available training matches with my job compensation & benefit
11. Available benefits are appropriate for my needs
12. Amount of health care is sufficient
13. Amount of vacation is sufficient1
14. Amount of sick leave is sufficient
15. My salary is fair for my tasks, duties and Responsibilities of my job
16. The Army provides equitable external salary
17. I know the criteria used to decide my pay
18. If I do work well, I can count on earning
more money (bonuses & commissions)
19. My salary is fair for my tasks, duties and
responsibilities of my job
20. The Army provide acceptable work environment
21. The Army provides flexible work hours to accommodate my personal needs

Source: Rathnaweera (2010)

3.7.2.5 Demographic Information

Demographic information consisted of eleven (11) questions: gender, age, marital status, present rank, position when respondents served in peacekeeping mission, region served, duration of service in region served, prior overseas experience, number of languages have basic conversational fluency and local language proficiency.

3.7.2.6 Response Scale

Either five, seven or ten-point scales are all comparable for analytical tools (Dawes, 2008). In the current study, all the responses were made on a five-point Likert scale, which was used by the researcher in this study because this scaled-response form is widely adopted (Gwinner, 2006). It seems that using the 5-point Likert scale involves several advantages which have made it popular, such as fastness and easiness in constructing it (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Another advantage in using the 5-point Likert scale is its capability to present the measurements accurately and appropriately better than the small scales (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson (2010). However, in some cases, when the respondents were neutral towards specific topics, neutral rating was included. Thus, according to Gwinner (2006), the concept of neutrality is considered a legitimate opinion which really exists among respondents. Therefore, it can be adopted to reveal neutrality or the mixed opinions. Empirical studies agreed that reliability and validity are improved by using five to seven-point scales rather than fewer scale points. In addition five or seven-point scale is likely to produce slightly higher mean scores relative to the highest possible attainable score, compared to that produced from a ten-point scale (Dawes, 2008).

3.8 Translation

The questionnaire was prepared in English. However, since English language is not the official language in Jordan, the questionnaire was translated into Arabic to ensure that every military leader understood well the questions/statements. A back translation method was used to ensure equivalence of measures was achieved in both Arabic and

English. The English version of the questionnaire was translated into standard Arabic by a language academic team in Applied Science in the University Jordan, whereas the Arabic version was retranslated into English by another academic team in the same University to make sure there was no mistake during the translation process. In relation to the questions' content and wording, they were designed to be short and clear to avoid ambiguity and double-barreled questions (Kassim, 2001). A comparison between the original version of the English questionnaire and the back translated English version questionnaire was done to make sure there were no mistakes in the translation. The survey questionnaire included all the variables under study to measure cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices, adjustment and adaptive performance. All of the measurement items were adopted from prior studies.

3.9 Pilot Testing

When using a questionnaire instrument, the validity and reliability of the content should be confirmed. This is to ensure the items really measure what they were intended to measure (Hair *et al.,* 2010). There are many ways to undertake validation. For example, Hair *et al.* (2007) used facial validity; and Babbie (2010) used pilot study. Although the study utilized items adapted from different sources whose validity and reliability had been proven, reliability test was still done as changes may have occurred as pointed out by Hair *et al.* (2007). According to Saunders, Lewis & Thronhill (2003), carrying out a pilot study before data collection is useful. Specifically, the reasons for this pilot study include: (1) to assess the accuracy of item-wording and phrasing construction; (2) to determine the validity and reliability

of items in the questionnaire; (3) to evaluate whether questions are framed in the right way for better response; and (4) to find the right way that respondents could provide the needed data. Pilot tests address both the validity and reliability issues (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

As suggested by Forza (2002), the pilot study was executed in three phases as follows: (1) academics who are experts in this area were given the questionnaire for validating the contents and they offered useful suggestions; and (2) based on the suggestions received from them, the questionnaire was reproduced and disseminated to several military leaders in the Jordanian Army Headquarters to gauge their responses to the items. Some items were then readjusted to allow for easy understanding. Based on López-Gamero, Molina-Azorín & Claver (2009) that pilot test respondents should be within the range of five to30, 40 questionnaires were sent to military leaders from various UN missions in Jordan by mail at the Army Headquarters. A total of 30 questionnaires were returned, found to be valid and used for the pilot study.

The responses of the pilot study were not included into the main study. Internal consistency of the interval scale measures based on the 30 questionnaires was determined through a reliability analysis using the Cronbach's Alpha. According to Hair *et al*. (2010), if Cronbach's Alpha is greater than 0.70, it is considered as acceptable for the instrument's reliability. The result of the pilot test came out with an acceptable value of greater than 0.70. The information in Table 3.12 depicts the measurement used in the study. All the measurements show a high internal reliability

value ranging from 0.751 to 0.935. These observations were used to improve the questionnaire.

Table 3.11
Reliability Statistics

Variable	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Adaptive Performance	8	0.935
Social Cultural adjustment	10	0 .827
Recruitment & selection	6	0 .758
Training	4	0 .751
Compensation and Benefits	11	0 .796
Culture intelligence	20	0 .873
Emotional intelligence	16	0 .809
Social Intelligence	8	0 .769
Language proficiency	3	0 .886

3.10 Data Collection

Questionnaire was used as the main tool to collect data for this study. The researcher chose the Jordan Armed Forces military leaders, from the rank of lieutenant up to colonel as unit of sample. The researcher wrote to the Jordan Armed Forces Headquarter on 12th August 2012 to seek permission to conduct the study (see attached letters in Appendix B.1).

An official permission letter was obtained from University Utara Malaysia. The letter helped greatly in the carrying out of this study by permitting the distribution of the questionnaires (see attached letters in Appendix B.2). On 7th April 2013, the

researcher met the Director of Directorate of Joint Warfare Operations in the Jordan Armed Forces headquarters. A short briefing about the study, including its contribution and benefits to the academic and political fields was provided. The Director directed the Chief of Peacekeeping Operations Department to write an official letter to the Security Department and the Assistant Chief of Staff to get the official permission. This is because the Operations Directorate is responsible for Peacekeeping Operations in every aspect: selection, training, deployment, performance and evaluation. Finally after five weeks, on 15th May 2013, the Chief of Peacekeeping Operations Department informed the researcher that permission had been granted (see attached letters in Appendix B.3 and B.4).

The data for this study came from military officers of the Jordan Armed Forces who served in nine UN peacekeeping missions in 2012. The intended respondents received the questionnaire via military mail survey method. Normal mail survey is not appropriate since the military units have their own military mail. A written permission to conduct the study among the Jordan Armed Forces was obtained and a copy was sent to each Division/Area Command and Hospital headquarters. The researcher visited the Army Headquarters to obtain necessary information (mission locations, number of officers and constraints in the mission area). Coordination was established with the Chief of Peacekeeping Operations Department in Jordan Armed Force Headquarters.

The present study employed the survey questionnaire methodology to collect data in order to retrieve the 234 questionnaires. Previous studies have expressed a serious concern for poor response rate because when the questionnaire is very long,

respondents do not always complete the last pages before returning it (Neuman, 2006; Sri Ramalu, 2010). In this case, the researcher increased 234 questions by 50%, i.e., by 117 and added this figure to 234; therefore, a total of 351 questionnaires were distributed to different units in order to achieve 234 questionnaires. The researcher randomly chose a sample consisting of 351 military leaders from nine missions in 2012 and sent all the copies to ensure a good response rate. After four weeks, 290 questionnaires were returned.

Follow-up visits to the Jordan Armed Forces Headquarters and telephone calls to some leaders were employed to ensure timely completion and collection of distributed questionnaires. Finally, of the total 290 questionnaires, 279 completed questionnaires and 11 incomplete ones were received from the 351 questionnaires sent to different units and headquarters, with a response rate of 79.5%, indicating a very good response considering the critical situation in the region and the army's high alert status leading to difficulty in reaching all the officers. In this regard, Babbie (2010) recommended response rate of 50% is adequate. The sample size was appropriate compared to other studies in the same field, for instance, Bartone *et al.* (2008) obtained 40% response rate and Griffin *et al*. (2010) obtained 61% response rate.

3.11 Data Analysis Procedure

After completing the data collection, the researcher used Smart PLS 2.0 as the tool of analysis. Smart PLS 2.0 (Ringle, Wende & Will, 2005) is a powerful multivariate analysis technique that includes specific versions of a number of other analysis

methods as special cases. Smart PLS 2.0 is a promising method that provides researchers with various opportunities (Ringle *et al.,* 2005).

3.11.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics provides an abstract description of the statistics. This analysis is used to determine characteristics of military leaders in the Jordan Armed Forces serving in UN missions. This analysis provides clear data through frequency distribution, mean and standard deviation, which are useful in identifying differences among groups (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

3.11.2 Partial Least Squares (PLS) Technique

The Partial Least Squares- Structural Equation Modeling PLS-SEM method is described as a second-generation structural equation modeling by Wold (1985). It is a good and flexible method for the development of a statistical model and prediction (Ringle, Wende & Will, 2010). It is specifically utilized in the present study for many reasons explained as follows. First, structural equation models have been proven superior in their performance estimations compared to regressions, particularly in mediation assessment (Iacobucci, Saldanha & Deng, 2007). PLS-SEM provides measurement error and presents highly accurate estimates of the mediating impacts (Chin, 1998b).

Second, PLS path modeling is more suitable for actual real world applications and is more beneficial to utilize in complex models (Hulland, 1999). The PLS method's soft

modeling assumptions, its ability to flexibly develop and confirm complex models, makes it more effective in gauging large complex models (Akter, Ambra & Ray, 2011). In the present study, sixteen (16) variables and their relationships were examined (i.e., culture intelligence cognitive, culture intelligence motivational, culture intelligence meta-cognitive and culture intelligence behavioral; emotional intelligence other, emotional intelligence use, emotional intelligence regulate and emotional intelligence self; social intelligence and language; selection recruitment, training development and compensation reward; social cultural adjustment and psychological adjustment and adaptive performance) in the structural model and therefore using PLS-SEM method is suitable to achieve accurate prediction.

Third, PLS path modeling does not require normal data (Chin, 1998). As such, the researcher selected PLS path modeling to steer clear of normality issues that may occur during data analysis. Fourth, PLS-SEM is one of the top effective statistical tools in both social and behavioral sciences that is capable of examining several relationships at the same time (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2001). Smart PLS path modeling was utilized to develop measurement and structural models; while the measurement model was utilized for assessing the validity and reliability of the study's constructs. The structural model was utilized to carry out bivariate correlation analysis and at the same time, regression analysis was used to present correlations, and the relationships that exist among the study's constructs. Using PLS of algorism and bootstrapping enabled the analysis of the mediating effects of psychological and socio-cultural adjustment on cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance relationship.

Fifth, the PLS-SEM path modeling is suitable to be used in conducting confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) that is highly reliable and valid (Afthanorhan & Asyraf 2013). Sixth, PLS-SEM offers several applications and is the newest and most efficient model when it comes to graphics (Afthanorhan & Asyraf, 2013). Lastly, PLS-SEM is useful in maximizing the variance of latent constructs in reliable and valid manner and assists researchers in accurately and successfully conducting their studies.

3.12 Summary

Chapter three discusses the research methodology. It outlines the sampling design, which is concerned with data collection methods. Specifically, the theoretical framework, underpinning theories, hypotheses development, conceptual definitions, operational definition, population of the study, sample size, sampling technique, data collection and data analysis techniques are presented. The instrument used for this study and validity and reliability of the instrument are described, including the method of data analysis used and the pilot study result. The present study tested nine main hypotheses, which were developed from models and theories of previous empirical studies. Chapter four discusses the findings of the study based on the statistical analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study based on the statistical analysis conducted on the data. Additionally, this chapter analyzes results of factor analysis of the study's major constructs, including cross-cultural competence, international human resource management practices, adjustment and adaptive performance. The chapter analyzes the measurement model through construct validity and reliability analysis of measures used. In addition, based on the data gathered from the questionnaire survey, this chapter analyzes the structural model examining relationships between ten (10) constructs of cross-cultural competence, three constructs of human resource management practices, and two constructs of adjustment and adaptive performance, respectively. Finally, the results of the tested hypotheses are discussed and summarized.

4. 2 Response Rate

A total of two hundred ninety (290) respondents sourced from nine peacekeeping missions in the UN filled and returned the distributed questionnaires. However, as depicted in Table 4.1, a total of two hundred and seventy nine (279) questionnaires were finally retained for analysis out of two hundred ninety (290) that were collected back from the respondents. Specifically, after the data collection, the researcher discovered that eleven (11) questionnaires were not eligible to be considered, hence excluded from the analysis for the reason that some sections were incomplete or some

pages left unanswered. Hence, the remaining two hundred and seventy nine (279) questionnaires were certified to be complete, accurate eligible and consistent and therefore included in the analysis. The percentage rate of return is 79.5% indicating a very good rate, considering the critical situation in the region, the army's constant high alert status, and the challenges in reaching the military leaders.

Table 4.1
Summary of Response Rates

Details	Rate
Questionnaires distributed	351
Questionnaires returned	290
Questionnaires not Valid	11
Questionnaires Valid	279
Response rates	79.5%

The result in Table 4.1 indicates that the response rate was 79.5%. The response rate is high and good enough to represent the population's feedback concerning the topic under research. This rate is sufficient considering Sekaran and Bougie's (2010) argument that response rate of 30% is acceptable for surveys. More importantly, the tool of analysis for this study, which is PLS-SEM, requires a minimum of 30 responses (Chin, 1998b); hence, a total of two hundred and seventy nine (279) responses for the current study are adequate for analysis.

4.3 Demographic Information

The data was collected from selected military officers/leaders deputed on UN peacekeeping missions. The background of respondents that were obtained in this

study included gender, age, marital status, duration of service in military, present rank, position while serving in peacekeeping missions, region served, duration of service in region served, overseas experience before serving in peacekeeping missions and language proficiency. The data was collected to provide an insight into the subjects as this may contribute to interpreting results of the analysis. Table 4.2 provides a summary of the demographic characteristics of the respondents involved.

Table 4.2
Respondents' demographic characteristics

Particulars Variables		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	279	100%
Age	20-25	21	7.5
	26-31	53	19.0
	32-37	95	34.1
	38-43	73	26.2
	44-49	34	12.2
	above 49	3	1.1
Marital status	Single	67	24.0
	Married	210	75.3
	Others	2	0.7
Duration of service in military	1-5	99	35.5
	6-11	46	16.5
	12-17	73	26.2
	18-22	45	16.17
	Above 23	16	5.7
Present rank	Lieutenant	90	32.3
	Captain	52	18.6
	Major	68	24.4
	Lieutenant - colonel	49	17.6 7.2
	Colonel	20	
Position when you served in peace keeping mission	Platoon leader	119	42.7
	Company - Commander	48	17.2
	Staff Officer	88	31.5
	Military Observ	24	8.6
Region served (tick or write all the regions you have served)	Asia	2	0.7
	Europe	3	1.1
	Africa	202	72.4
	Central	71	25.4
	America	1	0.4
	Former Russia Countries		

Table 4.2 Continued

Duration of service in region served (write the number of months	1-6	197	70.6
	7-12	65	23.3
	Above 13	17	6.1
Do you have prior overseas experience before serving in peacekeeping missions?	Yes	78	27.6
	No	201	72.4
In how many languages (including English) do you have basic conversational fluency?	One language	2	0.7
	Two languages	242	86.7
	Three languages	34	12.2
	More than 4-languages	1	0.4
In the country you have served, how would you rate your local language proficiency?	Not proficient	77	27.6
	Limited -proficiency	70	25.1
	Somewhat-proficient	91	32.6
	Extremely-proficient	41	14.7

All the respondents are male (100 %). In terms of age, 95 (34%) respondents fall under the age category of 32-37 years old; in terms of marital status, 210 (75%) respondents are married. With regards to the duration of service in the military 99 (35 %) respondents fall under categories of 1-5 years. In terms of present rank, 90 (32 %) are lieutenants. For the position during the peacekeeping mission, 119 (42 %) are platoon leaders. As for region served, 202 (72%) respondents served in Africa. For the duration of service in region served based on number of months, 197 (70%) respondents are under the category of 1-6 months. In terms of overseas experience before serving in peacekeeping missions, 201 (72%) respondents have no experience. With regards to the number of languages that respondents are fluent in, 242 (86%) respondents are able to talk in two languages, including Arabic. Finally, in terms of how respondents rate their local language fluency based on the country that they served, 91 (32%) respondents are somewhat proficient.

4.4 Descriptive Statistics

The main descriptive statistics for military leaders includes mean and standard deviation Table 4.3

Table 4.3
Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
MeanSR	279	3.2389	.57427
MeanTraining	279	3.2679	.52298
MeanCompe	279	3.2413	.51203
MeanEI	279	3.4490	.43069
MeanSI	279	3.0777	.42356
MeanLP	279	3.1039	.49209
MeanCI	279	3.2865	.36955
MeanSCA	279	2.9742	.32362
MeanPSY	279	3.2851	.48341
MeanAP	279	3.3853	.60476
Valid N (listwise)	279		

Level	Low 1 -2.5	Medium2.5 - 3.5	High 3.5- 5

Table 4.3 the level of the cross-cultural competence shows that military leaders in the peacekeeping missions have a moderate level of CQ dimensions mean (3.28) , EQ dimensions mean (3.46) and SQ (3); they have moderate level of language mean (3.1); socio-cultural adjustment mean (2.9); psychological adjustment mean (3.8); and adaptive performance mean (3.38).

4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

This section presents the results of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for this study using principal component analysis technique. As mentioned in chapter three, all the

items were adopted from previous studies; hence, this study only undertook the CFA. Smart-PLS 2.0 (Ringle *et al.,* 2005) has an in-built feature that takes care of the CFA.

4.6 The Measurement Model

Firstly, this study took steps to ensure that the measurement model is valid and reliable. Hair*,* Ringle and Sarstedt *(*2013) posited that the outer loading should be 0.5 and more to be considered for average variance extracted (AVE). Hence, each item with outer loading of less than 0.5 was deleted starting from the lowest value. Hair *et al. (*2013) stated that this technique is very appropriate because it improves data quality.

The measurement model was estimated with the help of the Smart PLS-SEM (Ringle *et al*; 2010). Smart PLS underlies two primary criteria: to assess the measurement of the outer model or to measure its reliability (Ramayah, Lee & In, 2011). A reliability test determines the consistency of the instrument to measure the concept it is meant to measure, while validity tests are used to determine the extent of how the instrument measures a specific concept (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Both convergent and discriminant validity of the instruments were assessed through PLS (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), where the PLS analysis predictive power was analyzed through the dependent variables R squared (R^2) coefficient and the standard path coefficient for every relationship traced from the independent to the dependent variables. The interpretation of the R^2 coefficient is the same as in the conventional multiple regression analysis, where the R^2 values reflect the construct's variance as explained

by the model (Chin, 1998b). In PLS analysis, normality is not crucial according to Chin (2010).

Additionally, the assessment of statistical significance through Smart PLS was run through the bootstrap method. Bootstrapping refers to a non-parametric re-sampling procedure entailing repetitive random sampling while conducting replacements from the original sample (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). It is a method that calculates measures to highlight the importance of the path coefficients (Chin, 2010). The present study made use of this method to test the path coefficients' significance. This study tested the effect of the mediating variable (socio-cultural and psychological adjustment) with Smart PLS 2.0 (Hair *et al.,* 2013); using the bootstrapping, the researcher ran a 5000 re-sampling bootstrapping and the model displayed the t-values.

4.7 Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to the assessment of the extent that the results achieved are aligned with the theories around which the test is developed for (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). It involves determining whether or not the instrument measures the actual concept that has been theorized. For this analysis, the measurement scales were exposed to three types of validity tests: content validity, convergent validity and discriminant validity (Dyba, 2005). Content validity measures the level to which the scale items/indicators reflect the concepts examined. Hence, the measurement items selection was according to the accepted procedures and recommendations developed for content validity (Straub, 1989).

Second, convergence and discriminant validity are branches of construct validity. It attempts to determine the alignment between a theoretical concept and measuring instrument by examining whether or not the measurement scales reflect the attributes (Dyba, 2005). According to Hair *et al*. (2010), convergent validity can be assessed through factor loadings, composite reliability and AVE. The criterion of convergent validity is satisfied if all the measurements that are purported to represent a specific construct do represent it.

Moreover, the rule of thumb states that the respective loadings and cross- loadings should be initially assessed to detect issues with any specific items that lay down the condition for convergent validity. Specifically, the validity of a specific measurement scale is considered to be convergent when indicators/items loadings on their related constructs are high (more than 0.5) (Hair *et a*l., 2010) and that no item loading is higher on a construct other than the one it is intended to measure (Barclay, Higgins & Thompson, 1995). In the present study, forty seven (47) items loaded adequately on their respective constructs and exceeded the recommended threshold value of 0.5 (Hair *et al*., 2012) (See appendix C: cross loading).

Table 4.3 indicates that all the indicators loaded on their respective construct adequately from a lower bound of 0.66 to an upper bound of 0.90. Additionally, all the indicators loaded more highly on their respective constructs than on any other construct, thus improving data quality (Hair *et al*., 2013).

Convergent validity for this study was further assessed using the AVE measure (see Table 4.3). AVE is the average variance shared between a construct and its measures.

AVE for a construct should be greater than the variance shared between the construct and other constructs in a particular model (Couchman & Fulop, 2006). The rule of thumb states that an AVE value of 0.5 or higher is considered acceptable (Hair *et al*., 2013). Table 4.4 shows that the AVE ranges between 0.51 and 0.81.

Table 4.4
The composite reliability and average variance extracted

Construct	Items	Loadings	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	AVE
Adaptive Performance	SB_Q1	0.888867	0.91	0.93	0.65
	SB_Q2	0.862805			
	SB_Q3	0.793832			
	SB_Q4	0.738539			
	SB_Q6	0.805796			
	SB_Q7	0.753239			
	SB_Q8	0.770232			
Social Cultural Adjustment	SC1_Q3	0.675211	0.73	0.83	0.55
	SC1_Q4	0.749603			
	SC1_Q5	0.832945			
	SC1_Q8	0.707933			
Psychological Adjustment	SC2_Q2	0.664809	0.86	0.89	0.51
	SC2_Q3	0.771783			
	SC2_Q4	0.743505			
	SC2_Q5	0.729102			
	SC2_Q6	0.673693			
	SC2_Q8	0.762113			
	SC2_Q9	0.759063			
Recruitment and Selection	SD1_Q3	0.780949	0.82	0.88	0.65
	SD1_Q4	0.868731			
	SD1_Q5	0.853048			
	SD1_Q6	0.718866			

Table: 4.4 Continued

Training and Development	SD2_Q2	0.825052	0.65	0.85	0.74
	SD2_Q3	0.894195			
Emotional Intelligence Use	SE1_Q10	0.829818	0.64	0.84	0.73
	SE1_Q11	0.813419			
EQ Regulation of Emotion	SE1_Q13	0.805813	0.81	0.89	0.73
	SE1_Q14	0.830927			
	SE1_Q15	0.854114			
Emotional Intelligence Others	SE1_Q5	0.895965	0.73	0.88	0.79
	SE1_Q6	0.880834			
CQ Cognitive	SE2_Q18	0.879404	0.71	0.87	0.78
	SE2_Q19	0.882992			
	SE2_Q20	0.7368			
CQ Motivation	SE2_Q21	0.834609	0.81	0.87	0.63
	SE2_Q22	0.887324			
	SE2_Q23	0.70953			
CQ Meta Cognitive	SE2_Q26	0.907178	0.71	0.87	0.77
	SE2_Q27	0.851362			
CQ Behavior	SE2_Q29	0.896241	0.76	0.89	0.81
	SE2_Q30	0.901798			
Language	SE3_Q34	0.805653	0.67	0.82	0.60
	SE3_Q35	0.831603			
	SE3_Q36	0.67359			
Social Intelligence	SE4_Q40	0.829979	0.65	0.81	0.59
	SE4_Q41	0.732816			
	SE4_Q42	0.730343			

As argued by Hair *et al.* (2010), convergent validity is attained when items load higher than 0.5 and no item from other constructs possesses a loading higher than the one it intends to measure. As far this study is concerned forty seven (47) items had

Cronbach's alpha above 0.5 as shown in Table 4.4 and all the items possessed loadings ranging from 0.65 to 0.90. Table 4.3 provides results of the AVE calculations with resultant coefficients that range from 0.51 to 0.81, indicating that convergent validity has been established for all the constructs. With the results of the convergent validity that demonstrate satisfactory item loadings, composite reliability, and satisfactory AVE coefficients for the individual items, it is evident that the items/indicators represent distinct latent constructs, hence establishing their convergent validity.

On the other hand, discriminant validity is whether measures that should not be related are actually not related. To assess discriminant validity, the square root of the AVE for each construct is used (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The square roots of AVE coefficients are then presented in the correlation matrix along the diagonal. The squared AVE should be greater than the squared correlation estimates to provide good evidence of discriminant validity (Hair *et al*., 2007). More specifically, to establish adequate discriminant validity, the diagonal coefficients or elements must be greater than the off-diagonal coefficients or elements in the corresponding rows and columns. Table 4.5 shows the results of discriminant validity analysis of the constructs used in this study. Along the diagonal, the Table shows square roots of AVE for all the constructs indicating higher square roots of AVE for CQ behavioral (0.90), and lower for psychological adjustment (0.71). However, all the square roots of AVE for the constructs are higher than the off-diagonal coefficients in the corresponding rows and columns, thus, establishing evidence of discriminant validity.

Table 4.5

Discriminant Validity

	ADPPER	CIB	CIC	CIM	CIMETA	EIO	EIR	EIU	LANG	PSYA	RS	SCA	SI	TRD
ADPPER	**0.80**													
CIB	0.60	**0.90**												
CIC	0.13	0.19	**0.88**											
CIM	0.10	0.14	0.62	**0.80**										
CIMETA	0.62	0.56	0.15	0.18	**0.88**									
EIO	0.66	0.60	0.18	0.14	0.61	**0.89**								
EIR	-0.17	-0.10	-0.21	-0.23	-0.17	-0.14	**0.85**							
EIU	0.62	0.45	0.16	0.13	0.58	0.68	-0.17	**0.86**						
LANG	0.22	0.21	0.06	0.09	0.21	0.23	-0.02	0.12	**0.77**					
PSYA	0.52	0.47	0.21	0.29	0.44	0.38	-0.17	0.28	0.39	**0.71**				
RS	0.62	0.65	0.16	0.14	0.63	0.55	-0.14	0.51	0.17	0.55	**0.81**			
SCA	0.12	0.11	0.04	0.13	0.19	0.14	0.07	0.04	0.30	0.40	0.15	**0.74**		
SI	0.18	0.09	0.01	0.13	0.16	0.08	0.04	0.26	0.59	0.37	0.10	0.31	**0.77**	
TRD	0.59	0.48	0.20	0.19	0.57	0.57	-0.19	0.54	0.10	0.40	0.56	0.07	-0.01	**0.86**

Note. Diagonals that appeared in bold represent the average variance extracted while the other entries represent the squared correlations.

Foot note: CIC cultural intelligence cognitive , CIM cultural intelligence motivational , CI-META= cultural intelligence meta-cognitive, CIB= cultural intelligence behavioral, EIU= emotional intelligence use , EIO= emotional intelligence others, EIR =emotional intelligence regulation , SI =social intelligence , LANG= language , RS =recruitment and selection , TRD= training and development , SCA= social cultural adjustment, PSYA= psychological adjustment , APPER=adaptive performance

4.8 Revision of Proposed Theoretical Model

Prior to the structural model presentation entailing main and mediating effects, this section explains and presents the revised theoretical framework to clearly understand the hypothesized relationships under study. The proposed model (Figure 4.1) was modified based on the CFA conducted as explained in prior sections. Specifically, owing to some indicator deletions, the PLS CFA necessitated some changes to the original model. The old theoretical model had thirteen13 independent variables, two mediators and one dependent variable. The thirteen (13) independent variables became eleven (11) constructs, mainly CQ with four dimensions, EQ with three dimensions, SQ and language, together with the two dimensions of international human resource management practices (selection recruitment, training development). Regarding socio-cultural and psychological adjustment, the proposed initial model finally consisted of one construct (adaptive performance).
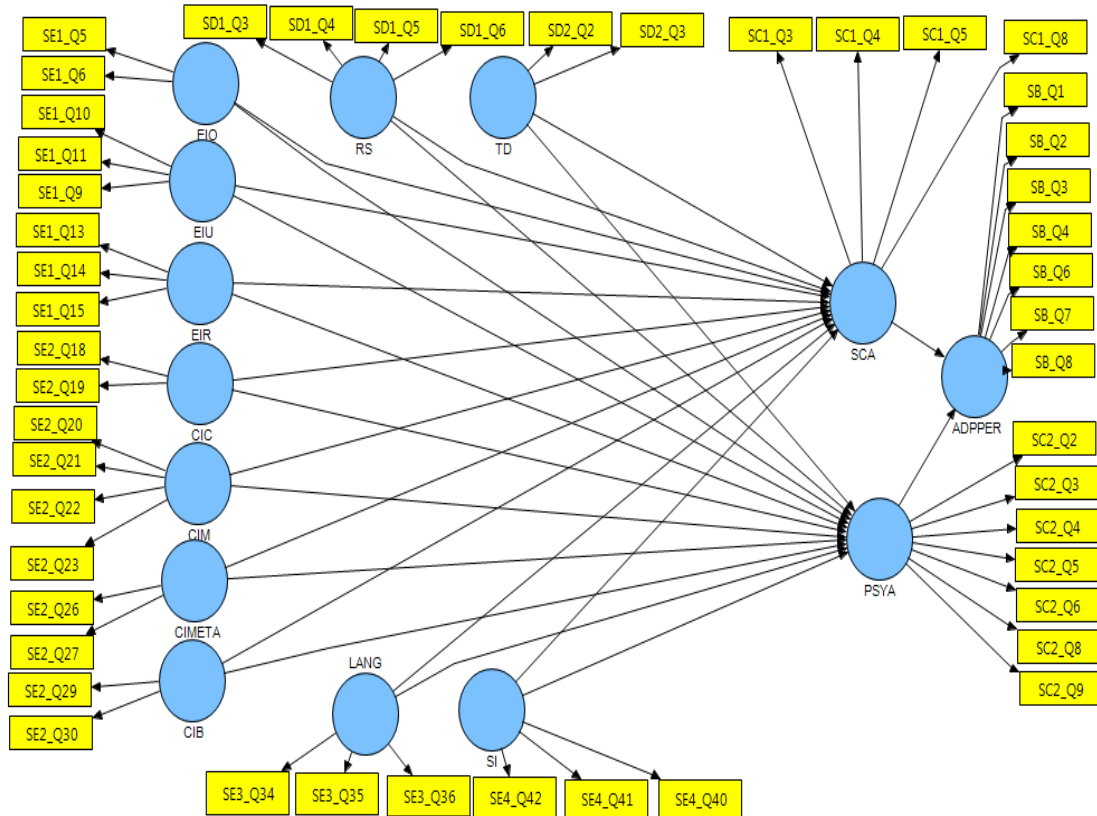
Figure 4.1

Revised Proposal Theoretical Model

4.9 Structural Model

The following section deals with the results of the structural model and the hypotheses testing. This section discusses the hypothesis testing and the main and mediating effects using the SMART PLS 2.0. Prior to this, the study hypotheses were revisited to represent all the model constructs.

4.10 Main Effects Hypotheses

In this study, seventeen (17) main effect hypotheses were formulated. The formulated hypotheses involved the relationships between eleven (11) independent variables, including CQ cognitive, CQ motivational, CQ meta-cognitive and CQ behavioral;

emotional intelligence use, emotional intelligence others and emotional intelligence regulation; SQ and language; recruitment and selection and training and development; and social cultural adjustment as a proposed mediator. Secondly, eleven (11) hypotheses involving the relationships between the same eleven (11) independent variables and psychological adjustment as a proposed mediator were tested. Thirdly, eleven (11) hypotheses involving relationships between the independent variables of this study and adaptive performance as the dependent variable were tested.

4.11 Main Effects

The main relationship effects were tested through PLS-SEM analysis. Each contribution of the independent variable is reflected by the standardized beta values in the PLS model (Chin, 1998b). The present study is concerned with exploring the mediating effect of socio-cultural adjustment and psychological adjustment on the relationship between eleven (11) independent variables and adaptive performance. Accordingly, the results of the main effects are presented in three main sections. The first section presents the main/direct relationships between the independent variables and mediating variables. The second section presents the main/direct relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable and finally, the third section presents the main/direct relationships between mediating variables (socio-cultural adjustment and psychological adjustment) and dependent variable (adaptive performance). In this regard, the relationships are represented by standardized beta values. In testing the structural model relationships, the choice of significance level was set at p<.05 (Hair *et al*., 2013). In this study, the researcher chose *t*-values for a one-tailed test are 1.64.5 (significance level 0.05).

4.11.1 Relationship between Cross-Cultural Competence, International Human Resource Management Practices and Socio-Cultural Adjustment and Psychological Adjustment

The two mediating variables include socio-cultural adjustment and psychological adjustment. Table 4.6 shows the standardized path coefficient (β), standard error, t-values and decisions made. Similarly, Figure 4.2 graphically indicates standardized path coefficient (β) and t-values for the hypothesized relationships; ten (10) out of the twenty two (22) direct relationships between the independent variables and the mediating variables demonstrated significant relationships. Similarly, the remaining twelve (12) direct relationships between the independent variables and the mediating variables demonstrated non-significant effects.

Figure 4.2

PLS Algorithm the relationship between Cross Cultural Competence, International Human Resource Management and Social Cultural and Psychological Adjustment
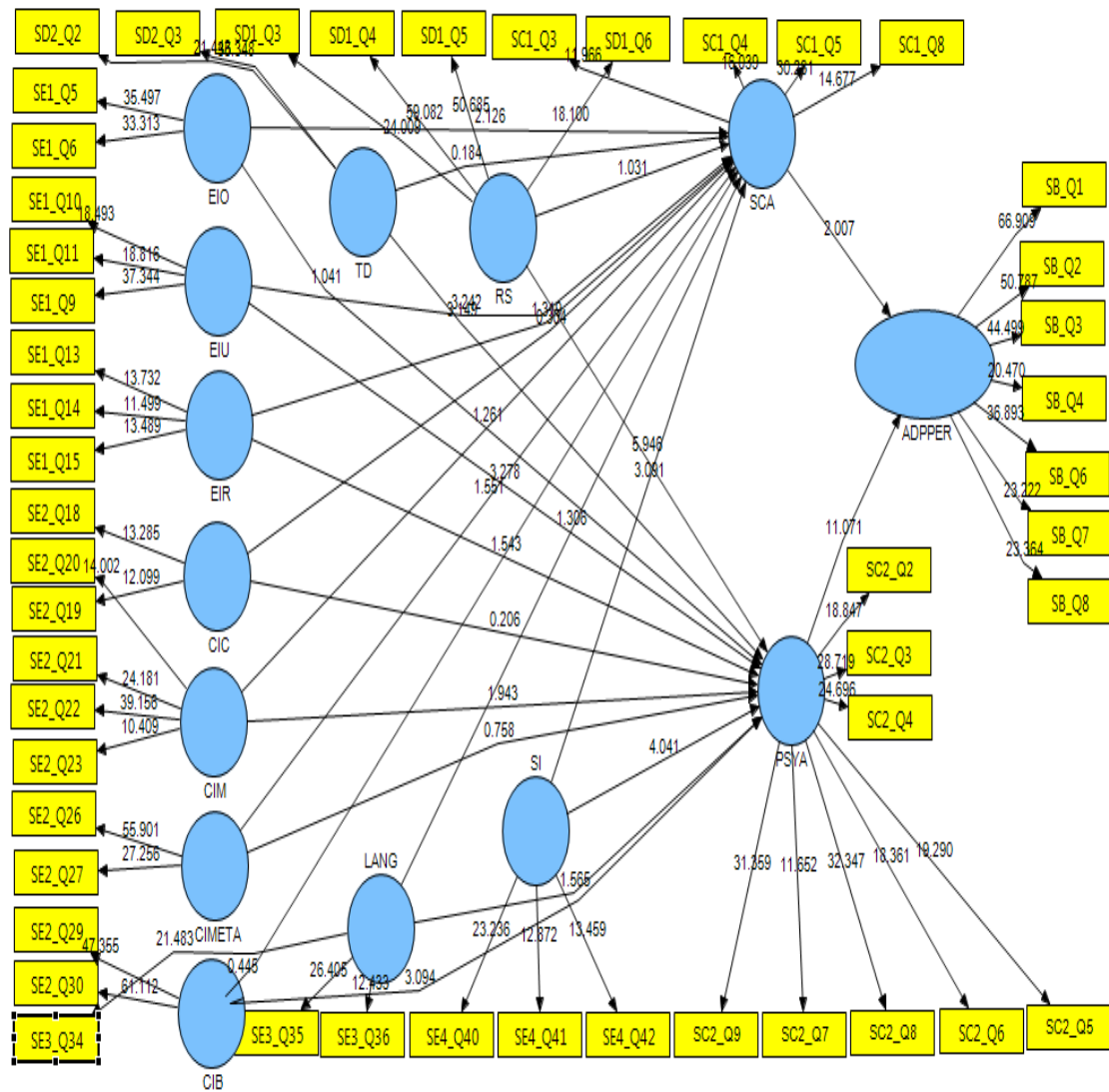
Figure 4.3
PLS Bootstrapping the relationship between Cross Cultural Competence, International Human
Resource Management and Social Cultural and Psychological Adjustment.

Table 4.6

Relationship between Cross Cultural Competence, International Human Resource Management and Social Cultural and Psychological Adjustment

	Beta (β)	Standard Error (STERR)	T Statistics (O/STERR)	P value	Decision
CIB -> PSYA	0.182712	0.05024	3.636806	0.05	Supported
CIB -> SCA	-0.03364	0.075017	0.448408	0.65	Not Supported
CIC -> PSYA	0.015606	0.06998	0.223002	0.82	Not Supported
CIC -> SCA	-0.02362	0.078719	0.300089	0.76	Not Supported
CIM -> PSYA	0.127922	0.068967	1.854825	0.05	Supported
CIM -> SCA	0.093721	0.074972	1.250079	0.21	Not Supported
CIMETA -> PSYA	0.035697	0.054684	0.652798	0.51	Not Supported
CIMETA -> SCA	0.146557	0.093933	1.560236	0.11	Not Supported
EIO -> PSYA	0.067526	0.064809	1.041934	0.29	Not Supported
EIO -> SCA	0.168848	0.078442	2.152513	0.05	Supported
EIR -> PSYA	-0.10236	0.050786	2.015557	0.05	Supported
EIR -> SCA	0.081866	0.060536	1.35235	0.17	Not Supported
EIU -> PSYA	-0.27445	0.081707	3.358895	0.05	Supported
EIU -> SCA	-0.28397	0.086578	3.279975	0.05	Supported
LANG -> PSYA	0.104739	0.066879	1.566098	0.11	Not Supported
LANG -> SCA	0.101109	0.07573	1.335134	0.18	Not Supported
RS -> PSYA	0.324516	0.058296	5.566659	0.05	Supported
RS -> SCA	0.082103	0.078414	1.047048	0.29	Not Supported
SI -> PSYA	0.321649	0.074662	4.308046	0.05	Supported
SI -> SCA	0.279913	0.087525	3.198075	0.05	Supported
TRD -> PSYA	0.170987	0.057549	2.971159	0.05	Supported
TRD -> SCA	0.014843	0.08046	0.184471	0.85	Not Supported

Foot note: CIC cultural intelligence cognitive , CIM cultural intelligence motivational , CI-META= cultural intelligence meta-cognitive, CIB= cultural intelligence behavioral, EIU= emotional intelligence use , EIO= emotional intelligence others, EIR =emotional intelligence regulation , SI =social intelligence , LANG= language, RS =recruitment and selection , TRD= training and development , SCA= social cultural adjustment, PSYA= psychological adjustment , APPER=adaptive performance

R^2 was utilized to examine the predictive power of the model. R^2 refers to the variance in the endogenous variables that are explained by the exogenous variables. Cohen (1988) suggested a value of R^2, where 0.26 is substantial, 0.13 is moderate, and 0.02 is weak. Figure 4.3 shows that the explanation power of eleven (11) independent variables toward psychological and socio-cultural adjustment where (11) variable collectively explain 50 % of the variance found in psychological adjustment and eleven (11) independent variables collectively explain 18% of the variance found in socio-cultural adjustment.The results as exhibited in Table 4.6 demonstrate that eleven (11) independent variables have significant effect on the mediating variables (psychological adjustment and socio-cultural adjustment). Out of the twenty two (22) relationships, eleven (11) independent variables and two mediating variables. Referring to table 4.6 the result demonstrate that only 10 relationship are positively significant, while 12 are not significant. Specifically, the significant results are demonstrated:

Table 4.7

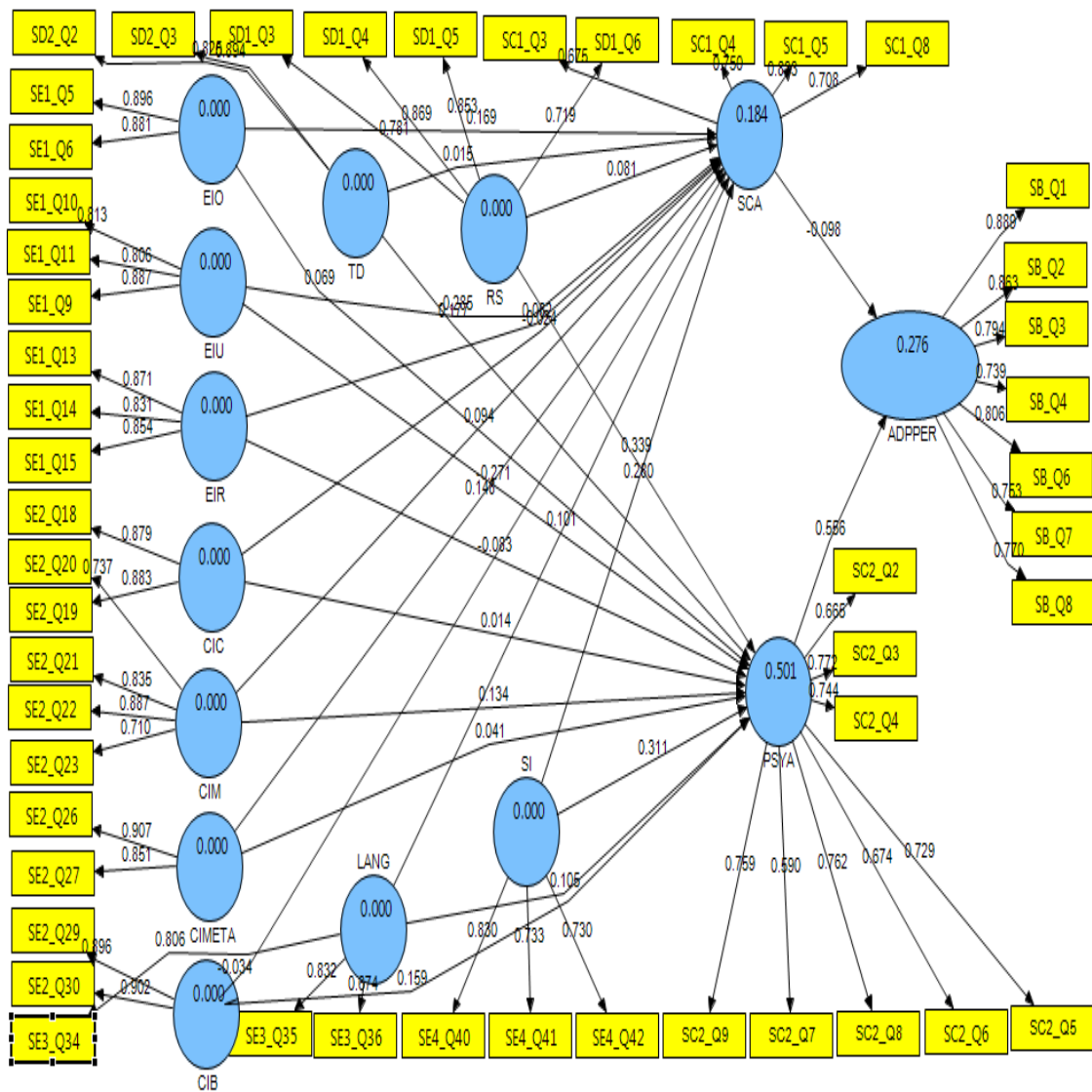*Significant Relationship between Cross Cultural Competence, International Human Resource Management and Social Cultural and Psychological Adjustment.*

|	Beta (β)	T Statistics (O/STERR)	P value	Decision
CIB -> PSYA	0.182712	3.636806	0.005	Supported
CIM -> PSYA	0.127922	1.854825	0.05	Supported
EIO -> SCA	0.168848	2.152513	0.05	Supported
EIR -> PSYA	-0.10236	2.015557	0.05	Supported
EIU -> PSYA	-0.27445	3.358895	0.05	Supported
EIU -> SCA	-0.28397	3.279975	0.05	Supported
RS -> PSYA	0.324516	5.566659	0.05	Supported
SI -> PSYA	0.321649	4.308046	0.05	Supported
SI -> SCA	0.279913	3.198075	0.05	Supported
TRD -> PSYA	0.170987	2.971159	0.05	Supported

Note: This study used 0.05 level of significance for t-values

Foot note: CIC cultural intelligence cognitive , CIM cultural intelligence motivational , CI-META= cultural intelligence meta-cognitive, CIB= cultural intelligence behavioral, EIU= emotional intelligence use , EIO= emotional intelligence others, EIR =emotional intelligence regulation , SI =social intelligence , LANG= language, RS =recruitment and selection , TRD= training and development , SCA= social cultural adjustment, PSYA= psychological adjustment , APPER=adaptive performance

Referring to table 4.7, the result therefore support hypotheses H1e, H1f, H1h, H2b, H2d, H2f, H2g, H2h, H5a and H5b. More importantly, it can be seen that RS ($\beta=$ 0.32; $t=$ 5.65, $p<.00$) is the most important variable in determining psychological adjustment. Similarly, it can be seen that EIU ($\beta=$ 0.28; $t=$ 3.28, $p<.00$) is the most important variable in determining socio-cultural adjustment.

4.11.2 Relationship between Cross-Cultural Competence, International Human Resource Management Practices and Adaptive Performance

This section presents the main effect results for the eleven (11) independent variables and the dependent variable (adaptive performance) as hypothesized earlier. As indicated in the Figures 4.4 and 4.5 and Table 4.8, six (6) out of the eleven (11) direct relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable demonstrated significant relationships, whereas the remaining five independent variables failed to demonstrate any significant effects. Specifically, the significant relationships are demonstrated as follows:

The R^2 value indicated that 62 % of variance in adaptive performance can be explained by the eleven (11) variables of this study. As indicated in Figures 4.4 and 4.5 and Table 4.8, EIU (β= 0.24; t= 3.51, p<.00) has strong significant effect on adaptive performance.

The results therefore, support hypotheses H3c, H3d, H3e, H3f and H6a and H6b. Moreover, it can be seen that among all the independent variables, EIU (β= 0.24; t= 3.51, p<.00) is the most important variable in determining adaptive performance.

Table 4.8

Direct Relationship between Cross Cultural Competence, International Human Resource Management and Adaptive Performance

Hypotheses	Beta (β)	Standard Error (STERR)	T Statistics (O/STERR)	P value	Decision
CIB -> ADPPER	0.129234	0.059052	2.188477	0.05	Supported
CIC -> ADPPER	-0.025	0.052971	0.472029	0.63	Not Supported

Table 4.8 Continued

CIM -> ADPPER	-0.05012	0.054145	0.925646	0.35	Not Supported
CIMETA -> ADPPER	0.118467	0.063027	1.87963	0.05	Supported
EIO -> ADPPER	0.161607	0.069708	2.318352	0.05	Supported
EIR -> ADPPER	-0.03395	0.035987	0.943485	0.34	Not Supported
EIU -> ADPPER	0.242046	0.068775	3.519393	0.05	Supported
LANG -> ADPPER	0.060287	0.053159	1.134098	0.18	Not Supported
RS -> ADPPER	0.170728	0.065032	2.6253	0.05	Supported
SI -> ADPPER	0.015498	0.052086	0.297552	0.77	Not Supported
TRD -> ADPPER	0.140494	0.049721	2.825643	0.05	Supported

Note: This study used .05 level of significance for t-values

Foot note: CIC cultural intelligence cognitive , CIM cultural intelligence motivational , CI-META= cultural intelligence meta-cognitive, CIB= cultural intelligence behavioral, EIU= emotional intelligence use , EIO= emotional intelligence others, EIR =emotional intelligence regulation , SI =social intelligence , LANG= language, RS =recruitment and selection , TRD= training and development , SCA= social cultural adjustment, PSYA= psychological adjustment , APPER=adaptive performance
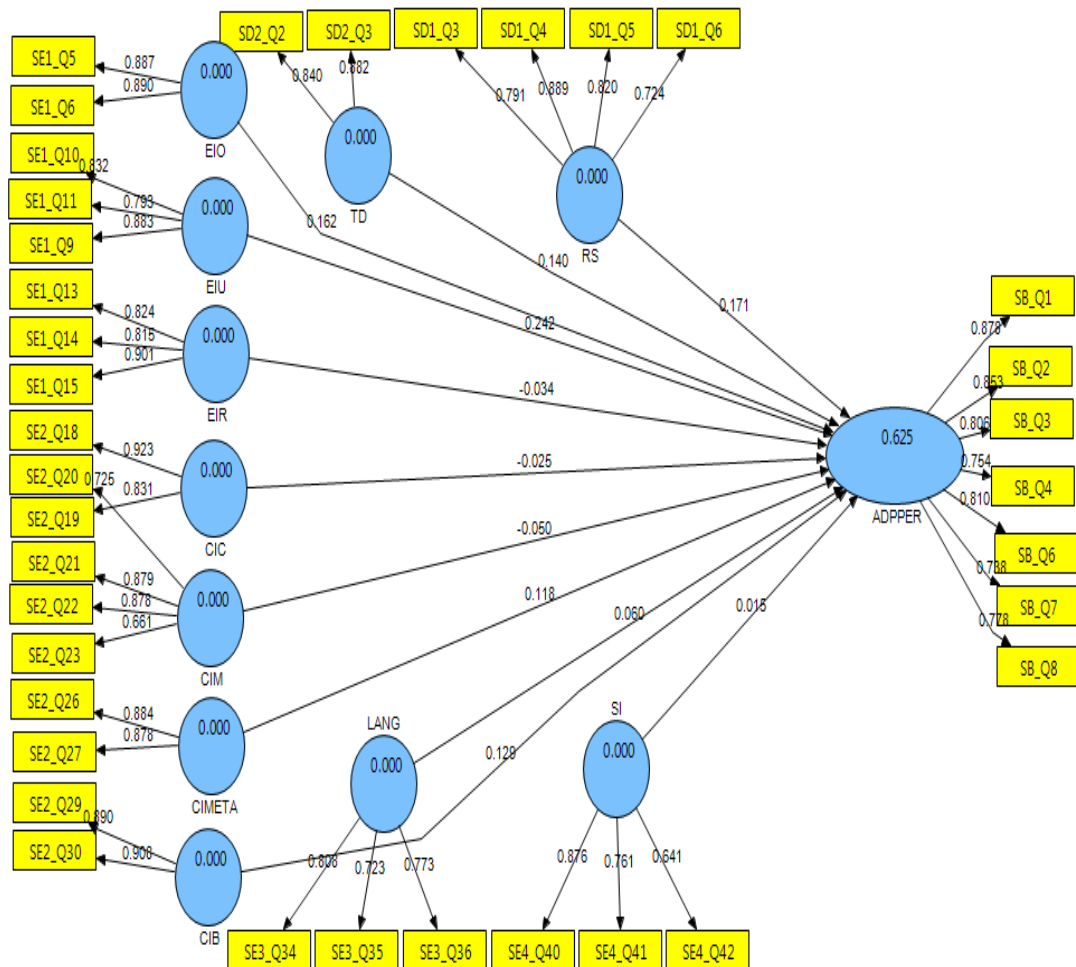
Figure 4.4
PLS Algorithm the relationship between Cross Cultural Competence, International Human Resource Management and Adaptive Performance
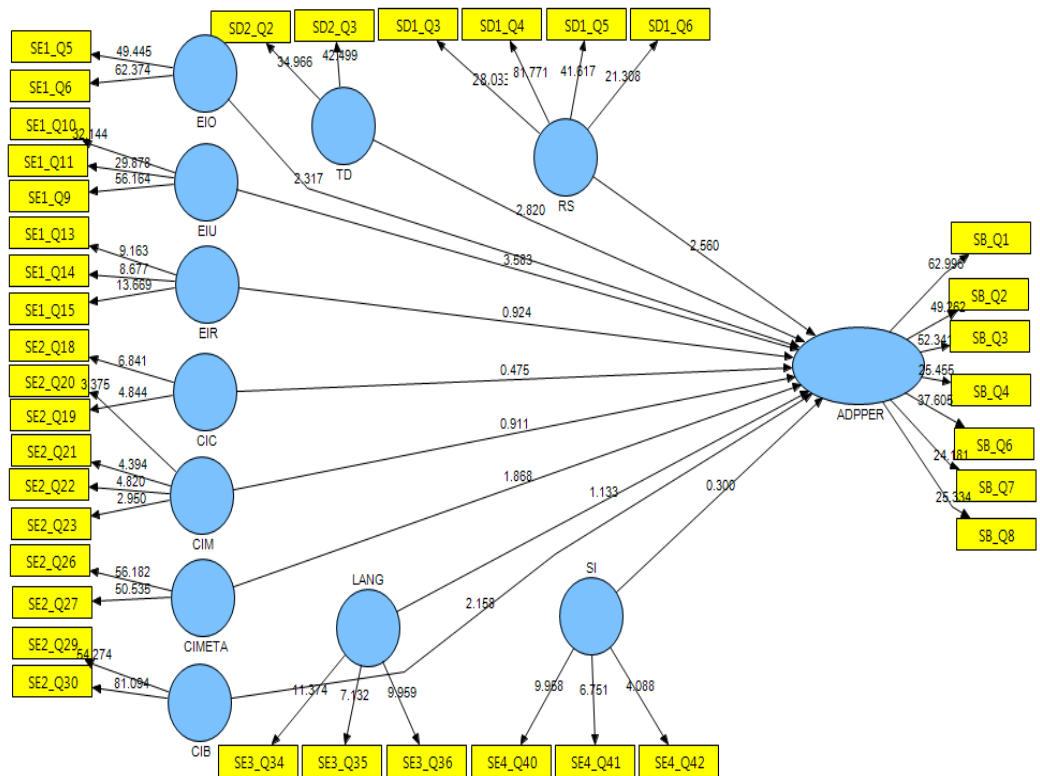
Figure 4.5

PLS Bootstrapping the relationship between Cross Cultural Competence, International Human Resource Management and Adaptive Performance

The R square value indicated that 62 % of variance in adaptive performance can be explained by the eleven (11) variables of this study. As indicated in the Figures 4.4 and 4.5 and Table 4.8, EIU (β= 0.24; t= 3.51, p<.00) has strong significant effect on adaptive performance.

Table 4.9

Significant Relationship between Cross Cultural Competence, International Human Resource Management practices and Adaptive performance

Hypotheses	Beta (β)	T Statistics (O/STERR)	P value	Decision
CIB -> ADPPER	0.129234	2.188477	0.05	Supported
CIMETA -> ADPPER	0.118467	1.87963	0.05	Supported
EIO -> ADPPER	0.161607	2.318352	0.05	Supported
EIU -> ADPPER	0.242046	3.519393	0.05	Supported
RS -> ADPPER	0.170728	2.6253	0.05	Supported
TRD -> ADPPER	0.140494	2.825643	0.05	Supported

Foot note: CIC cultural intelligence cognitive , CIM cultural intelligence motivational , CI-META= cultural intelligence meta-cognitive, CIB= cultural intelligence behavioral, EIU= emotional intelligence use , EIO= emotional intelligence others, EIR =emotional intelligence regulation , SI =social intelligence , LANG= language, RS =recruitment and selection , TRD= training and development , SCA= social cultural adjustment, PSYA= psychological adjustment , APPER=adaptive performance

The results, therefore, support hypotheses H3c, H3d, H3e, H3f and H6a and H6b. Moreover, it can be seen that among all the independent variables, EIU (β= 0.24; t= 3.51, p<.05) is the most important variable in determining adaptive performance.

4.11.3 Relationship between Socio-Cultural Adjustment, Psychological Adjustment and Adaptive Performance

The R^2 value indicated that 28% of variance in adaptive performance can be explained by the two mediating variables of this study. As indicated in Figures 4.6 and 4.7 and Table 4.10, PSYA (β= 0.56; t= 11.09, p<.05) has strong significant effect on adapted performance. Additionally, the results demonstrate significant relationship

(β= -0.08; t= 2.00, $p<.05$) between socio-cultural adjustment and adapted performance. Thus, hypothesis H7a and H7b are supported.

Table 4.10
Social Cultural Adjustment, Psychological Adjustment and Adaptive Performance

Hypotheses	Beta (β)	Standard Error (STERR)	T Statistics (O/STERR)	P value	Decision
PSYA -> ADPPER	0.56	0.056	11.09	0.00	Supported
SCA -> ADPPER	-0.08	0.05	2.00	0.04	Supported

Note: This study used .05 level of significance for t-values

Foot note: SCA= social cultural adjustment, PSYA= psychological adjustment , APPER=adaptive performance
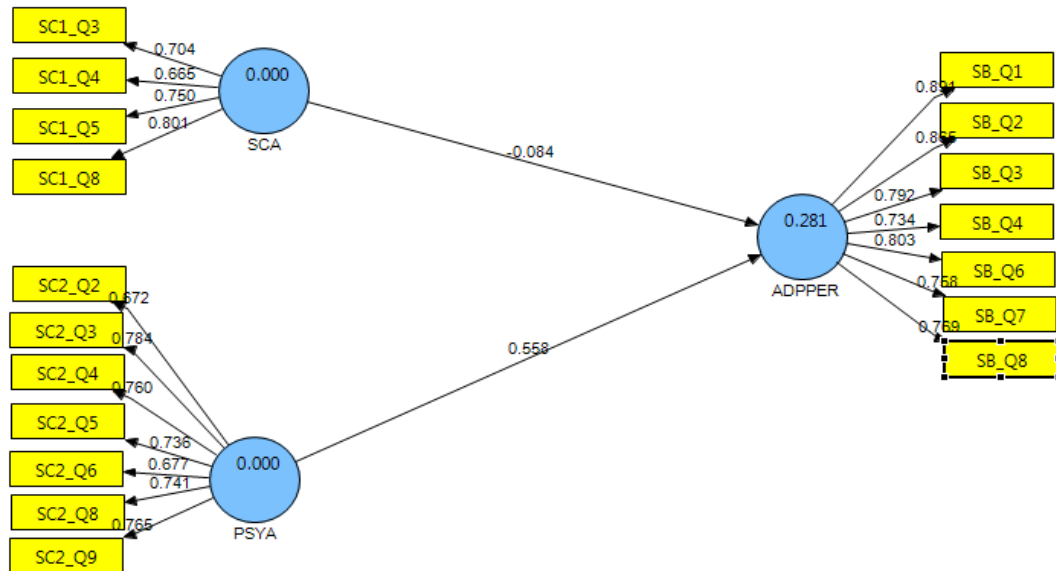
Figure 4-6
PLS Algorithm the relationship between Social Cultural Adjustment, Psychological Adjustment and Adaptive Performance.
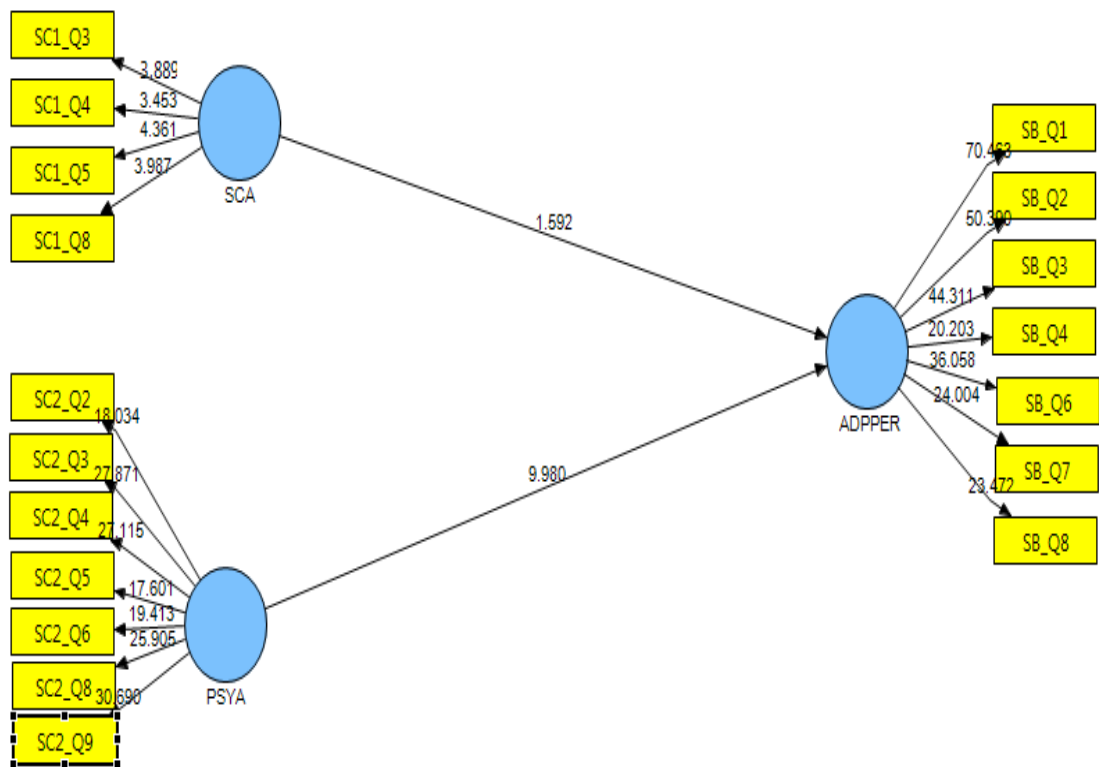
Figure 4-7
PLS Bootstrapping the relation between Social Cultural Adjustment, Psychological Adjustment and Adaptive Performance

4.12 Analysis of Socio-Cultural Adjustment and Psychological Adjustment Effects

The mediating relationship was tested to determine if socio-cultural adjustment and psychological adjustment variables can significantly influence the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Ramayah *et al*., 2011). Mediator tests assess the indirect relationship of the independent variable on the dependent one via a mediator variable. The mediation analysis in multivariate analysis is carried out through various simple methods consisting of the causal steps approach (Baron and Kenny's 1986) or the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982); contemporary methods that call for fewer unrealistic statistical assumptions, such as the distribution of the product method (MacKinnon, Lockwood and Williams, 2004); and re-sampling methods like bootstrapping (MacKinnon *et al*., 2004).

The present study used the PLS-SEM approach to run the mediator test where the study hypotheses were tested (Wold, 1985). This method is extensively used and acknowledged by leadership researchers like House, Spangler and Woycke (1991) and Howell and Avolio (1993), owing to its appropriateness in testing complex multivariate primary and secondary effects. Generally, PLS is related to smaller sample size (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) but it is also utilized to develop inferences concerning study parameters that involve large sample sizes (Starkweather, 2011). The 5000 resampling bootstrap PLS method is employed to evaluate the statistical significance of relevant path coefficients as the method represents an accurate calculation of measures (Hair *et al*., 2013).

Smart PLS employs path analysis and considers both direct and indirect effects at the same time (e.g., Baron & Kenny, 1986), while no other mechanism has been developed to treat mediating models simultaneously. Furthermore, the PLS-SEM method is considered as appropriate to examine mediation effects (Hair *et al*., 2013). In addition, independent variable affects the mediator, which in turn affects the outcome. One also has to fulfill the prerequisite that there must be a significant association between the independent variable and the dependent variable before testing for a mediating effect. Because parametric analysis could sometimes be too weak, or too powerful, bootstrapping the indirect effect is used to provide remedy in PLS analysis. In addition to this, mediation is established only when the indirect effect is significant, and there is no mediation when the indirect effect is not significant.

4.13 Mediating Effects Hypotheses

Twenty two (22) mediating effects hypotheses accordingly based on the results obtained from the PLS as discussed earlier. Specifically, the hypotheses were concerned with the mediating effects of socio-cultural adjustment on the relationship between the eleven (11) independent variables, including CQ cognitive, CQ motivational, CQ meta-cognitive, CQ behavioral; EQ use, EQ others, EQ regulation; SQ, language, recruitment and selection, training and development and adaptive performance. Secondly, another eleven (11) hypotheses were formulated concerning the proposed mediating effects of psychological adjustment on the relationship between the eleven (11) independent variables of this study and adaptive performance.

4.14 Mediation Effect of Socio-Cultural Adjustment and Psychological Adjustment

The actual mediation effect in PLS model is determined by means of bootstrapping analysis in tandem with formulated hypotheses (Hair *et al*., 2013). Specifically, mediation is determined by multiplying the average of paths "a" and "b" and then dividing the obtained value by the standard error of the paths (Kock, 2013) as shown in this formula: $T=a \ X \ b \ S(a \ X \ b)$ Where:

t= represents the significance coefficient

a = value of relationship between independent variable and the mediator
b = value of the relationship between mediator and the dependent variable
Sab = standard deviation of the -a and -b above

Thus, this formula was used to determine the mediating effects of psychological and socio- cultural adjustment on all the eleven (11) relationships of this study. In addition, the formula, "a" represents the direct path between predictor variables, namely cross-cultural competence constructs (CQ, EQ, SQ and language proficiency) and human resource management practices constructs (selection and recruitment and development and training); and "b" represents the path between psychological and socio-cultural adjustment and the criterion variable (adaptive performance). Both paths, a and b, must be obtained from the PLS bootstrapping to ascertain the significance of their coefficients and standard error (Hair *et al*., 2013). Finally, "Sab" represents the standard deviation of paths a and b. Generally, in PLS bootstrap mediation calculation, "T" represents the significance coefficient. Mediation is established if T value is equal to or greater than 1.64.5, a= 0.05 significance level using one-tail test or 2.33 a= 0.01 significance level using one tail test (Hair *et al*., 2013).

Generally, the mediation tests for this study were conducted to find if socio-cultural and psychological adjustment could mediate the relationship between cross-cultural competence constructs (CQ cognitive, CQ meta-cognitive, CQ motivational and CQ behavioral; EQ use, EQ others and EQ regulation; SQ and language proficiency) and international human resource management practices constructs (selection and recruitment and training and development) as exogenous variables and adaptive performance as an endogenous variable. The results of the mediational relationships/models are presented as follows.

The first section presents the mediational results of socio-cultural adjustment concerning the relationships between cross-cultural competence constructs (CQ cognitive, CQ meta-cognitive, CQ motivational and CQ behavioral; EQ use, EQ others and EQ regulation; SQ and language proficiency) and human resource management practices constructs (selection and recruitment and training and development) and adaptive performance construct as endogenous variable.

The second section presents the mediational results of psychological adjustment concerning the relationships between cross-cultural competence constructs (CQ cognitive, CQ meta-cognitive, CQ motivational and CQ behavioral; EQ use, EQ others and EQ regulation; SQ and language proficiency) and human resource management practices constructs (selection and recruitment and training and development) and adaptive performance construct as endogenous variable (see results in Appendix E).

Table 4.11
Mediating Effects of Socio-cultural Adjustment

Hypotheses	Beta (β)	Standard Error (STERR)	T Statistics (O/STERR)	P value	Decision
Recruitment and selection > Adaptive performance	-0.08	0.009	0.653	.39	Not supported
Training and Development > Adaptive Performance	0.001	0.009	0.21	.83	Not supported
Emotional Intelligence Use > Adaptive Performance	0.029	0.018	1.58	.11	Not supported
Emotional Intelligence Others > Adaptive Performance	-0.076	0.001	-1.41	.16	Not supported
Emotional Intelligence Regulation > Adaptive Performance	-0.008	0.007	1.08	.28	Not supported
Cultural Intelligence Cognitive > Adaptive Performance	0.002	0.008	0.29	.79	Not supported
Cultural Intelligence Motivation > Adaptive Performance	-0.01	0.01	-1.00	.31	Not supported
Cultural Intelligence Behaviour> Adaptive Performance	0.003	0.008	0.39	.69	Not supported
Cultural Intelligence Meta- Cognitive > Adaptive Performance	-0.01	0.07	-1.2	.23	Not supported
Language > Adaptive Performance	-0.01	0.009	1.00	.29	Not supported
Social Intelligence > Adaptive Performance	0.02	0.01	1.57	.11	Not supported

Note: This study used .05 level of significance for t-values

Table 4.11 displays the result of test of socio-cultural adjustment indicating a t-value of .65 for recruitment and selection; .21 for training and development; 1.58 for EQ use, 1.41 for EQ others,1.08 for EQ regulation; .29 for CQ cognitive,1.0 for CQ motivation, .39 for CQ behavior and 1.2 for CQ meta-cognitive;1.0 for language and1.57 for SQ. The introduction of the mediator does not cause an effect in all the relationships and all the relationships are insignificant.

Table 4.12
Mediating Effects of Psychological Adjustment

Hypotheses	Beta (β)	Standard Error	T Statistics	P value	Decision
Recruitment and selection > Adaptive performance	0.18	0.03	4.86	.05	Supported
Training and Development > Adaptive Performance	0.09	0.03	2.75	.05	Supported
Emotional Intelligence Use > Adaptive Performance	0.15	0.05	3.29	.05	Supported
Emotional Intelligence Others > Adaptive Performance	0.04	0.04	1.00	.31	Not Supported
Emotional Intelligence Regulation > Adaptive Performance	0.05	0.03	1.96	.05	Supported
Cultural Intelligence Cognitive > Adaptive Performance	0.01	0.04	0.23	.81	Not Supported
Cultural Intelligence Motivation > Adaptive Performance	0.07	0.04	1.85	.05	Supported
Cultural Intelligence Meta Cognitive > Adaptive Performance	0.02	0.03	0.64	.52	Not Supported

Table 4.12 Continued

Cultural Intelligence Behavior > Adaptive Performance	0.10	0.03	3.4	.05	Supported
Language > Adaptive Performance	0.06	0.03	1.61	.10	Not Supported
Social Intelligence > Adaptive Performance	0.18	0.04	4.06	.05	Supported

Note: This study used 0.05 level of significance for t-values

Table 4.12 displays the result of test of psychological adjustment indicating a t-value of 4.68 for recruitment and selection; 2.75 for training and development; 3.29 for EQ use, 1.0 for EQ others, 1.96 for EQ regulation; .23 for CQ cognitive,1.85 for CQ motivation, 3.4 for CQ behavior and .64 for CQ meta-cognitive; 1.61 for language; and 14.06 for SQ. The above results of the mediating effects interpret that six relationships out of the eleven (11) indirect relationships indicate mediation and significance.

4.15 Summary of findings

Using the PLS technique, the multivariate analysis has statistically provided support for some of the hypotheses for this study. Findings reveal that out of the twenty two (22) main effect relationships regarding the relationship between independent variables and the two mediating variables (i.e., psychological adjustment and socio-cultural adjustment) of this study, ten (10) hypotheses have demonstrated significant effects.

Table 4. 13
Summary of findings

	Beta (β)	T Statistics (O/STERR)	P value	Decision
CIB -> PSYA	0.182712	3.636806	0.05	Supported
CIM -> PSYA	0.127922	1.854825	0.05	Supported
EIO -> SCA	0.168848	2.152513	0.05	Supported
EIR -> PSYA	-0.10236	2.015557	0.05	Supported
EIU -> PSYA	-0.27445	3.358895	0.05	Supported
EIU -> SCA	-0.28397	3.279975	0.05	Supported
RS -> PSYA	0.324516	5.566659	0.05	Supported
SI -> PSYA	0.321649	4.308046	0.05	Supported
SI -> SCA	0.279913	3.198075	0.05	Supported
TRD -> PSYA	0.170987	2.971159	0.05	Supported
CIB -> ADPPER	0.129234	2.188477	0.05	Supported
CIMETA -> ADPPER	0.118467	1.87963	0.05	Supported
EIO -> ADPPER	0.161607	2.318352	0.05	Supported
EIU -> ADPPER	0.242046	3.519393	0.05	Supported
RS -> ADPPER	0.170728	2.6253	0.05	Supported
TRD -> ADPPER	0.140494	2.825643	0.05	Supported
PSYA ->ADPPER	0.56	11.09	0.05	Supported
SCA -> ADPPER	-0.08	2.00	0.05	Supported

Note: This study used 0.05 level of significance for t-values

Foot note: CIC cultural intelligence cognitive , CIM cultural intelligence motivational , CI-META= cultural intelligence meta-cognitive, CIB= cultural intelligence behavioral, EIU= emotional intelligence use , EIO= emotional intelligence others, EIR =emotional intelligence regulation , SI =social intelligence , LANG= language, RS =recruitment and selection , TRD= training and development , SCA= social cultural adjustment, PSYA= psychological adjustment , APPER=adaptive performance

Findings also reveal that out of the eleven (11) direct relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable, six (6) relationships have demonstrated significant relationships. Thus, the remaining five independent variables have failed to demonstrate any significant effects on the dependent variable. Furthermore, regarding the relationship between two proposed mediators (i.e., psychological adjustment and socio-cultural adjustment) and the dependent variable, results have revealed mixed findings. Specifically, results demonstrated strong positive effect of psychological adjustment on adapted performance (β= 0.56; t= 11,09, p<.05) and negative significant relationship between socio-cultural adjustment and adapted performance (β= -0.08; t= 2.0, p<.05).

Finally, regarding the mediating effects, results demonstrated that only psychological adjustment was able to mediate the relationship between six (6) of the eleven (11) independent variables and the dependent variable. Specifically, the results demonstrated that psychological adjustment mediated four relationships including: (1) recruitment and selection and adaptive performance; (2) training and development and adaptive performance; (3) CQ behavior and adaptive performance; (4) CQ motivational and adaptive performance; (5) EQ regulation and adaptive performance; (6) EQ use and adaptive performance; and (7) SQ and adaptive performance. Unexpectedly, the results

demonstrated no sign of mediation by the proposed mediator (socio-cultural adjustment) on the relationship between the eleven (11) independent variables and adaptive performance as the dependent variable. The eleven (11) independent variables include recruitment and selection, training and development, EQ use, EQ regulation, EQ others, CQ cognitive, CQ motivation, CQ meta-cognitive, CQ behavior, language and SQ.

4.16 Summary of Hypothesis Testing

The following depicted the summary of the findings from hypotheses testing.

Table 4. 14
Summary of the findings from hypotheses testing

Hypothesis	Statement	Decision
H1a	There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence cognitive and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not supported
H1b	There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence motivational and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not supported
H1c	There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence meta-cognitive and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions	Not Supported
H1d	There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence behavioral and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not supported
H1e	There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence others and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported

Table 4.14 Continued

H1f	There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence use and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H1g	There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence regulation and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not Supported
H1h	There is a positive relationship between social intelligence and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions	Supported
H1i	There is a positive relationship between language and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not Supported
H2a	There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence cognitive and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not Supported
H2b	There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence motivational and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H2c	There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence meta-cognitive and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not supported
H2d	There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence behavioral and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H2e	There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence others and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not supported

Table 4.14 Continued

H2f	There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence use and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H2g	There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence regulation and psychological adjustment among leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H2h	There is a positive relationship between social intelligence and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H2i	There is a positive relationship between language and psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not Supported
H3a	There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence cognitive and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Nots upported
H3b	There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence motivational and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not supported
H3c	There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence meta-cognitive and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H3d	There is a positive relationship between cultural intelligence behavioral and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H3e	There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence others and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported

Table 4.14 Continued

H3f	There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence use and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H3g	There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence regulation and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not supported
H3h	There is a positive relationship between social intelligence and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not Supported
H3i	There is a positive relationship between language and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not Supported
H4a	There is a positive relationship between recruitment & selection and socio- cultural adjustment among leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not Supported
H4b	There is a positive relationship between training & development and socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not Supported
H5a	There is a positive relationship between recruitment & selection and physiological adjustment among leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H5b	There is a positive relationship between training & development and physiological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H6a	There is a positive relationship between recruitment & selection and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported

Table 4.14 Continued

H6b	There is a positive relationship between training and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H7a	There is a positive relationship between socio-cultural adjustment and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H7b	There is a positive relationship between psychological adjustment and adaptive performance among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Supported
H8a	The relationship between cross-cultural competence and adaptive performance is mediated by socio-cultural adjustment among leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not supported
H8b	The relationship between cross-cultural competence and adaptive performance is mediated by psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	supported
H9a	The relationship between international human resource management practices and adaptive performance is mediated by socio-cultural adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions.	Not supported
H9b	The relationship between international human resource management practices and adaptive performance is mediated by psychological adjustment among military leaders of UN peacekeeping missions	supported

4.17 Conclusion of the Chapter

The findings revealed that cross-cultural competence (CQ and EQ) is positively related to military leaders' effectiveness of psychological adjustment and adaptive performance.

This implies that the greater the cross-cultural competence level, the greater the psychological adjustment and adaptive performance level will be. Human resource management practices(selection and recruitment and training development) in this study were found to be positively related to psychological adjustment and adaptive performance. Better the selection and recruitment and training development, the better the psychological adjustment will be.

The findings of this study also reveal that the better the selection and recruitment and training development, the better the adaptive performance. Improving on socio-cultural and psychological adjustment level will help to improve the adaptive performance. This study also reveals that psychological adjustment has a significant mediating effect on the relationship between individual differences and adaptive performance. Specifically, the results of this study indicate that psychological adjustment mediates the relationships between: (1) CQ and adaptive performance; (2) EQ and adaptive performance; (3) SQ and adaptive performance; and (4) human resource management practices (selection and recruitment and training development) and adaptive performance.

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion on the analytical results explained in chapter 4. This chapter follows the following organization: explanation regarding research objectives and hypotheses, examination of the research implications on theory and practice and recommendations for future research. The limitations of the study are then presented followed by the conclusion.

5.2 Discussion of Findings

This section presents and discusses the research findings in terms of the seven research objectives. The objectives of the study should be recalled. This study aims to: (1) identify the level of cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices, adjustment (socio-cultural and psychological) and adaptive performance among military leaders deputed on peacekeeping assignments; (2) examine the effects of cross-cultural competence on adjustment; (3) examine the effects of cross-cultural competence on adaptive performance; (4) examine the effects of human resource management practices on adjustment; (5) examine the effects of human resource management practices on adaptive performance; (6) examine the effects of adjustment on adaptive performance; and (7) determine the mediating impact of adjustment (socio-cultural and psychological)

on the association between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance.

5.2.1 Objective 1: The Level of Cross-Cultural Competence, Human Resource Management Practices, Adjustment and Adaptive Performance among Military Leaders in Peacekeeping Missions

An examination of their cross-cultural competence shows that military leaders in the peacekeeping missions have a moderate level of CQ dimensions mean (3.28) (cognitive, meta-cognitive, motivational and behavioral); EQ dimensions mean (3.46) (emotion appraisal of others, use of emotion and emotion regulation), and SQ (3); they have moderate level of language mean (3.1); socio-cultural adjustment mean (2.9); psychological adjustment mean (3.8); and adaptive performance mean (3.38). This indicates that Jordanian leaders direct their attention and energy to learning and functioning in a culturally diverse environment. Cross-cultural competence is useful for leaders in peacekeeping missions to learn and understand the importance of culture when interacting with the local people.

Delving into deeper details concerning cross-cultural competence, cultural intelligence (cognitive, meta-cognitive, behavioral and motivational) among the military leaders was found to be moderate. The statistical mean analysis found that for CQ among Jordanian peacekeepers in the UN, the mean was 3.28 out of 5 (five-point scale), indicating that they are capable of functioning and managing effectively in an environment that is

culturally diverse as supported by Earley and Ang (2003). Specifically, the Jordanian military leaders in the peacekeeping missions displayed relatively moderate motivational and behavioral levels of CQ.

Behavioral CQ was also found to be at moderate level among military leaders in the peacekeeping missions, indicating that the leaders are knowledgeable of the norms, practices and conventions of their host culture, along with the legal and social systems and knowledge of the fundamental frameworks of the cultural values (Hofstede, 1983). This is also an expected finding as the respondents have been carefully chosen from different units and positions of leadership and 27.6% of them have had prior experience. However, the degree of cultural difference was attributed to their moderate as opposed to higher CQ. The cognitive and meta-cognitive aspects were found to be of acceptable level in light of religion, economics, law and interaction with the local host country. This indicates that Jordanian military leaders in the Headquarters and in the UN should concentrate on providing their leaders with the legal information of the host country before deploying them. Okpara and Kobongo's (2011) study shows strong evidence of the importance of cultural training before deployment.

The level of EQ of Jordanian military leaders in UN peacekeeping missions was found to be of moderate level. The statistical analysis found that the EQ mean among Jordanian peacekeepers in the UN was 3.46 out of 5 (five-point scale), implying that they have a good knowledge of the norms, use of emotion and regulation of others' emotions. This

moderate level of EQ shows that the leaders may face no difficulty in demonstrating their ability to perform better.

SQ was also found to be moderate. The statistical analysis found that the SQ mean among Jordanian peacekeepers in the UN was 3 out of 5 (five-point scale), indicating that the leaders are able to understand the locals and act appropriately towards them, discuss their thoughts with them and influence them. This aspect covers social behavior, cognitive, affective and behavior-related pre-conditions.

As for language, the Jordanian leaders in the UN peacekeeping missions were found to be moderate. The statistical analysis found that the language mean among Jordanian peacekeepers in the UN was 3.1 out of 5 (five-point scale). This finding may be attributed to the fact that military leaders are not given a crash course on the host country's language at the Jordan Armed Forces language center or other civilian centers prior to their deployment.

Generally, the military leaders' cross-cultural competence level was found to be moderate at best. The moderate level of cross-cultural competence can be attributed to the careful selection, proper cross-cultural training and efficient working and cooperation in developing relationship with the citizens of the host country and other UN peacekeeping forces in the mission.

Selection, training and compensation in combination are significant human resource management practices in international missions. It was found to be moderate. The statistical analysis found that the selection and recruitment mean among Jordanian peacekeepers leaders in the UN was 3.20 out of 5 (five-point scale). In this regard, the selection system for the most appropriate leader could lead to the achievement of the UN's goals. In addition, cross-cultural training is also crucial for leaders for smooth adjustment and adaptation to their mission.

Training was found to be moderate. The statistical analysis found that the training mean among Jordanian peacekeepers in the UN was 3.26 out of 5 (five-point scale). Through the peacekeeping training center, the Jordan Armed Forces provide culture training to the military leaders before departure to mission areas.

Based on this study's findings, Jordanian military leaders have moderate socio-cultural adjustment. The statistical analysis found that the socio-cultural adjustment mean among Jordanian peacekeepers in the UN was 2.97 out of 5 (five-point scale). This indicates they possess moderate level of capability of interaction and management in an effective way with the host country. The training provided to military leaders before deployment and the interaction and relations with the host country people affect the socio-cultural adjustment. In the same vein, Jordanian military leaders have moderate psychological adjustment. The statistical analysis found that the psychological adjustment mean among military leaders in the UN was 3.28 out of 5 (five-point scale). The culture training prior to deployment to mission areas, living conditions and capability to live daily life and

management in an effective way in a mission environment support moderate psychological adjustment.

Finally, based on this study's findings, Jordanian military leaders have moderate adaptive performance. The statistical analysis found that the adaptive performance mean among Jordanian peacekeepers in the UN was 3.38 out of 5 (five-point scale). This indicates they possess moderate level of capability to adapt and perform in UN missions. Therefore, peacekeeping military leaders who are effectively selected and better trained and have the knowledge and the skills to adjust, perform better in UN missions. It is also logical to state that cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices help military leaders to bridge the gap with the host country environment to facilitate adjustment and enhance adaptive performance.

5.2.2 Objective 2: The Relationship between Cross-Cultural Competence and Adjustment

The present study's second objective is to investigate the relationship between cross-cultural competence and adjustment among Jordanian military leaders deputed on UN peacekeeping missions. The finding revealed that cross-cultural competence is significantly and positively linked to psychological adjustment. Specifically, leaders possessing CQ (behavioral and motivational), EQ (regulate and use), and SQ, are better adjusted in the host country. The positive assessment of Jordanian military leaders is attributed to their positive cross-cultural competence.

Generally, literature shows that both behavioral and motivational aspects of CQ are found to be significantly and positively associated with psychological adjustment and this facilitates smooth adjustment to the new cultural environment. A greater psychological adjustment among military leaders is related to greater motivational and behavioral CQ. Finally, better psychological adjustment among military leaders is related to being more motivational. This in turn facilitates the military leaders' adjustment process to the new cultural environment. Similar to the findings in a majority of prior studies, motivational CQ dimension is strongly associated with adjustment. The finding suggests that military leaders who are more interested and motivated to explore diverse cultures, and who are more self-confident in their abilities to adjust to new cultural environments, adjust better to life and work in foreign missions (Ang *et al*., 2007; Sri Ramalu, 2010). This positive relationship is also supported by Wendi *et al*. (2013), indicating that the higher the CQ level, the more effective the psychological adjustment will be.

However, in the present study, the cognitive and meta-cognitive aspects of CQ were found to be not significantly related to psychological adjustment among Jordanian leaders. According to Wendi *et al*. (2013), the internal aspects of CQ (both cognitive and meta-cognitive) are related to knowledge content and they are not predictors of cross-cultural environment. Similarly, Shurrman (2013) stated that the military concentrates more on motivational and behavioral aspects as opposed to cognitive and meta-cognitive aspects, while training prior to their deployment. In this context, cognitive CQ also helps in getting comfortable in other cultural systems. In other words, leaders have to determine their strengths and weaknesses when it comes to CQ as this may play a role in

their efforts to enhance adjustment and minimize weaknesses. CQ (cognitive and meta-cognitive, behavioral and motivational) aspects were found to be insignificantly related to socio-cultural adjustment. This finding limits the adjustment process of the military leaders to the new environment. A finding similar to that of Elizabeth (2012) reported that none of the CQ factors is significantly correlated with socio-cultural adjustment. Similarly, according to Ward and Kennedy (2001), individuals are distinct from one another in their ability to adjust in terms of socio-cultural and psychological adjustment in a cross-cultural environment. Another take on the result is from Wendi *et al*. (2013) who stated that CQ's internal facets are related to knowledge content as opposed to the prediction of adjustment in a cross-cultural environment.

EQ aspects of regulation and use of emotion among military leaders were revealed to be positively related to psychological adjustment. In other words, military leaders' positive EQ correlates with psychological adjustment. This finding is consistent with that of Shakuntala and Santosh (2011) who revealed a positive relationship between EQ and adjustment.

With regards to the EQ aspects of EQ others and EQ use of emotions, the study found it to be significantly and positively related to socio-cultural adjustment and EQ use was found to be the most important variable in determining social cultural adjustment. This indicates that military leaders' positive EQ leads to a positive socio-cultural adjustment. EQ regulation was found to have insignificant positive relationship with socio-cultural adjustment.

With regards to SQ, it was found to be significantly and positively related to both psychological and socio-cultural adjustment, indicating that the higher the SQ, the better will be the adjustment. A better adjustment among military leaders is related to being more socially intelligent. The findings support McFate and Jackson's (2005) statement when they claimed that peacekeeping forces must be capable of operating in diverse environments as the need will arise when they have to understand the local culture and social structure of the host country.

Finally, with regards to language, it was found to have an insignificant relationship with both social-cultural and psychological adjustment among Jordanian military leaders deployed in UN peacekeeping missions. Language has been found to be a general weakness among military leaders deployed in UN missions (Shurrman, 2013). The insignificant relationship of language indicates poor adjustment of military leaders to their new environment. The finding highlighted that 27 % of respondents were not proficient in the host country's language and 25% of respondents reported limited proficiency. The following section deals with the discussion of the relationship between Cross-Cultural Competence and Adaptive Performance.

5.2.3 Objective 3: Relationship between Cross-Cultural Competence and Adaptive Performance

The third objective of the study is to examine the relationship between cross-cultural competence and adaptive performance. In pursuit of this objective, a hypothesis was

tested and the result indicated that this relationship is supported. CQ (behavioral and meta-cognitive) was significantly and positively related to adaptive performance. It was found that military leaders in peacekeeping missions with greater behavioral and meta-cognitive CQ have better adaptive performance. This implies that the greater the behavioral and meta-cognitive CQ, the better the adaptive performance will be. This finding is congruent to the finding of earlier studies. CQ has emerged as an important factor for effective performance (Isfahani *et al*., 2013). Ng *et al.* (2012) revealed that CQ predicts individual performance. The finding of Ang *et al*. (2007) is consistent with this finding and indicates that behavioral and meta-cognitive CQ has a significant and positive relationship with job performance. Sri Ramalu (2010) found that CQ is significantly related to job performance.

On the other hand, cognitive and motivational aspects of CQ are not related to adaptive performance. This is subject may affect the military leaders, especially the motivational issue, thus affect leaders adaptive performance. CQ is knowledge, skill and ability and adaptive performance is a matter of knowledge and skill; hence, the higher the CQ level, the better the adaptive performance will be.

In a similar direction, EQ (others and use) was found to have a positive relationship with adaptive performance. It was found that military leaders in UN missions with greater dimensions (others and use) of EQ are better in their adaptive performance, and this is consistent with previous studies found a positive relationship between EQ and job performance. (Affandi & Raza, 2013; Hassan & Dialo, 2013; Sy *et al*., 2006). Afolabi

(2010) found the positive relationship between EQ and job performance in the context of Nigerian police officers. Srivastava (2003) found that officers with higher EQ are able to motivate their followers to perform effectively and have been successful in their military careers. In a related study, Jordan and Troth (2004) claimed that the higher the EQ, the higher will be the adaptive performance. Cote and Miners (2006) found that EQ is a strong predictor of job performance. On other hand, the 'regulate' dimension of EQ was not related to adaptive performance. This relation may affect the military leaders' adaptive performance.In addition, the R square value of 62% of variance in adaptive performance explained by the 11 variables and emotional use has strong significant effect on adaptive performance.

SQ was found to be insignificantly related to adaptive performance, indicating that the military leaders may face problems during peacekeeping missions. Nonetheless, this aspect needs more research.

Language was found to have an insignificant relationship with adaptive performance among Jordanian military leaders deployed in UN peacekeeping missions. Language was found to be a point of weakness among military leaders deployed in UN missions (Shurrman, 2013). The insignificant relationship of language indicates poor performance of the Jordanian military leaders. This calls for the need for developing language education prior to their deployment in UN missions. It is worthwhile to note here that adaptive performance of Jordan Armed Forces peacekeeping leaders cannot be ignored.

5.2.4 Objective 4: The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices and Adjustment

The fourth objective is to investigate the relationship between human resource management practices (recruitment and selection and training and development) and adjustment among Jordanian peacekeeping military leaders deputed on UN missions. First, this study found recruitment and selection to be significantly and positively related to psychological adjustment. The right selection of military leaders for a UN mission according to skills, adequacy and capability help them to adjust in the new environment. This is consistent with the previous studies of Osland (2002) who stated that candidate selection hinges on the adjustment capability of the individual and should not just be considered as filling a vacant position. Stone (1991) studied international selection criteria, such as the ability to adapt, human relations skill, desire to serve overseas and understanding host country culture and language.

Second, cross-cultural training was found to be positively and significantly related to psychological adjustment. Pre-deployment cultural training is crucial for the military leaders to adjust in a mission environment. The greater the culture training, the greater the psychological adjustment will be. This is consistent with Deardorff (2009) and Monghan (2010) who found that pre-deployment cultural training is important and essential.

Third, recruitment and selection was found not to be insignificantly related to socio-cultural adjustment. Sometimes, leaders are assigned to the mission based on their special skills and their inclination to be deployed. According to Claus *et al*. (2011), selection is often made on a specific basis (willingness to be expatriated) while other crucial issues like adjustment to the host culture, are largely ignored. In this regard, Plessis (2010) stated that individual may be unwilling to adapt to the host country.

Fourth, the present study found training to be insignificantly related to socio-cultural adjustment. Military leaders should be trained how to interact with host country people in order to adjust. This is consistent with Gomez-Mejia *et al*. (2004) who found that lack of socio-cultural training is attributed to the lack of pre-deployment cross-cultural training. In addition, Shim and Aprock (2002) claimed that majority of American expatriates (66.7%) disagreed with the usefulness of pre-deployment cross-cultural training in adjusting to their host country. Also, Tung (1982) claimed that no sole cross-cultural training program can suit every situation.

In general, Armstrong (2005) noted that human resource management practices significantly minimize stress and facilitate both individual and organizational effectiveness among leaders via selection and training. Human resource management practices have also been found to have positive impact on adjustment and effective staffing procedures (selectivity) for international missions, as confirmed by Delany and Huselid (1996).

In sum, the present study's findings show a positive relationship between psychological adjustment and the right selection of military leaders as well as adjustment and effective cross-cultural training programs. The findings show that human resource management practices (recruitment and selection and training and development) significantly and positively relate to psychological adjustment and selection recruitment was found to be the most important variable in determining psychological adjustment. These findings are supported by prior studies (i.e., Armstrong, 2005; Claus *et al*., 2011; Plessis, 2010; Shin, Morgeson and Campion, 2007). In particular, selection and recruitment were found to be positively related to psychological adjustment indicating that the right selection of military leaders helps their smooth transitional adjustment to the new environment. This implies that the better the human resource management practices (selection and recruitment and training and development), the better will be the psychological adjustment of military leaders. On the other hand, recruitment and selection and training and development were found to be insignificantly related to socio-cultural adjustment, signifying that the fourth objective of the present study is partially confirmed.

Therefore, it can be stated that peacekeeping military leaders who are effectively selected and trained will possess positive psychological adjustment in their UN missions. It is also logical to state that recruitment, selection and cultural training should be employed on leaders to familiarize themselves with the effective behaviors in a different culture, improve their interaction with the host culture citizens and overcome their weaknesses.

5.2.5 Objective 5: The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices and Adaptive Performance

The fifth objective of the study is to examine the relationship between the human resource management practices and adaptive performance. In pursuant of this objective, four hypotheses were tested. Results found that selection, recruitment and training and development dimensions of human resource management practices are related significantly and positively to adaptive performance. The right selection of the military leaders for a UN mission with the skills and capability to adjust, help them to perform better to achieve the goals of the mission. Prior studies also supported recruitment relationship with performance (Claus *et al*., 2011) as well as the significant and positive selection-performance relationship (Katou & Budhwar, 2008; Singh, 2004). Khan (2010) and Mansour (2010) found that recruitment and selection have a positive and significant relationship with performance.

On the other hand, the training and development dimension of human resource management practices is related significantly and positively to adaptive performance. Cross-cultural training before being deployed to the mission area is crucial for the military leaders to adjust and display better performance in their missions. Prior studies like Okpara and Kabongo (2011) demonstrated that cross-cultural training programs are significant for successful operations. Similarly, Hassan and Dialo (2013) noted a positive link between cross-cultural training and job performance. Positive relationship exists

between training and performance (e.g., Atteya 2012; Fey and Byorkman, 2000; Katou & Budhwar, 2008; Khan 2010; Shin *et al*., 2007; Singh, 2004).

Positive relationships between human resource management practices and performance have been found (Abdullah *et al*., 2009 ; Armstrong *et al*., 2008; Birdi *et al*., 2008 ; Gong *et al*., 2009 ; Wright *et al*., 2005).

5.2.6 Objective 6: The Relationship between Adjustment and Adaptive Performance

The sixth objective of the present study is to examine the adjustment on adaptive performance of Jordanian peacekeeping military leaders deployed in UN missions. Based on the findings, psychological and socio-cultural adjustment are both significantly related to adaptive performance. This result helped to fulfill the sixth objective of the study. Military leaders with greater adjustment have a greater adaptive performance. Jordanian peacekeeping military leaders possessing higher adjustment display better adaptive performance, are able to better interact and adjust to their life and work. Adaptive performance of leaders is linked to their ability to adjust to a foreign environment, and better adjustment leads to greater adaptive performance.

According to Zhou and Qin (2009), adjustment is significantly related to performance. Sri Ramalu (2010) found a positive relationship between expatriates' adjustment and their performance in the context of Malaysia. This finding is consistent with that of Chen *et al*.'s (2011) who stated that better overseas adjustment results in improved performance.

Likewise, Hassan and Dialo (2013) revealed that cross-cultural adjustment significantly and positively affected the job performance of expatriates. This is consistent with Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*. (2005) and Sri Ramalu (2010) who both contended that adjustment is a crucial determinant of an overseas assignment's success.

In sum, the study's findings indicate that psychological and socio-cultural adjustment are predictors of adaptive performance. Adjustment has been revealed to be related to the adaptive performance of the Jordanian military leaders as adjustment to the host country culture is a significant predictor of adaptive performance. Peacekeeping military leaders require effective cross-cultural training prior to their deployment abroad for smooth and quick adjustment. The Army Headquarters should minimize the adjustment time by selecting the right leaders, offering better training programs and offering good reward packages – this will in turn improve their adaptive performance.

5.2.6 Objective 7: Mediating Effects of Adjustment

This study proposes a mediating effect of psychological and socio-cultural adjustment on the relationship between cross-cultural competence (cognitive, motivation, meta-cognitive and behavioral dimensions of CQ); others emotional appraisal, use of emotion and regulation of emotion dimensions of EQ; SQ and language; selection and recruitment and training and development dimensions of human resource management practices and adaptive performance among Jordanian military leaders deputed to UN peacekeeping missions.

The results of this study evidences that psychological adjustment mediates the relationship between cross-cultural competence (CQ comprising motivational and behavioral aspects; EQ comprising use of emotion and regulation of emotion; and SQ) and adaptive performance. The remaining factors of cross-cultural competence, namely cognitive and meta-cognitive dimensions of CQ, others emotion dimension of EQ and language proficiency are not mediated. As such, this result has helped to fulfill the seventh research objective of this study.

Individual differences (i.e., cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices) were found to be directly influencing military leaders' adaptive performance. The presence of adjustment as the mediating variable suggests that cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices pre-dispose military leaders to make appropriate adjustment to the host country culture, which in turn helps them to adapt and perform better in their job. The mediation role of adjustment has been discussed by McEvoy and Parker (1995) and Sri Ramalu (2010) adjustment is a primary outcome in an individual's assignment that would influence the development of individuals' adjustment, such as performance.

The findings of the present study seem to be consistent with the performance theory proposed by Campbell *et al.* (1993). The theory postulates that the existence of individual differences (knowledge, skill and ability, among others) and that the ability of an individual to successfully adjust to both uncertainty and ambiguity in a foreign environment, often lead to better adaptive performance. These characteristics assist

individuals in their adaptability and in the successful achievement of their goals (UN goals).

The findings of this study are consistent with findings by researchers, such as Takeuchi *et al*. (2002) and Sri Ramalu (2010) who provided evidence for the mediating role of adjustment on the relationship between individual differences and job performance. The present study, to the best knowledge of the researcher's knowledge, is the first to examine the mediating effects of adjustment (socio-cultural and psychological adjustment) on the relationship between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance using military leaders as a sample.

Socio-cultural adjustment failed to mediate the relationship between cross-cultural competence (cognitive, meta-cognitive, motivational and behavioral dimensions of CQ, others including emotional appraisal, use of emotion and regulation of emotion dimensions of EQ, SQ and language), selection, recruitment, training and development dimensions of human resource management practices, and adaptive performance. Thus, this result partially fulfills the seventh objective of the present study.

In addition, the past theoretical cross-cultural adjustment research (e.g. Torbiorn, 1982) indicates that one important uncertainty reduction factor for facilitating the host country adjustment is the previous international experience. The statistics result of this study reveals that (201) respondents, constituting 72%, have no prior overseas experience before serving in peace keeping missions. Black & Stephens (1989) argue that previous

international experience may help individuals reduce uncertainty which facilitates the current adjustment.

The socio-cultural adjustment is influenced by different sets of factors, such as the cultural knowledge, length of residence in the new culture and language ability (Ward, 1996). Result in respondent's rate their local language fluency based on the country in which they served, and it shows that, (77), 27% respondents who rated were not proficient, and (70) 25% respondents rated limited proficiency. According to the U-Curve adjustment theory (Lysgaard, 1955), time spent in the host country is between 6-8 months before adjusting, especially the socio-cultural adjustment according to the result of military leaders for the duration of service in the region served, based on number of months.

However, (197) 71% respondent military leaders are under the category of 1-6 months, whereas the U-Curve theory stipulates that the minimum time to adjust is between 6-8 month. Therefore, by the time the military leaders start to adjust, they leave the mission and this is expected to limit individuals in achieving greater degrees of adjustment (Shurrman, 2013). It seems that prior studies support this finding, such as Geeraert and Demoulin's (2013) cultural distance as an important predictor of adjustment in international assignments, and Takeuchi (2010) who revealed that culture novelty was negatively related to adjustment. Additionally, Plessis (2010) stated that employees may be unwilling to adjust to the host country, and Andereason (2003) contended that this refusal may be attributed to cultural distance. Moreover, successful socio-cultural

outcomes are determined by a greater amount of contact with the local community (Ward & Kennedy 1999).

5.3 Contributions of the Study

Findings of the study have provided insights for the UN, Jordan Armed Forces, academics and practitioners, besides contributing to the body of knowledge from the methodological, theoretical and practical aspects.

5.3.1 Theoretical Contributions

The main theoretical contribution of the study is the development of military leaders' effectiveness model as depicted in Figure 5.1. Both the cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices factors are found to be significant predictors of military leaders' psychological adjustment and adaptive performance. This implies that both cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices are vital intercultural competencies to facilitate military leaders' psychological adjustment and adaptive performance in UN peacekeeping missions. Psychological adjustment also found to mediate the relationship between individual differences (i.e., cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices) and adaptive performance.
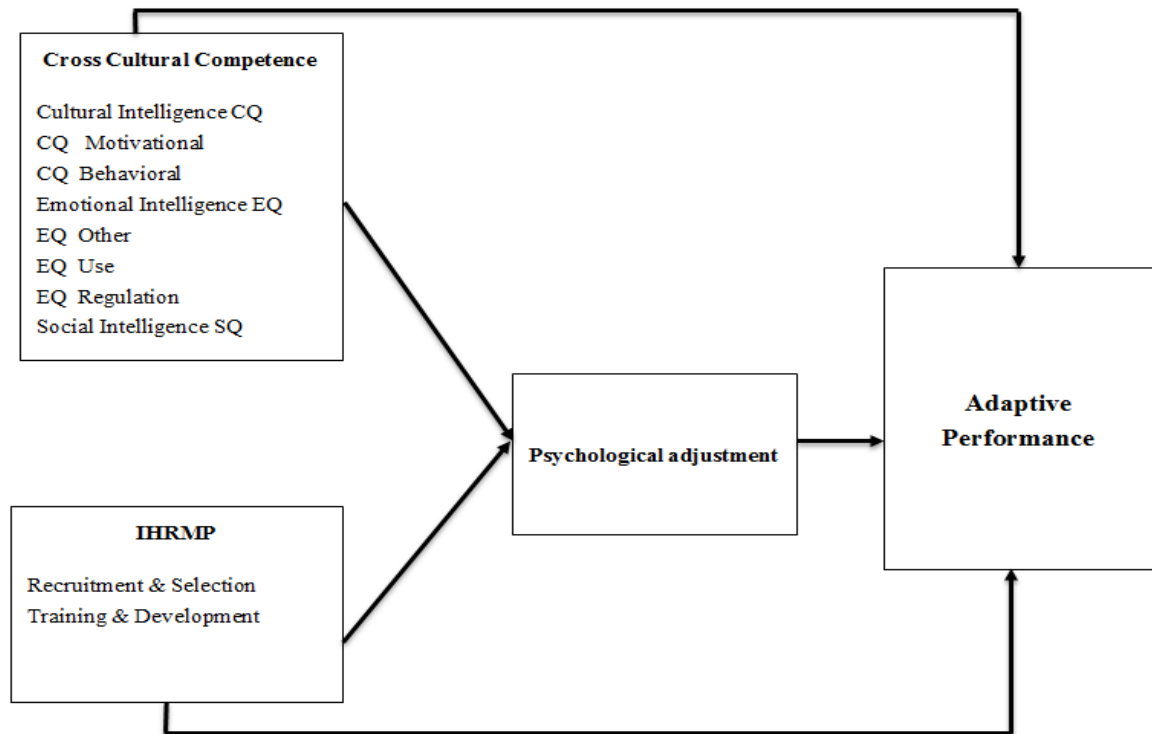
Figure 5.1
Theoretical continuation Framework

The next theoretical contribution of the study is the testing of the concept of adaptive performance in a military setting, specifically, cross-cultural competence (CQ, EQ and SQ), human resource management practices (recruitment and selection and training and development) and adaptive performance. The findings revealed that both cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices are crucial intercultural competencies that facilitate both psychological adjustment and adaptive performance of military leaders in a foreign environment.

This study also examined a new set of variables in the military setting. This study delves into the manner in which the individual differences of the military leaders contribute to their effectiveness with regards to their adjustment and adaptive performance. Both cross-

cultural competence and human resource management practices factors were found to be significant antecedents of adjustment and adaptive performance. Specifically, the cross-cultural competence dimensions of CQ, EQ and SQ were found to be significantly related to both psychological adjustment and adaptive performance. This is firstly a new finding that contributes to literature as the present study is among the pioneering studies to provide empirical evidence on the predictive ability of cross-cultural competence of adaptive performance.

Second, human resource management practices factors of selection and training and development were found to be significantly associated with psychological adjustment and adaptive performance – this finding can also be considered as a contribution to literature as most of the prior studies showed that training on its own, without selection, is significantly correlated with the leaders' adaptive performance (Abdullah *et al*., 2009; Kwintessential, 2009).

This study also contributes to literature with its finding of a positive significant relationship between adjustment and adaptive performance. The study's results also revealed that military leaders who are well adjusted in their work adapted better to their assignment. Military leaders who interact with the citizens of the host country and their UN peacekeeping peers display better adaptive performance in their missions.

Further, mediating impact of psychological adjustment on the relationship between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive

performance of military leaders can also be counted as a contribution of the study as used in a military setting. The study provides an insight into the underlying mechanism that explains the impact of individual differences on the adaptive performance of military leaders. Prior studies confirmed that adjustment mediates the relationship between predictors and the effectiveness of expatriates' assignment (e.g., Chen *et al*., 2011; Sri Ramalu, 2010; Takeuchi *et al*., 2002). However, the current mediational study has theoretically provided a new knowledge about mediation by demonstrating that cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices have positive effects on military leaders' adaptive performance through psychological adjustment. Hence, this study has pushed the boundary of knowledge forward by providing empirical evidence about the power of psychological adjustment to mediate significantly between cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices. Therefore, this study has done more than validate the positive effect of cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices on military leaders' adaptive performance as demonstrated in the previous findings (e.g., Sri Ramalu, 2010; Takeuchi *et al*., 2002).

Importantly, the mediating role of psychological adjustment on the relationship between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance has provided a new perspective regarding the way that cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices can positively affect adaptive performance. In sum, the present study has uniquely provided a mediating mechanism for the better understanding of the relationship dynamics existing between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance in the

military sector. Related to the proven mediational power of psychological adjustment, this study has reinforced the arguments made by Sri Ramalu (2010) regarding the potential important role of cross-cultural adjustment as a mediator. To the researcher's best knowledge, this study is a pioneering study that examined the mediating effect of psychological adjustment on the relationship between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance of Jordanian military leaders deployed in UN missions.

The findings support the performance theory proposed by Campbell *et al*. (1993) in a military setting. The theory concentrates on knowledge, skills, abilities and other predictions of job performance. Individual job performance (adaptive performance) is a function attributed to KSAO (Campbell, 1999; Chen &Thomas, 2005; Jundt, 2010; Lang & Bliese, 2009; and Sri Ramalu, 2010). Based on the` findings, a smooth transition into a new assignment overseas is crucial to the adaptive performance of military leaders. The study also contributes by supporting the human capital theory of human resource management proposed by Becker (1964), which postulates that knowledge, skills, and abilities impact on the behaviors and performance of military leaders.

While prior studies dedicated to examining individual differences concentrated mainly on just one or two elements of effectiveness in military assignments (Leitch, 2005; Mueller-Hanson *et al*., 2005; Pulakos *et al*., 2002; and William and Waldo, 2010), the present study encapsulates a variety of criteria namely multiple cross-cultural competence dimensions and adaptive performance. This study is also the first of its kind to determine

the relationship between cross-cultural competence and psychological adjustment and adaptive performance.

The present study also contributes to literature by using two mediators at the same time- socio-cultural and psychological adjustment. Previous studies focused on one mediator (e.g., Takeuchi *et al*., 2002; Sri Ramalu, 2010). This study also focuses on the international role of the UN members (non-profit organization). Therefore, the findings may be used to predict adjustment and adaptive performance in the context of Asian or eastern countries, as they are the top contributors of personnel to the UN missions (United Nation, 2013).

The researcher works hard to find findings related to the Eastern perceptive concerning cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices, adjustment and adaptive performance. Therefore, due to the limited studies related to the United Nations peacekeeping forces in the Middle East in general and Jordan in specific, the researcher in the current study depends on Western studies. Generally, in the UN missions, all the personal from different countries work under the UN regulation and work together to achieve the UN goals. As a consequence, this study might be the first to shed light on the cross cultural competence, human resource management practices, adjustment and adaptive performance in order to manage the UN peacekeeping missions, which is particularly important, because there is limited knowledge in literature pertaining to the UN peacekeeping forces in the context of Eastern countries, such as Jordan.

5.3.2 Practical Contributions

As for the present study's practical contributions, the findings will assist practitioners at the UN and the Jordan Army Headquarters and other military leaders deployed to peacekeeping assignments as well as international and multinational entities. The UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations can use the findings with regards to the selection and recruitment and training and development of military leaders. The study also indicates that CQ, EQ and SQ dimensions of cross-cultural competence are crucial in bringing about the effectiveness of military leaders' adaptive performance in international UN assignments.

Because of the fact that CQ is more related to individual differences, the findings regarding it will help leaders improve morale and behavior to adjust more smoothly into a foreign host cultural environment. The adoption of effective selection and training in military headquarters should focus attention on mission leaders and minimize their maladjustment and training. The study's findings can assist the UN and other nations in enhancing their system of selection and their training programs to be more conducive to realizing successful UN peacekeeping missions, because selecting the right leaders and modern training programs can facilitate the adjustment and enhance adaptive performance in mission areas.

The above finding concerning the mediating role of psychological adjustment on the relationship between cross-cultural competences, human resource management practices

and adaptive performance, indicate that military headquarters should employ the required actions to enhance the adjustment of military leaders. This can be done by selecting military leaders according to their previous experience and those who are willing to adjust to mission environment and attend cultural training (language, law and political system of the host country) prior to their deployment to mission area. This can eventually smoothen their adaptive performance. The findings are clear on the notion that individual differences prepare the individual's adjustment to the foreign country's cultural environment and this will assist the leaders' adaptive performance in their assignments.

5.3.3 Managerial Implications

On the managerial side, the findings will help policy maker (JAF), considering United Nation international   missions, Jordan Armed Forces can benefit by considering the results of this study in the area of selection and training of military leaders for international missions. The findings of this study suggest that CQ and EQ dimension of CCC is more important in facilitating military leader's effectiveness on the international UN missions. Helping military leaders successful adapt and perform in the international missions, with the effective training and developmental programs, Jordan Armed Forces would be able to pay more attention to their military leaders' task and experience, without worrying about their maladjustment, when selecting the right leader to the right position.

In addition, the evidence on the mediating role of psychological adjustment on the relationship between individual differences (i.e., CCC), organizational (i.e., HRMP) and

adaptive performance suggest that JAF need to take necessary action to improve on the military leaders adjustment so that a higher level of adaptive performance can be achieved. Additionally, this study is also helpful to Jordanian decision- makers, particularly in the peace keeping department Headquarters and peace keeping training center, who are directly involved in peacekeeping activity to focus in culture training, find ways to reduce the adjustment time and choose the military leaders with previous international experience. The findings are expected to prove useful for developing strategies to improve the level of the military leaders work environment through culture training and incentives, which impacts their performance in UN missions.

Fifth the findings will also be invaluable for the creation of national policies, particularly those that motivate, support and enhance the development of professional peacekeeping forces and military leaders through education and exercises which eventually, will impact Jordanian Armed Forces in a positive way and reflect the positive image in international missions.

Finally, the present findings, skills (CCC), knowledge regarding(HRMP), psychological adjustment and adaptive performance military leaders responsibility of Jordan Armed Force Headquarter and peace keeping department policies to reinforce and enhance professional military leaders, such as international training with other experience countries and incentives which will positively impact the profession in international missions.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

The researcher has employed all the necessary measures to minimize the impact of limitations in the study, yet there are still a few limitations that have to be discussed. First, the present study is limited when it comes to its study sample. Although the researcher took all the steps to ensure that the sample comprised respondents hailing from various ranks and regions, it was constituted entirely of male respondents (only few female military leaders serve in Jordan Armed Forces as UN peacekeepers). It is therefore erroneous to generalize this study's findings to female officers working in the UN as peacekeeping officers.

Second, this study is limited to the examination of two human resource management practices, namely recruitment and selection, training and development. Other practices, like career planning system, performance appraisal, job analysis, orientation, job rotation and job description are not the scope of this study. This is because recruitment and selection, training and development are crucial to this study's objectives.

Despite the presence of the above limitations, the present study still provides an insight into the relationship between, cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices, the mediating role of adjustment and adaptive performance. The future study directions are discussed in the next section.

5.5 Future Research Directions

This study recommends future studies to include other criteria for overseas missions' effectiveness. An area that could be focused on is the examination of the effects of cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices on the work attitudes and outcomes of the all unit (leaders, non-commissioned officers (NCO) and soldiers). This is because this study focuses on military leaders as individuals. Therefore, military leaders and soldiers are likely to experience psychological adjustment that can lead to adaptive performance as a unit.

In addition, future studies may also examine the moderating impact of the cultural distance factor upon adjustment to a new environment. This is because cultural distance plays a vital role in adjustment in host country environment and leads to facilitating or constraining adjustment. Cultural distance has proved to be an important predictor of adjustment in international assignments.

Future research may also examine the effects of both cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices on female leaders' work attitudes and outcomes and how the host country culture impacts their adjustment and adaptive performance (in overseas UN missions). This is because this study focuses on male military leaders only, which cannot be generalized to other military settings with female military leaders.

Additionally, this study could be replicated in other countries of the UN peacekeeping operations or could be replicated with a larger sample group that covers all ranks in the whole of Jordan Armed Forces. This is because this study focuses on military leaders only and to generalize the study, it should include the leaders and soldiers. Therefore, military leaders and soldiers are likely to experience psychological adjustment that can lead to adaptive performance.

Future studies may also consider other criteria as potential mediators, like job satisfaction mediates the relationship between cross-cultural competence, human resource practices and adaptive performance. This is because according to the findings, military leaders need more time to adjust in mission areas. Therefore, military leaders are likely to experience job satisfaction that can lead to adaptive performance.

Further, the military leaders' adaptive performance may be examined with variables, such as job satisfaction and job stress. This is because job satisfaction and job stress effect psychological adjustment. Therefore, military leaders are likely to experience job satisfaction that can lead to adaptive performance.

Finally, future research can also examine the impact of cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices on police officers and soldiers' work attitudes and outcomes and how the host culture impacts on their adjustment and adaptability in UN missions. This is because a significant number of Jordanian police personnel participate in UN missions, numbering more than 1.000 police officers and soldiers deployed every

six months (United Nation, 2013). This is because police officers are likely to experience psychological adjustment that can lead to adaptive performance in UN missions.

5.6 Conclusion

Theoretically, important gaps exist in the literature concerning the relationship between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance.

This study has contributed to the body of knowledge by providing empirical evidence about the mediating power of psychological adjustment on the relationship between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance. The study has also provided empirical evidence on the significant relationship between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and psychological adjustment. Apart from the major contributions, at a secondary level, this study has enriched the literature by further validating previous findings (Chen *et al*., 2011; Sri Ramalu, 2010), regarding the significant positive relationship between cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices and adaptive performance.

Importantly, using a new context (Jordan) and new setting (military sector), this study has demonstrated that cross-cultural competence and human resource management practices significantly and positively influence adaptive performance. Furthermore, findings of this research indicate an association between cross-cultural competence, human resource

management practices and adaptive performance, cross cultural competence, human resource management practices and psychological adjustment, as well as between psychological adjustment and adaptive performance. Results of this study indicate that practicing of cross-cultural competence, human resource management practices, psychological adjustment and adaptive performance is important for Jordan Armed Forces and the UN members to support their peacekeeping forces, especially military leaders deployed in UN missions.

References

Abbe, A. & Halpin, S. (2009). The cultural imperative for professional military education and leader development. *United States Army War College 39*(4), 20-31.

Abbe, A. (2008). Building cultural capability for full-spectrum operations. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences. Arlington, United States.

Abbe, A., Gulick, L. M. V., & Herman, J. L. (2007). Cross-cultural competence in Army leaders: A conceptual and empirical foundation. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences. Arlington, United States.

Abdullah, Z., Ahsan, N., & Alam, S. S. (2009). The Effect of Human Resource Management Practices on Business Performance among Private Companies in Malaysia. *International Journal of Business and Management, 4*(6), 65-72.

Abisamra, N., S. (2000). The relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement in Eleventh Graders. Research in Education. Alabama, United States.

Abzari & Khani. (2010)."Cultural intelligence, dealing with differences". *Era management*. 52-57.

Ackerman, P. L. (1987). Individual differences in skill learning: An integration of psychometric and information processing perspectives. Psychological Bulletin, 102, 3-27.

Affandi, H. & Raza, N. (2013). Leaders' Emotional Intelligence and its Outcomes. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*. Institute of Interdisciplinary Business Research *7*(5), 279-297.

Afolabi, O. A. (2010). Influence of Emotional Intelligence and Gender on Job Performance and Job Satisfaction among Nigerian Policemen Department of Psychology. *Current Research Journal of Social Sciences, 2*(3), 147-154.

Afthanorhan W. M. & Asyraf, B. W. (2013). A Comparison Of Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) and Covariance Based Structural Equation Modeling (CB-SEM) for Confirmatory Factor Analysis. *International Journal of Engineering Science and Innovative Technology (IJESIT), 2*(5), 2319-5967.

Ahmad, O., & Schroeder, R.G. (2003). The impact of human resource management practices on operational performance: Recognizing country and industry differences. *Journal of Operations Management, 21*(1), 19-43.

Akerjordet, K. & Severinsson, E. (2008). Emotionally intelligent nurse leadership: a literature review study. *Journal of Nursing Management, 16,* 565–577.

Akter, S., D"Ambra, J., & Ray, P. (2011). An evaluation of PLS based complex models: The roles of power analysis, predictive relevance and GoF index. Proceedings of the Seventeenth Americas Conference on Information Systems, Detroit, Michigan August 4th-7th.

Ali, R., & Ahmed, M. S. (2009). The impact of reward and recognition programs on employee's motivation and satisfaction: an empirical study. *International Review of Business Research Papers, 5* (4), 270-279.

Amiri, A. N., Moghimi, S. M. & Kazemi, M. (2010). Studying the Relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Employees' Performance. *European Journal of Scientific Research, 42*(3): 432-441.

Andereason, A. W. (2003). Direct and indirect forms of in-country support for expatriates and their families as a means of reducing premature returns and improving job performance. *International Journal of Management, 20*(4), 548-555.

Anderson*, T. L. (2013). Navigating HIPAA's Hidden Minefields: A Leader's Guide to Using HIPAA Correctly to Decrease Suicide and Homicide in the Military Review of Developments in Instructions. 15-33.

Ang S., Van Dyne L., Koh C., Ng K. Y., Templer K. J., Tay C & Chandrasekar N. A. (2007). Cultural intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation, and task performance. *Management and Organization Review. 3*(3), 335-371.

Armstrong M. A. & Murlis, H. (2007). *Reward Management* (5th edition).Kogan London.

Armstrong M. A. (2005). Handbook of Human Resource Management, Practice, New Delhi: Kogan Page, India.

Armstrong, C., Flood, P., C., Guthrie, J. P., Liu, W., MacCurtain, S., & Mkamwa, T. (2008). Should high performance work systems include diversity management practices? Academy of Management Proceedings, Academy of Management Conference. Anaheim, United States.

Armstrong, M. A. (2006), A Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice, 10th edition, London.

Atteya, N. M. (2012). Testing the Impact of the Human Resource Management Practices on Job Performance: An Empirical Study in the Egyptian Joint Venture Petroleum Companies. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(9), 105-119.

Babbie, E. R. (2010). *The practice of social research.* Belmont, California: Wadsworth.

Bagshaw, M. (2000). Emotional Intelligence-training people to be affective so they can be effective. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 32*(2) 61-65.

Ballone, E. (2000). Factors Influencing Psychological Stress Levels of Italian Peacekeepers in Bosnia. *Military Medicine, 165*(12), 911-915.

Bar-On, R. (1997). Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Technical Manual. Multi-Health Systems, Toronto, Canada.

Bar-On, R. (2000). 'Emotional and Social Intelligence: Insights from the Emotional Quotient', in Bar-On, R. and Parker, J.D. (eds.). The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Development, Assessment and Application at Home, School, and in the Workplace, (pp. 363-388), San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Baron, R. M. & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51(*6), 1173-1182.

Barrera, I. & Corso, R. M. (2002). Cultural Competency as Skilled Dialogue. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education, 22* (2). 103-113.

Bartlett, C. A. & Ghoshal, S. (1987). Managing Across Borders: New Strategic Requirements. *Sloan Management Review, 28*(4), 7-17.

Bartone, P. T., Adler, A. B., & Viatkus, M. A. (1998). Dimensions of psychological stress in peacekeeping operations. *Military Medicine, 163*(9), 587-593.

Bartone, P. T., Roland, R. R., Picano, J. J. & Williams, T. J. (2008). Psychological hardiness predicts success in US Army Special Forces candidates. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 16*(1), 78-81.

Bartone, P., T. Dennis, R. K., & Matthews, M. D. (2012). Psychological hardiness predicts adaptability in military leaders. A prospective study. *International Journal of Selection & Assessment, 21*(2), 200-210.

Bass BM. (1994). Transformational leadership and team and organization decision making. In Bass BM, AvoHo BJ (Eds.), Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Batt, R. (2002). Managing customer services: Human resource practices, quit rates, and sales growth. *Academy of Management Journal, 45*(3), 587- 597.

Becker, G. S. (1964). Human Capital: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis, with Special Reference to Education. Chicago, University of Chicago Press.

Becker, B. & Gerhart, B. (1996). The Impact of Human Resource Management on Organizational Performance: Progress and Prospects, *Academy of Management Journal,* 4 (39), 779-801.

Beheshtifar M., & Roasaei F. (2012). Role of Social Intelligence in Organizational Leadership. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 28*(2), 197-203.

Bhalla, S., & Nauriyal, D. K. (2004). "EI: The Emerging Paradigm". *Personnel Dynamics, 49*, 97-106.

Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M., & Luk, D. M. (2005). Input-based and time-based modes of international adjustment: Meta-analytic evidence and theoretical extensions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48, 257−281.

Bhugra, D., & Arya, P. (2005). Ethnic density, cultural congruity and mental illness in migrants. International Review of Psychiatry, 17, 133-137.

Birdi, K., Clegg, C., Patterson, M., Robinson, A., Stride, C., Wall, T., & Wood, S. (2008). The impact of human resource and operational management practices on company productivity: a longitudinal study. *Personnel Psychology, 61*(3), 467-501.

Black, J. S. & Mendenhall, M. (1990). Cross-Cultural Training Effectiveness: A Review and a Theoretical Framework for Future Research. *Academy of Management Review, 15*, (1), 113-136.

Black, J. S. & Mendenhall, M. (1991). The U-Curve Adjustment Hypothesis Revisited: A Review and Theoretical Framework. *Journal of International Business Studies. 22*, (2) 225-247.

Black, J.S., Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G.R. (1991). Towards a comprehensive model of international adjustment: An integration of multiple theoretical perspectives. *Academy of Management Review, 16*(2), 291-317.

Black, J.S. and Stephens, G.K. (1989). The influence of the spouse on American expatriate adjustment and intent to stay in Pacific Rim overseas assignments. *Journal of Management,* Vol.15, pp.529–544.

Bollen, K. A., & Stine, R. (1990). Direct and indirect effects: Classical and bootstrap estimates of variability. Sociological Methodology, 20, 115–140.

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt & W. C. Borman (Eds.), Personnel selection in organizations (pp. 71-98). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Boselie, J. P. Dietz, G. & Boon, C. (2005). 'Commonalities and contradictions in research on human resource management and performance.' *Human Resource Management Journal*. 15 (3), 67-94.

Bratton, J., & Gold, J. (2007) Human Resource Management: Theory and Practice, 4th Edition, Houndmills: Macmillan.

Budhwar, S. P. & Katou A. A. (2010). Causal relationship between HRM policies and organizational performance: Evidence from the Greek manufacturing sector. *European Management Journal 28*(1), 25-39.

Burke, C. S., Pierce, L. G., & Salas, E. (2006). Understanding adaptability: A prerequisite for effective performance within complex environments. London: Emerald Group Publishing.

Burke, S., Pierce, L., & Salas, E. (2006). Understanding Adaptability: A Prerequisite for Effective Performance within Complex Environments. Cambridge, MA: Elsevier Science.

Caligiuri, P. Tarique, I., & Jacobs R. (2011). Selection for international assignments. *Human Resource Management Review journal, 19*, 251-262.

Caligiuri, P., Phillips, J., Lazarova, M., Tarique, I. and Bürgi, P. (2001) 'the theory of met expectations applied to expatriate adjustment: the role of cross cultural training.' *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 12*(3), 357-372.

Caliguiri, P., & Cascio, W. (2002). Challenges, Myths and Solutions. *World at work Journal, 9* (2), 128.

Campbell, J. P. (1990a). Modeling the performance prediction problem in industrial and organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (2nd Ed., Vol. 1, pp. 687-732). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Campbell, J. P. (1990c). The role of theory in industrial and organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (2nd. Ed., Vol. 1, pp. 39-73). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Campbell, J.P. (1999). The definition and measurement of performance in the new age. In D. R. Ilgen & E. D. Pulakos (Eds.), The changing nature of performance: Implications for staffing, motivation, and development: 399-429. San Francisco, Calif: Jossey-Bass.

Campbell, J.P., McCloy, R.A., Oppler, S.H., & Sager, C.E. (1993). A theory of performance. In E. Schmitt, W. C. Borman, & Associates (Eds.), Personnel selection in organizations (pp. 35–70). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Campbell, S. J. Ritzer, D. R. Valentine J. V., & Gifford R. K. (1998). Operation Joint Guard, Bosnia: An Assessment of Operational Stress and Adaptive Coping Mechanisms of Soldiers, Washington, D.C.: Walter Reed Institute of Research.

Cartwright, S., & Pappas, C. (2008). Emotional intelligence, its measurement and implications for the workplace. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 10*(2), 149-171.

Castillo, J.J. (2009). Population Sampling Techniques. Retrieved 05 Feb. 2012 from Experiment Resources: http://www.experiment-resources.com /populationsampling.Html.

Cavana, R. Y., Delahaye, B. L., & Sekaran, U. (2001). Applied business research: Qualitative and quantitative method. Australia: John Wiley & Sons.

Center for Advanced Defense Studies. (2006). Cultural intelligence and the United States military. Defense Concepts Series. Washington, DC: Directorate of Research.

Chan, D. (2000). Understanding adaptation to changes in the work environment: Integrating individual difference and learning perspectives. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management, 18*, 1-42.

Chand, M. (2010). The impact of HRM practices on service quality, customer satisfaction and performance in the Indian hotel industry. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 21*(4), 551-556.

Chen K-H., Yien J-M., Huang C-J., & Huang K-P. (2011) .Social   support, overseas adjustments and work performance of foreign labors in Taiwan. *African Journal of Business Management, 5*(22), 9231-9239.

Chen, G., & Thomas, B. (2005). A multilevel examination of the relationships among training outcomes, mediating regulatory processes, and adaptive performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*, 827-841.

Cheng, C. Chiu, C, Hong Y., & Cheung, J. S. (2001). Discriminative facility and its role in the perceived quality of interactional experiences. *Journal of Personality, 69*(5), 765-786.

Chih-Ying C. (2003). Investment Opportunities and the Relation between Equity Value and Employees' Bonus, *Journal of Business Finance & Accounting, 30*(7), 941-974.

Chin, W. W. (1998b). The partial least squares approach for structural equation modeling. In George A. Marcoulides (Ed.), *Modern Methods for Business Research*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, NJ, 295-336.

Chin, W. W. (2010). How to write up and report PLS analyses. In Esposito, V., *et al*. (eds.), *Handbook of Partial Least Squares* (pp. 655 – 688). New York: Springer-Verlag.

Chiva, R., & Alegre, J. (2008). Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction: The Role of Organizational Learning Capability. *Personnel Review, 37* (6), 680-701.

Choi, J. N. (2010). The Effects of Human Resource Development Investment and Learning Practices on Innovative Performance of Organizations. UC Los Angeles: The Institute for Research on Labor and Employment. Retrieved from: http: //www.escholarship.org/uc/ item/6cw286pv.

Clark, V., & Creswell, J. (2010). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*: Sage Publications, Inc.

Claus, L., Lungu, A. P., & Bhattacharjee, S. (2011). The effects of individual, organizational and societal variables on the job performance of expatriate managers. *International Journal of Management, 28*(1), 249-271.

Cooper, R.K. (1997). Applying emotional intelligence in the workplace. *Training and Development, 51*(12), 31-38.

Cooper, D. R & Schindler, P. S. (2008). *Business research methods*. (10th ed). McGraw Hill.

Cote, S., and Miners, C. T. H. (2006). "Emotional Intelligence, Cognitive Intelligence, and Job Performance", *Administrative Science Quarterly, 51* (1), 1-28.

Couchman, P. K., & Fulop, L. (2006). Building trust in cross-sector R&D collaborations: Exploring the role of credible commitments. A paper submitted for Sub-theme 11 "Trust within and across boundaries: conceptual challenges and empirical insights" of the 22nd EGOS Colloquium (Bergen, Norway, 6-8 July 2006)

http://www98.griffith.edu.au/dspace/bitstream/andle/10072/15583/egos2006 f.pdf? Sequence=1.

Cutillo, A. (2013). Deploying the Best: Enhancing Training for United Nations Peacekeepers Providing for Peacekeeping (5).

Dawes, J. (2008). Do data characteristics change according to the number of scale points used? An experiment using 5 point, 7 point and 10 point scales. *International Journal of Market Research* (50) 1.

Deardorff, D. (2009). *The Sage handbook of intercultural competence* (2nd ed.).Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Defense Science Board (2011). Enhancing Adaptability of U.S. Military Forces. Washington, D.C.: Office of the Under Secretary of Defense for Acquisition, Technology, and Logistics. Downloaded 8 February 2011 from: http://www.acq.osd.mil/dsb/reports/EnhancingAdaptabilityOfUSMilitaryForces.pdf.

Delaney, J. T. & Huselid, M. A. (1996). The impact of human resource management practices on perceptions of performance in for-profit and nonprofit organizations. *Academy of Management Journal, 39*, 949-969.

Dempsey. (2011). The speech he delivered at A USA's ARMY magazine.

Deng, L., & Gibson, P., (2008), "A qualitative evaluation on the role of cultural intelligence in cross-cultural leadership effectiveness". *International Journal of Leadership Studies, 3*, 181-197.

Department of Defence. (2005). Survey of Health Related Behaviors among Active Duty Military Personnel.

DeRue, D. S. & Wellman, N. (2009). Developing leaders via experience: The role of developmental challenge, learning orientation, and feedback availability. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(4), 859-875.

DeRue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and MA test of their relative reliability. *Personnel Psychology, 64*, 7-52.

Dessler, G. (2010). Human Resource Management: The Strategic Role of Human Resource Management, Prentice Hall, Inc. NJ.

Dong, O. Koper, R.G & Collaço, C.M. (2008). Social Intelligence, Self-esteem, and Intercultural Communication Sensitivity. Intercultural Communication Studies. (2), 162-165.

Dong, Q., Aden, T., Araisa, S., Armagnac, W., Cartwright, P., Domingo, B., Kemper, M., & LaMay, B. (2005). The impact of self esteem and media information seeking on emotional intelligence. Paper presented at the International Communication Association Conference, New York City, New York, May, 2005.

Dorsey, D., Hanson, R. M., & Pulakos, E. (2006). "Adaptability and Adaptive Performance: Current Findings and Future Directions for Building Adaptive Forces." Personnel Decisions Research Institutes, Inc.

DoS. (2013). Statistics Report, Department of Statistics in Jordan, Amman, Jordan.

Dowling, P. J., Welch, D. W., & Schuler, R. S. (1999). International Human Resource Managemeat (3rd ed). Cincinnati: International Thompson Publishing.

Du Plessis, A. (2010). International human resource management: An overview of its effect on managers in global organizations. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business, 2*(4), 178-192.

Dulewicz, V. & Higgs, M. (2000). "Emotional Intelligence-A review and evaluation study", *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 15*(4), 341-372.

Dyba, T. (2005). An empirical investigation of the key factors for success in software process improvement. Software Engineering, IEEE Transactions on, 31, 410-424.

Dyer, L. & Reeves, T. (1995). HR strategies and firm performance: what do we know and where do we need to go?. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 6* (3), 656-670.

Earley, P. C., & Mosakowski, E. (2004). Cultural intelligence. Harvard Business Review, 82(10), 139-146.

Earley, P.C., & Ang, S. (2003). Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures. Palo Alto: Stanford University Press.

Edmond, S. (2002). Exploring the Success of Expatriates of U.S. multinational firms in Mexico. *The International Trade Journal 16* (3), 233-255.

Edvinsson, L., & Malone, M. S. (1997). Intellectual capital: realizing your company's true value by finding its hidden brainpower (1st ed.). New York: Harper Business.

Efron, B., & Tibshirani, R. J. (1993). *An introduction to the bootstrap*. Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall.

Elenkov, D. S., & Manev, I. M. (2009). Senior expatriate leadership's effects on innovation and the role of cultural intelligence. *Journal of World Business, 44*, 357-369.

Elizabeth, H. E. (2012). Expatriate Success: Cultural Intellgience and Personality as Predictors for Cross-Cultural Adjustment. (Desseration publishing), *University of Tennessee at Chattanooga*, United States.

Endsley, M. R., & Robertson, M. M. (2000). Training for situation awareness. In M. R. Endsley & D. J. Garland (Eds.) Situation awareness analysis and measurement. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Eschbach, D. M. (1997). Cross-cultural training: A tool for developing effective expatriate managers. *Journal of International Business Studies, 28*(3), 664-665.

Eschbach, D. M., Parker, G. E., & Stoeberl, P. A. (2001). American repatriate employees' retrospective assessment of the effects of cross-cultural training on their adaptation to international assignments. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 12*(2), 270-287.

Fakhreldin H. (2011).The Effect of Cultural Intelligence on Employee Performance in International Hospitality Industries. *International Journal of Business and Public Administration, 8*(2), 1-19.

Febbraro, A. R. (2008). Leadership and management teams in multinational military cooperation. i J. Soeters, & P. Manigart, Military cooperation in multinational peace operations: Managing cultural diversity and crisis respons (ss. 49-70). Oxon: Routledge.

Fernandez, J. P. (1991). Managing a diverse workforce: Regaining the competitive edge. Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books. Fontaine, R & Richardson, S .(2005) ."On Cultural Values in Malaysia", Cross Cultural Management: *An International Journal*, *12*(4), 63-77.

Fey, C.F., & Bjorkman, I. (2000). The effect of human resource management practices on MNC subsidiary performance in Russia. *Journal of international business studies*. 59-75.

Flamholtz, E. & Lacey, J. (1981). Personnel Management: Human Capital Theory and Human Resource Accounting. Los Angeles, CA: Institute of Industrial Relations, UCLA.

Flaspöler, B. (2007). Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation. Master thesis, Maastricht University, Netherlands.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable and measurement error. Journal of Marketing Research, 18, 39- 50.

Gabrenya, W. K., Jr., Moukarzel, R. G., Pomerance, M. H., Griffith, H., & Deaton, J. (2011a). A validation study of the Defense Language Office Framework for Cross-cultural Competence. Technical report, Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute.

Gardner, H. 1983. Frames of Mind. New York: Bantam.

Garren, M. (2002). Swords and Ploughshares: Military-civilian Interface in PKO, *Keio SFC Journal 1*(1), 168-193.

Garren, M. (2007).The Second Annual Conference on Human Security, Terrorism and Organized Crime in the Western Balkan Region, organized by the HUMSEC project in Sarajevo.

Gay, L.R. & Diehl, P.L. 1992. *Research methods for business and management*. New York; Macmillan Publishing.

Goleman, D. (2006). Social intelligence: The new science of human relationships. New York: Bantam Books.

Goleman, Daniel. (2008). "When emotional intelligence does not matter more than IQ,"March24.http://www.danielgoleman.info/blog/2008/03/24/when-emotional-intelligence-does-not-matter-more-than-iq/ (accessed April 15, 2008).

Goldberg, D. (1972). The Detection of Psychiatric Illness by Questionnaire. *London: Oxford University Press.*

Gomez-Mejia, L., Balkin, D., & Cardy, R. (2004). Managing Human Resources (4th ed). New Jersey: Pearson.

Gong, Y., Law, KS, Chang, S., & Xin, KR (2009). Human resources management and firm performance: The differential role of managerial affective and continuance commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(1), 263-275.

Gregersen, H. B. & Black, J. (1992). Antecedents to commitment to a parent company and a foreign operation, *Academy of Management Review, 35*(1), 65-90.

Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. (2007). A new model of work role performance: Positive behavior in uncertain and interdependent contexts. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(2), 327-347.

Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. (2010). Leader Vision and the Development of Adaptive and Proactive Performance: A Longitudinal Study. *Journal of Applied Psychology American Psychological Association, 95*(1), 174-182.

Grizogono, Anne-Marie. (2009).The Science of Complex Adaptive Systems and Applications to Defense Systems and Operations. Complex Adaptive Decision Making conference, Alexandria, 18-19, United States.

Guéhenno J.-M. (2010). United nation peace keeping operations, Principles and Guidelines USG/DPKOApproved on 18 January 2008Contact: PBPS/D-PET.

Guthrie, J. (2001). High-involvement work practices, turnover and productivity: evidence

from New Zealand. *Academy of Management Journal, 44*, 180-192.

Guzina, D., & Marijan, B. (2013). Local Uses of International Criminal Justice

in Bosnia-Herzegovina: Transcending Divisions or Building Parallel Worlds. *Studies in Social Justice,* 7 (2), 245-263.

Gwinner, C. (2006). 5-point vs. 6-point likert scale. Retrieved 12 July, 2010, from http://www.infosurv.com/Insider/White_Papers/PDF/Likert_Scale_Debate.pdf

Hair, J. F., Money, A. H., Samouel, P., & Page, M. (2007). *Research methods for*

Business. WestSussex: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Hair, J. F., Jr., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Andersen, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2010).

Mutilvariate data analysis (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a silver bullet. *The*

Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 19(2), 139-152.

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2013). Partial least squares structural equation

modeling: Rigorous applications, better results and higher acceptance. Long Range

Planning, 46, 1-12.

Haltiner, K., & Paul K. (2005). The European post-cold war military: Reforms and their

impact on civil military relations. In European armed forces in transition, eds. Franz

Kernic, Karl Haltiner and Paul Klein, 9- 45. Berlin: Peter Lang Publishers.

Harel, G.H., & Tzafrir, S.S. (1999). The effect of human resource management practices

on the perceptions of organizational and market performance of the firm. *Human*

Resource Management, 38,185-200.

Haslberger, A. (2005). Facets and dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation: Refining the

tools. *Personnel Review, 34*(1), 85-108.

Hassan, Z. & Diallo M. M. (2013). Cross-Cultural Adjustments and Expatriate's Job Performance. *International Journal of Accounting, and Business Management, 1*(1), 8-23.

Hayward. B, A. (2005). Relationship between Employee Performance, Leadership and Emotional Intelligence in a South African Parastatal Organization. A thesis Master of Commerce. Rhodes University, South Africa.

Hesketh, B., & Neal, A. (1999). Technology and performance. In D. R. Ilgen & E. D. Pulakos (Eds.), the changing nature of performance: Implications for staffing, motivation, and development. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hofstede, G. (1983). The cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories. *The Journal of International Business Studies, 14*(2), 75-89.

Hosek, J., and M. Totten. (2002). Serving Away from Home: How Deployments Influence Reenlistment, Santa Monica, Calif.: RAND Corporation, MR- 1594- OSD.http://skill-assessment.suite101.com/article.cfm/ quiz_on_intercultural_competence.

House, R. J., Spangler, W. D., & Woycke, J. (1991). Personality and charisma in the U.S. presidency: A psychological theory of leadership effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 36, 364-396.

Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated-business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 78, 891-902.

Huang, T-C. (2001). The effects of linkage between business and human resource management strategies, *Personal Review, 30*(1/2), 132-151.

Hulland, J. (1999). Use of partial least squares (PLS) in strategic management research: A review of four recent studies. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20, 195-204.

Huselid, M. A. (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance, *Academy of Management Journal, 38*, 635-672.

Iacobucci, D., Saldanha, N., & Deng, X. (2007). Meditation on mediation: Evidence that structural equations models perform better than regressions a meditation on mediation. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *17*(2), 140–154.

Ilgen, D. R., & Pulakos, E. D. (Eds.) (1999). The changing nature of performance: Implications for staffing, motivation, and development. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Imai, L., & Gelfand, M. J. (2010). The culturally intelligent negotiator: The impact of cultural intelligence (CQ) on negotiation sequences and outcomes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 112*, 83-98.

Inoue, Y., & Lee, S. (2010). Effects of different dimensions of corporate social responsibility on corporate financial performance in tourism-related industries. *Tourism Management, 32*(4), 790-804.

Isfahani A.N., Jooneghani R. B, N., & Azar M. (2013). Analyzing the Effects of Cultural Intelligence on Employee Performance in Azaran Industrial Group. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences. 3*, (5), 363-376.

Jackson, M. G. (2005). A necessary collaboration: NGOs, peacekeepers and credible military force – A case study on Sierra Leone and East Timor. In: Richmond, O.P. and H.F. Carey eds. subcontracting peace: The challenges of NGO peacebuilding. Hampshire, Ashgate, 109-118.

Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1995).Understanding human resource management in the context of organizations and their environments. *Annual Review of Psychology, 46*(1), 237-264.

Jarventaus, J. (2007). Training in a risky industry. T+D Magazine, available at: www.astd.org/astd/Publications/TD_Magazine/2007_pdf/March/0703_ ExecSum.htm.

Jeffrey B. (2011). A Crisis of Trust and Cultural Incompatibility.N2KL Red Team Political and Military Behavioral Scientist, USA.

Jeloudar, S. Y., Yunus A. S., Samsilah R. & Sharifah Md. N. (2012).The Influence of Social Intelligence of Secondary School Teachers on Classroom Discipline Strategies. *Journal Psychology, 3*(1), 39-45.

Jing, L. Yingqian, H. (2011). Transformational Leadership on Employees' Adaptive Performance. International Conference on Information Management and Engineering (ICIME 2011) .IACSIT Press, Singapore .V52.87.

Johnson, J. P., Lenartowicz, T., & Apud, S. (2006). Cross-cultural competence in international business: Toward a definition and a model. *Journal of International Business Studies, 37*, 525-543.

Johnston, J. H., Paris, C., McCoy, C. E., Severe, G., Hughes, S. C. (2010). A framework for cross-cultural competence and learning recommendations. Technical report. Defense Language Office.

Johnstone, I. & Nkiwane, T. (1993). The Organisation of African Unity and Conflict Management in Africa. New York: International Peace Academy Report.

Jones, K., & Day, J. D. (1997).Discrimination of two aspects of cognitive-social intelligence from academic intelligence. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 89*(3), 486-497.

Jordan Armed Forces Headquarter. (2012). Department of peace keeping force.

Jordan, P.J., & Troth, A.C. (2004). Managing emotions during team problem solving: Emotional intelligence and conflict resolution. *Human Performance, 17*(2), 195-218.

Juffer, K.A. (1986), "The First Step in Cross-Cultural Orientation: Defining the Problem", in R.M. Paige (ed.), Cross-Cultural Orientation: New Conceptualizations and Applications, Lanham, MD. University Press of America.

Jundt, D.K. (2010). Adaptability from a process perspective: Examining the effects of task change type and a metacognitive intervention on adaptive performance. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Kafetsios, K., & Zampetakis, L. A. (2008). Emotional Intelligence and Job satisfaction: Testing the Mediatory Role of Positive and Negative Affect at Work, Personality and Individual Differences, 44 (3), 710-720.

Kafetsios, K., Nezlek, J.B. & Vasiou, A. (2011). A Multilevel Analysis of Relationships between Leaders' and Subordinates' Emotional Intelligence and Emotional Outcomes. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 41(5), 1121–1144.

Karami, A. (2001). Strategy, HRM, and firm performance: the case of high tech SMEs in UK, paper presented at 31st European Small Business Seminar, Dublin Institute of Technology, Dublin, 13-14 September.

Kaše, R. & Yamao, S. (2011, April). Social network of multinational corporations and expatriates: A literature review and a look ahead. Accepted for presentation at

the Australia and New Zealand International Business Academy 2011 Conference, Melbourne, Australia.

Kassim, N. (2001). Determinants of customer satisfaction and retention in the cellular phone market of Malaysia. Unpublished PhD thesis, Southern Cross University, Lisbon.

Katou A. A. (2008), Measuring the impact of HRM on organizational performance, *Journal of Industrial Engineering and Management. 1*(2), 119-142.

Katou A. A. (2008). Measuring the impact of HRM on organizational performance. *Journal of Industrial Engineering and Management. 01*(02), 119-142.

Katou, A. A., & Budhwar, P. S. (2007). The effect of human resource management policies on organisational performance in Greek manufacturing firms. *Thunderbird International Business Review, 49*, 1-35.

Kavanagh J,. (2005). Stress and Performance.A Review of the Literature and, its Applicability to the Military. Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data.

Kazmi, R., Amjad S., & Khan D. (2008). Occupational Stress and its Effect on Job Performance. A Case Study of Medical House Officers of District Abbottabad Comsats Institute of Information Technology, Abbottabad, Pakistan.

Kelidbari, H.R., R., D. M., Rezaiee, Jourshari P. R. (2012).The Relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Job Performance of Operational Staff in Ports. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research, 2*(6), 6133-6138.

Kelley, R. and Caplan, J. (1993). How Bell Labs creates star performers, *Harvard Business Review, 3*(2), 100-103.

Kelley, K., Clark, B., Brown, V., & Sitzia, J. (2003). Good practice in the conduct and reporting of survey research. *International Journal for Quality in Health Care,*15(3), 261-266.

Kesternich I., Siflinger B., Smith, J. P., & Winter J. K. (2012).The Effects of World War II on Economic and Health Outcomes across Europe .RAND Center for the Study of Aging, California, USA.

Khalili A. (2011).Examining the Relevance of Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Commitment among Employees of Small and Medium Enterprise in Private Sector. *International Journal of Business and Management 6*(12) 180-194.

Khan, M .A .(2010). Effects of Human Resource Management Practices on Organizational Performance. European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences, ISSN 1450-2275 Issue 24 http://www.eurojournals.com.

Khokhar, C. P., & Tulika K., (2009). Emotional Intelligence and Work Performance among Executives. *Europe's Journal of Psychology, 5*(1), 1-10.

Kia-Keating, M., Grossman, F. K., Sorsoli, L., & Epstein, M. (2005). Containing and resisting masculinity: Narratives of renegotiation among resilient male survivors of childhood sexual abuse. *Psychology of Men and Masculinity, 6* (3), 169-185.

Kilcullen, R. N., Goodwin, G. F., Chen, G., Wisecarver, M. M., & Sanders, M. G. (1999). (in review). Psychological predictors of Special Forces leader performance.

Kim, K., Kirkman, B., & Chen, G. (2008). Cultural intelligence and international assignment effectiveness: A conceptual model and preliminary findings. In S. Ang, & L. Van Dyne (Eds.), Handbook of cultural intelligence: Theory, measurement, and applications (pp. 71-90). Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe.

Kim, K. & Slocum, J.W. (2008). Individual differences and expatriate assignment effectiveness: The case of U.S. – based Korean expatriates. *Journal of World Business*, 43, 109-126.

Koch, M. & McGrath, R. G. (1996). Improving labor productivity: Human resource management policies do matter. *Strategic Management Journal, 17*(5), 335-354.

Kohlberg, L. (1984). The psychology of moral development. San Francisco: Harper & Row.

Ko H-C., & Yang M-L. (2011). The Effects of Cross-Cultural Training on Expatriate Assignments. *Intercultural Communication Studies, 20*(1), 158-174.

Kok-Yee N., Van Dyne L., & Soon A. (2009). Developing global leaders: The role of international experience and cultural intelligence, in William H. Mobley, Ying Wang, Ming Li (ed.) 5 (Advances in Global Leadership, Volume 5), Emerald Group Publishing Limited, 225-250.

Kolski-Anderaco, A. (2010). Social Intelligence. Smart Business Network Inc. kolskiandreacoa@upmc.edu or (412) 647-8728.

Kommers, P., Stoyanov, S., Mileva, N., & Martínez Mediano, K. (2008). The effect of adaptive performance support system on learning achievements of students. *International Journal of Continuing Engineering Education and Lifelong Learning, 18* (3), 351-365.

Kong F., Zhao J., & You Y. (2012). Social support mediates the impact of emotional intelligence on mental distress and life satisfaction in Chinese young adults. Elsevier Ltd.

Koteswari, V. B., & Bhattacharya, M. S. (2007). Managing Expatriate Stress. *Delhi Business Review, 8*(1), 89-98.

Kozlowski, S.W.J., Gully, S.M., Brown, K.G., Salas, E., Smith, E.M., & Nason, E.R. (2001). Effects of training goals and goal orientation traits on multidimensional training outcomes and performance adaptability. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 85*, 1-31.

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 30*, 607-610.

Krosnick, J. A., & Fabrigar, L. R. (1997). Designing rating scales for effective measurement in surveys. In Lyberg, Biemer, Collins, de Leeuw, Dippo, Schwartz, Trewin (Eds.). Survey Measurement and Process Quality, (pp. 141-164). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Kulik, C.T. (2004). Human Resource for the non-HR Manager, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Kumar, N. R., & Sri Ramalu R. C. (2008). The Effects of Personality and Cultural Intelligence on International Assignment Effectiveness. *A Review Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(4), 320-328.

Kundu, S. C. (2003). Workforce diversity status: a study of employees' reactions Industrial. Management & Data Systems. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences 103* (4), 215-226.

Kundu, S.C., & Malhan, D. (2007). Human Resource Management Practices in Insurance Companies Operating in India: A Study, Proceedings of the 13th Asia Pacific Management Conference, Melbourne, Australia, 472-488.

Lang, J.W.B., & Bliese, P.D. (2009). General mental ability and two types of adaptation to unforeseen change: Applying discontinuous growth models to the task-change paradigm. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*, 411-428.

Lee, H.W. & Liu, C.H. (2006). Determinants of the adjustment of expatriate managers to foreign countries: An empirical study. *International journal of Management, 23*(2), 302-311.

Lee, L. & Li, C. (2008). The moderating effects of teaching method, learning style and cross-cultural differences on the relationship between expatriate training and training effectiveness. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 19*(4), 600-619.

Lee, L. & 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.

Leitch, M., "A. (2005).New Approach to Stress Management: Why Uncertainty Causes Stress, and How to Stop It," www.managedluck.co.uk/ stress.

Leon, C.Megginson. (1977).Personnel and Human Resources Administration Homewood, IL: 4.

LePine, J. A., Colquitt, J. A., & Erez, A. (2000). Adaptability to changing task contexts: Effects of general cognitive ability, conscientiousness, and openness to experience. *Personnel Psychology, 53*, 563-593.

Litz, B. T., King, L. A., King, D. W., Orsillo, S. M., & Friedman, M. J. (1997). Warriors as peacekeepers: Features of the Somalia experience and PTSD. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 65*(6), 1001-1010.

Litz, B.T., Orsillo, S.M., Friedman, M.J., Ehlich, P. & Batres, A. (1997). Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder Associated with Peacekeeping Duty in Somalia for U.S. Military Personnel. *American Journal of Psychiatry, 154*, 178-184.

López-Gamero, M., Molina-Azorín, J., & Claver-Cortés, E. (2009). The whole relationship between environmental variables and firm performance: Competitive advantage and firm resources as mediator variables. *Journal of environmental management, 90*(10), 3110-3121.

Lyons, J. B., and Schneider, T. R. (2005). "The Influence of Emotional Intelligence on Performance". *Personality and Individual Differences, 39*(4), 693- 703.

Lysgaard, S. (1955) Adjustment in a foreign society: Norwegian Fulbright grantees visiting the United States. *International Social Science Bulletin, 7*, 45-51.

MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., & Williams, J. (2004). Confidence limits for the indirect effect: Distribution of the product and resampling methods. *Multivariate Behavioral Research,* 39, 99-128.

Mansour M. (2010). HRM Practices Impact on Firm Performance. An Empirical Study. King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals, Saudi Arabia.

Marlowe, H. A. (1986). Social intelligence: Evidence for multidimensionality and construct independence. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 78*(1), 52-58.

Martinez-Pons, M. (1997). The relation of emotional intelligence with selected areas of personal functioning. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality, 17*(1), 3-13.

Masood, T. (2010). Impact of Human Resource Management (Hrm) Practices on Organizational Performance: A Mediating Role of Employee Performance. (Ph.D thesis), Mohammad Ali Jinnah University, Karachi.

232

Mayer, J. D., Roberts, R. D., & Barsade, S. G. (2008). Emerging research in emotional intelligence. *Annual Review of Psychology, 59*, 501-536.

Mayer, J.D. & Salovey, P. (1997). "What is Emotional Intelligence?" In Salovey, P. And Sluyter, D. (eds). Emotional Development, Emotional Literacy, and Emotional Intelligence. New York: Basic Books.

Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P. & Caruso, D. (2000). "Emotional Intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence", *Intelligence, 27*(4), 267-298.

McCloskey M. J., Grandjean A., Kyle J, Behymer & Ross K. (2010). Assessing the Development of Cross-Cultural.Competence in Soldiers U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences. Technical Report 1277.Arlington, Virginia.

McDonald, D. P., McGuire, G., Johnston, J., Selmeski, B., & Abbe, A. (2008). Developing and managing cross-cultural competence within the Department of Defense: Recommendations for learning and assessment. Paper submitted to the Defense Language Office, Arlington, Virginia.

McFarland, M. (2005). Military cultural education.*Military Review,* 62-69.

McFate, M., & Jackson A. (2005). "An organizational solution for DOD's cultural knowledge needs." *Military Review, 85*(4), 18-21.

McNulty, Y.M., & Tharenou, P. (2004). Expatriate return on investment. Academyu of Management Best Conference Paper, 1-6, Paper presented at Monash University Melbourne, 26 August.

Mendenhall, M. E., Osland, J. S., Bird, A., Oddou, G. R., Maznevski, M. L. (2008). Global leadership: Research, practice and development. New York.

Mendenhall, M.E. & Oddou, G. (1985). The dimensions of expatriate acculturation: A review. *Academy of Management Review, 10*(1), 39-47.

Milkovich, G.T. & Newman, J.M. (1999). Compensation, New York: Irwin/McGraw-Hill, Singapore.

Moilanen, J., & Craig, D. (2000). Leader development in a transforming. *Army. Military Review*, 12-15.

Mol, S., Born, M., Willemsen, M., & Van der Molen, H. (2005). Predicting expatriate job performance for selection purposes, a quantitative review. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 36,* 590-620.

Molinsky, A. (2007). Cross-cultural code-switching: The psychological challenges of adapting behavior in foreign cultural interactions. *Academy of Management Review, 32*, 622-640.

Monaghan S. (2012). Current Challenges Facing the Peacekeeping Training Community. International Association of Peacekeeping Training Centers 18th Annual Conference, Hilton Helsinki Kalastajatorppa Hotel, Helsinki, Finland 17-20 September .

Moon, T. (2010). Emotional intelligence correlates of the four-factor model of cultural intelligence. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 25*, 876-898.

Mueller-Hanson, R. A., Johnathan, K. N., & Swartout E. (2009). Proof of Concept Research for Developing Adaptive Performance: Task 2 Report, Validation Plan, PDRI, Arlington, Virginia.

Mueller-Hanson, R., Wisecarver, M., Baggett, M., Miller, T., & Mendini, K. (2007). Developing adaptive leaders. *Special Warfare, 20*, 28-32.

Mueller-Hanson, R.A., White, S., Dorsey, D.W. & Pulakos, E.D. (2005). Training adaptable leaders: Lessons from research and practice (ARI Research Report 1844). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.

Musallam N. (2011). Examining the Perceived Internal and External Effectiveness of NGOs in the Palestinian Territories: The Role of Complexity, Resilience, and Job Adaptability. (Doctorate Thesis), Columbia University.

Najafi, M., & Mousavi, S. (2012). Studying the Effect of Emotional Quotient on Employee's Job Satisfaction (The Case of Isfahan University of Medical Sciences). *Journal of Contemporary Research in Business, 4*(2), 343-354.

Narimawati U. (2007).The Influence of Work Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intention towards the Performance of Lecturers at West Java's. *Private Journal of Applied Sciences Research, 3*(7): 549-557.

Nawi., N, H. Redzuan., M. Hamsan ., H.(2012). Inter Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Personality Trait of Educator Leaders .*International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences,* Vol. 2, No. 5.

Nermine, M. A. (2012). Testing the Impact of the Human Resource Management Practices on Job Performance: An Empirical Study in the Egyptian Joint Venture Petroleum Companies. *International Journal of Business and Social Science, 3*(9), 105-119.

Neuman, W. L. (2006). Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches (6 ed.). Boston: Person Education, Inc, Wisconsin, United States.

Ng, K-Y; Van Dyne, L., & Ang, S. (2012). Cultural Intelligence: A Review, Reflections, and Recommendations for Future Research. *American Psychological Association*, 29-58.

Ng, K. Y., Ramaya R., Tony T., & Wong S. F. (2005). Cultural intelligence: Its potential for military leadership development. Singapore: International Military Testing Association.

Nkewu, Z. & Van Dyk, G.A.J. (2008). A Framework of a Psychological Plan for the Battle: A Proposal for Discussion, in G.A.J. van Dyk (ed.). Strategic Challenges for African Armed Forces for the Next Decade. Stellenbosch: Sun Press.

Norton, L. W. (2010). Flexible leadership: An integrative perspective. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 62*(2), 143-150.

Oberg, K. (1960). Culture shock: adjustment to new cultural environments. *Practical Anthropology 7*, 177-182.

Oddou, G. & Derr, C. (1992). "European MNC Strategies for Internationalizing Managers: Current and Future Trends", Third International Conference on Personnel/Human Resource Management. Ashridge Management College, Ashridge, United Kingdom, July 2- 4.

Okpara J. O. & Kabongo, D. J. (2011).Cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment: A study of western expatriates in Nigeria. *Journal of World Business journal, 46*(1), 22-30.

Olders, T., Chernyshenko, O. S., & Stark, S. (2008). Openness to experience and adaptive performance. In S. Ang, & L. Van Dyne (Eds.), Handbook of cultural

intelligence: Theory, measurement, and applications (pp. 145-158). Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe.

Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2006). *Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences.* USA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Osborne, J. W. (2010). Improving your data transformations: Applying the box-cox transformation. Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation, *15*(12), 1-9.

Osland, J. (2002). What do expatriates want from HR departments? HR.com. Available at www.hr.com.

Parker, B. & McEvoy G.M. (1993). Initial examination of a model of intercultural adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations 17* (3), 355-379.

Piaget, J. (1985). The equilibrium of cognitive structures: The central problem of intellectual development (T. Brown & K. J. Thampy, Trans.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Ping F. S. &Yue H.K. A. (2010) .The Mediating Effects of Leader-Member Exchange (Lmx) And Team-Member Exchange (Tmx) On the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Job Satisfaction and Job Performance of Employees Hong Kong Baptist University. Hong Kong.

Plessis., A J. D. (2010). An Overview of its Effect on Managers in Global Organizations, *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, (2), 4.

Ployhart, R.E. & Bliese, P.D. (2006). Individual adaptability (I-ADAPT) theory: conceptualizing the antecedents, consequences, and measurement of individual differences in adaptability. In: C.S. Burke, L.G. Pierce, & E. Salas (Eds.),

Understanding Adaptability: A Prerequisite for Effective Performance within Complex Environments. (pp. 3-40). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.

Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers, 36(4), 717–731.

Price, A. (2004). Human Resource Management in Business Context. Business & Economics, International Thomson Computer Press, New York, 32-35.

Pulakos, E. D., Arad, S., Donovan, M. A., & Plamondon, K. E. (2000). Adaptability in the workplace: Development of a taxonomy of adaptive performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*, 612-624.

Pulakos, E. D., Dorsey, D. W., & White, S. S. (2006). Adaptability in the workplace: Selecting an adaptive workforce. In C. S. Burke, L. G. Pierce, & E. Salas (Eds.), Understanding adaptability: A prerequisite for effective performance within complex environments (pp. 41-71). Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Pulakos, E. D., Schmitt, N. Dorsey, D, W. Arad, S, Hedge. J. W., & Borman, W. C. (2002). Predicting adaptive performance: Further tests of a model of adaptability. *Human Performance, 15*(4), 299-323.

Punia, S. Sangwan, S. (2011). Emotional Intelligence and Social Adaptation of School Children. Kamla-Raj, Psychology, 2(2): 83-87.

Qureshi M.I., T. Shams & R. Kashif, (2009). Relationship between Rewards and Employees Performance.

Quy, N. H. (1999). "Emotional capability, emotional intelligence, and radical change", *Academy of Management Journal, 24*, 325-345.

Ramayah, T., Lee, J. W. C. & In, J. B. C. (2011). Network collaboration and performance in the tourism sector. Service Business, 5, 411–428.

Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., & Will, A. (2005). SmartPLS 2.0. Retrieved May 23, 2012 from www.smartpls.de.

Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., & Will, A. (2010). Finite Mixture Partial Least Squares Analysis: Methodology and Numerical Examples. In Handbook of partial least squares. *Concepts, methods and applications in marketing and related fields (p. 195-218).* Heidelberg, Dordrecht, London, New York: Springer.

Rizov, M., & Croucher, R. (2008). "Human resource management and performance in European firms". *Cambridge Journal of Economics, 33*, 253-272.

Rizwan, M. Javed, K., Nawaz, M. I. Erum. A. Afzal, S., Azam, S., & Rehman, A. (2013). A Descriptive Study to Explore Relationship between HR Practices and Employee Performance in Private Banks of Pakistan. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research, 3*(12), 225-234.

Roan L., Strong B., Foss P., Yager M., Gehlbach H., & Metcalf K., A. (2009). Social Perspective Taking Technical Reports, 1259,(ADA509341).

Rockstuhl, T., Seiler, S., Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Annen, H. (2011). Beyond EQ and IQ: The role of cultural intelligence in cross-border leadership effectiveness in a globalized world. *Journal of Social, 67*, 825-840.

Roscoe, J. T. (1975). Fundamental research statistics for the behavioral sciences (2nd Ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Rose, J. (2007). Quiz on intercultural competence: Test your cultural awareness before traveling on business.

Rowley, C. & Poon, H. F. (2008), 'HRM Best Practices and Transfers to the Asia Pacific Region', in Wankel, C. (ed.), 21st Century Management: A Reference Handbook (pp. 209-220), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications

Salovey, P. & Mayer, J.D. (1990). "Emotional Intelligence". *Imagination, Cognition and Personality, 9*, 185-211.

Sang, C. (2005). Relationship between HRM practices and the perception of organizational performance, roles of management style, social capital, and culture: comparison between manufacturing firms in Cambodia and Taiwan, National Cheng Kung University, Tainan, Taiwan.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thronhill, A. (2003). Research method for business students (3 ed.). England: Person Education Limited.

Schneider, R. J., Ackerman, P. L., & Kanfer, R. (1996). To "act wisely in human relations": exploring the dimensions of social competence. *Personality and Individual Differences, 4*, 469-481.

Schuler, R. & Jackson, S. (1987). 'Linking competitive strategies and human resource management practices'. *Academy of Management Executive 1*(3): 207-219.

Schultz, T. W. (1961). Investment in human capital. Indianapolis, IN: Bobbs-Merrill.

Schutte, N.S., Malouff, J.M., Hall, L.E., Haggerty, D.J., Cooper, J.T., Golden, C.J. & Dornheim, L. (1998). "Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence". *Personality and Individual Differences, 25*,167-177.

Scullion, H., & Collings, D. (2006). Global staffing. London: Routledge.

Searle, W. & Word, C. (1990). The predication of psychological and sociocultural adjustment during cross-cultural transitions. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 14*, 449-464.

Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., & Liden, R. C. (2001). "A Social Capital Theory of Career Success". *Academy of Management Journal, 44,*219-237.

Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010). Research method for business; A skill building approach. Fifth edition. A john Wiley and sons, Ltd. United Kingdom.

Selmer, J., Lauring, J., & Feng, Y. (2009). Age and expatriate job performance in Greater China. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, 16*(2), 131-148.

Selmeski, B. R. (2007). Military Cross-Cultural Competence: Core Concepts and Individual development. Centre for Security, Armed Forces & Society Royal Military College of Canada.

Semelski, B. (2009). Proceedings from the 7th Biennial Equal Opportunity, Diversity, and Culture Research Symposium. Patrick Air Force Base, FL.

Shadrick S. B., Lussier J. W., & Christopher F. (2007). Accelerating the Development of Adaptive Performance: Validating the Think like a Commander Training. U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences, USA.

Shaffer, M., & Miller, G. (2008). Cultural intelligence: A key success factor for expatriates. In S. Ang, & L. Van Dyne (Eds.), Handbook of cultural intelligence: Theory, measurement, and applications (pp. 107-125). Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe

Shahzad K., Sarmad M., Abbas M., & Khan A. M. (2011). Impact of Emotional Intelligence (EI) on employee's performance in telecom sector of Pakistan African. *Journal of Business Management, 5* (4) 1225-1231.

Shahzad, K. Sarmad, M., Abbas, M., & Khan, M. (2011). Impact of Emotional Intelligence (EI) on employee's performance in telecom sector of Pakistan. *African Journal of Business Management, 5*(4), 1225-1231.

Shakuntala, P., & Santosh, S. (2011). Emotional Intelligence and Social Adaptation of School Children. *Journal Psychology, 2*(2), 83-87.

Shen, J.(2005). Towards a Generic International Human Resource Management (IHRM) Model. *Journal of Organizational Transformation and Social Change, 2*(2), 83-102.

Shim, I., & Paprock, K. (2002). A study focusing on American expatriates" learning in host countries. *International Journal of Training & Development*, 13-24.

Shin, S., J., Morgeson, F., P., & Campion, M., A. (2007). What you do depends on where you are: Understanding how domestic and expatriate work requirements depend upon the cultural context. *Journal of International Business Studies, 38*(1), 64.

Shurrman (2013).Presentation, the positive and negative peace keeping mission in Haiti in the Lesson learned Center, Jordan Armed Forces Head Quarter, Jordan.

Singh, K. (2004). 'Impact of HR practices on perceived firm performance in India'. *Asia pacific Journal of Human Resources 42*(3) 301-317.

Smith, E. M., Ford, J. K., Kozlowski, S. W. J., Quinones, M. A. and Ehrenstein, A. (1997) 'Building Adaptive Expertise: Implications for Training Design Strategies', in Training for a Rapidly Changing Workplace: Applications of Psychological Research. Washington, American Psychological Association, pp. 89-118.

Smith, P.B. (1992). Organisational Behaviour and National Cultures. British Journal of Management, 3, 39-51.

Sobel, M. E. (1982). Asymptotic confidence intervals for indirect effects in structural equation models. In S. Leinhardt (Ed.). *Sociological methodology (pp. 290-312)*. Washington, DC: American Sociological Association.

Sri Ramalu, S. (2010). Relationships between Cultural Intelligence, Personality, Cross-Cultural Adjustment and Job Performance. (Doctoral thesis, University Putra Malaysia, 2010). Retrieved from http://psasir.upm.edu.my/19661/.

Sri Ramalu, S. R., Rose, R. C., & Jegak, U. (2010). Personality and Expatriate Performance: The Mediating Role of Expatriate Adjustment. *The Journal of Applied Business Research, 26*(6), 113-122.

Starkweather, J. (2011). An alternative modeling strategy: Partial least squares. Retrieved December 16, 2011 from www.unt.edu/rss/class/Jon/Benchmarks/PLS_JDS_ July2011.pdf.

Stokes, C. (2008). Adaptive Performance: An Examination of Convergent and Predictive Validity. (Electronic Thesis or Dissertation). Retrieved from https://etd.ohiolink.edu/

Stokes, C.K., Schneider, T.R., & Lyons, J.B. (2008). Predicting adaptive performance in multicultural teams: A causal model. *Proceedings of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization: Human Factors and Medicine Panel*, Copenhagen, Denmark.

Stone, R. J. (1991). Expatriate Selection and Failure. *Human Resource Planning, 14*(1), 9-18.

Straub, D. W. (1989). Validating instruments in MIS research. MIS Quarterly, *13*(2), 147-169.

Sturman, M. C., Walsh, K., & Cheramie, R. A. (2008). The value of human capital specificity versus transferability. *Journal of Management, 34*, 290-298.

Sumer, Seda. (2009). International Students' Psychological and Sociocultural Adaptation in the United States. Counseling and Psychological Services Dissertations. Paper 34 Technique of Data Analyses NORA.

Swagler, M. A. & Jome, L. M. (2005). The effects of personality and acculturation on the adjustment of North American sojourners in Taiwan. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 42*(4), 527-536.

Sy, T., Tram, S., & O'Hara, L. (2006). Relation of Employee and Manager Emotional Intelligence to Job Satisfaction and Performance, *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68* (3), 461-473.

Tabachnick, B., & Fidell, L. (2001). Using multivariate statistics. (4th ed.), New York: Harper Collins.

Takeuchi, R., Lepak, D., Wang, H., and Takeuchi, K. (2007). An empirical examination of the mechanisms mediating between high-performance work systems and the performance of Japanese organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 1069-1083.

Takeuchi, R., Yun, S., & Tesluk, P. E. (2002). An examination of crossover and spillover effects of spousal and expatriate cross-cultural adjustment on expatriate outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 655-666.

Thomas D. C., & Inkson K. (2004). Cultural intelligence: People skills for global business.C2M consulting to management, San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler. (Translated into Spanish, Portuguese, Indonesian, & Japanese).

Thomas, D. C. (2006). Domain and development of cultural intelligence. Group Organization *Management, 31*(1), 78-99.

Thompson, M.M.; & McCreary, D.R. (2006). Enhancing Mental Readiness in Military Personnel. In Human Dimensions in Military Operations-Military Leaders' Strategies for Addressing Stress and Psychological Support (pp. 4-1-4-12). Meeting Proceedings RTO-MP-HFM-134, Paper 4. Neuilly-sur-Seine, France: RTO. Available from: http://www.rto.nato.int/abstracts.asp.

Thorndike, E.L. (1920), 'Intelligence and its Uses'. *Harper's Magazine, 140*(1): 227-235.

Tony M. (2004). Adaptive Leadership in today's Modern Society.

Torbiorn, I. (1982). Living abroad. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Tsui, A.S., J.L. Pearce, L.W. Porter, & A.M. Tripoli, (1997) 'Alternative Approaches to the Employer-Employee Relationship: Does Investment in Employees Pay Off?'. *Academy of Management Journal, 40*, 1089-1121.

Tucker, J. S. & Gunther, K. M. (2009). The application of a model of adaptive performance to Army leader behaviors. *Military Psychology, 21*, 315-333.

Tung, R. L. (1982). Selection and training procedures of US, European, and Japanese multinationals. *California Management Review, 25* (1), 57-71.

Ulrich, D. (1997). Measuring Human Resources: An Overview of Practice and Prescription for Results', *Human Resource Management*, Vol.3, pp.303-320.

U.S. Army War College.(2007). How the Army Runs (Carlisle, PA: U.S. Army War College, Department of the Army), 295.

UN News Service, Security Council extends UN peacekeeping mission in Haiti for another year, accessed 10 October 2013, Retrieved from, http://www.refworld.org/docid/5257cade4.html

United Nation. Organization contributed military and police personnel to UN peacekeeping (2014). Retrieved from, http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/backgroundnote.

United Nations, Ranking of Military and Police Contributions to UN Operations, May 2013, United Na-tions Department of Peacekeeping Operations. Available online at: Retrieved from http://www.un.org/Depts/dpko/dpko/contributors/2013/may 07_2

United States Army. (2010). Army Health Promotion Risk Reduction Suicide Prevention Report 2010, Virginia: Prepared by the Army Suicide Prevention Task Force, Headquarters, and Department of the Army.

Usunier, J. (1998) Oral pleasure and expatriate satisfaction: An empirical approach. *International Business Review, 7*, 89-110.

Viswesvaran, C. (1993). Modeling job performance: Is there a general factor? (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), University of Iowa.

Walker, R.E. & Foley, J.M. (1973). Social Intelligence: Its History and Measurement, Psychology Reports, 33, 839-864.

Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1996). Crossing cultures: The relationship between psychological and socio-cultural dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment. In J. Pandey, D. Sinha, & D. P. S. Bhawuk (Eds.), Asian contributions to cross-cultural psychology (pp. 289–306). New Delhi: Sage.

Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1999). The measurement of sociocultural adaptation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 23, 659-677.

Ward, C., Fischer, R., Lam, F. S. Z., & Hall, L. (2009). The convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of scores on a self-report measure of cultural intelligence. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 69*, 85-105.

Ward, C., & Searle, W. (1991). The impact of value discrepancies and cultural identity on psychological and sociocultural adjustment of sojourners. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 15, 209-225.

Weekley, J.A., Ployhart, R.E., & Holtz, B.C. (2006). On the development of situational judgment tests: Issues in item development, scaling, and scoring, Mahwah, New Jersey.

Wendi L. A., Ivona, H., & Jeffrey, R. S. (2013). The Culturally Intelligent Team: The Impact of Team Cultural Intelligence and Cultural Heterogeneity on Team Shared Values. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 44*(6) 941-962.

Weston, H. A. (2010). Developing Emotional Intelligence (EQ) In the Workplace, University of Texas, USA.

White S., Rose A. Mueller-Hanson, Dorsey D., & Pulakos E., (2005). Developing Adaptive Proficiency in Special Forces Officers, Army Research Institute Newsletter.

White, S.S., Mueller-Hanson, R.A., Dorsey, D.W., Pulakos, E.D., Wisecaver, M.M., Deagle, E.A., & Mendini, K.G. (2005). Developing Adaptive Proficiency in Special Forces Officers. (ARI Research Report 1831). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.

William R. B. Jr. & Waldo D. F. (2010). Developing More Adaptable Individuals and Institutions. Institute for Defense Analyses. Alexandria, Virginia.

Wold, H. (1985). Systems analysis by Partial Least Squares. In P.Nijkamp, H. Leitner & N. Wrigley (Eds.), *measuring the unmeasurable*: 221-252. Martinus Nijhoff: Dordrecht.

Wong, L. (2004). Developing adaptive leaders: The crucible experience of operation Iraqi freedom (U.S. Army War College Rep. ISBN 1-58487-167-9). Carlisle, PA: U.S. ArmyWar College. (DTIC No. ADA424850).

Wong, C. S., & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. Leadership Quarterly, 13(3), 243-274.

Wright, P. M., Gardner, T. M., Moynihan, L. M., & Allen, M. R. (2005). The Relationship between HR Practices and Firm Performance: Examining Causal Order. *Personnel Psychology, 58*(2), 409-446.

Wright, P. M., McCormick, B., Sherman, W.S. & McMahan, G. C. (1999). The role of human resource practices in petro-chemical refinery performance. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 10*(4), 551-571.

Wright, P., & Gardner, T. (2003). Theoretical and empirical challenges in studying the HR practice – firm performance relationship. In D. Holman, T.D. Wall, C. Clegg, P. Sparrow, and A. Howard (Eds.), The New Workplace: People Technology, and Organisation, Sussex, UK: John Wiley and Sons.

Xiaofei X., & Du-Babcock, B. (2012). Impact of English-language Proficiency on Chinese Expatriates' Adjustment to Overseas Assignments. *Global Advances in Business Communication, 1*(1), 1-20.

Xu, Q. (2008). Managing the Adjustment of EFL. Teachers in English Language Schools in China. (Masters Theses), Dublin Business School, China.

Yin, R. K. (1994). Case Study Research (2 ed.). Thousands Oaks: Sage Publications.

Zaccaro, S. J. (2001a). Leader Adaptability course syllabus prepared for the U.S. Army War College.

Zaccaro, S. J., Weiss, E. J., Hilton, R. M., & Jeffries, J. (2011). Building resilient teams. In P. J. Sweeney, M.D. Matthews, & P. B. Lester (Eds), Leadership in dangerous contexts: A handbook for the armed forces, emergency services, and first responders (pp. 182-201).

Zaccaro, S.J; & Banks, D. (2004). Leader visioning and adaptability: bridging the gap between research and practice on developing the ability to manage change. *Human resource management, 43*(4), 367-380.

Zhou X., & Qin J. (2009). A Study on Cross-Cultural Adjustment of Japanese and American Expatriates in China. *Journal of Business and Management, 4*(12), 197-206.