CONTRIBUTION OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE TO QUALITY OF WORKING RELATIONSHIP AND JOB BURNOUT: THE CASE OF THAI CABIN CREW MEMBERS BELONGING TO A NATIONAL MINORITY GROUP

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ABSTRACT

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Author	Phenphimol Seriwatana
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Nowadays, the leading national airlines of many countries have expanded their international routes worldwide. Although these airlines generally recruit their workforce from their home country to work on the cabin crew team, their international expansion requires them to have foreign crew members from the countries where they have expanded their flight routes. However, despite the benefits of having foreign crew members on the team, many national airlines tend to have a policy of hiring a small proportion of foreign crew members, thereby making these foreign crew members a cultural minority group on the team. The perception of belonging to the cultural minority group in the team could negatively affect team relationships, thereby resulting in lower group commitment, lower task contribution, less frequent communication, and a higher perception of discrimination. This problem is detrimental to the airline company because it can be counterproductive to the overall performance of the crew team. Therefore, it is crucial to investigate some of the personal characteristics of cabin crew members from cultural minority groups that can promote their work relationships with other team members from the cultural majority group. This research focuses on the role of the cultural intelligence (CQ). The objective of this study is to explore the effect of CQ on the quality of team relationships and burnout of Thai cabin crew members who are the cultural minority group in non-Thai airlines. In addition, this study focuses on the mediating roles of the team process to explain the negative relationship between CQ and job burnout. Data were obtained by a questionnaire survey of 320 Thai cabin crew members working for 7 international airlines. Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) was used as a tool to analyze the data. The results provide the evidence that CQ is associated with the relationship conflict, trust, and

knowledge sharing. The results indicated that minority cabin crew members with high CQ tended to experience lower relationship conflict, demonstrate high level of trust, and engage more in knowledge sharing with their team members from foreign cultures than those who have low CQ. Lower relationship conflict and higher trust also reduced burnout that Thai cabin crew members experienced. The results also showed that CQ has direct effect on lower burnout. The results from this study provided extra evidence about the important of CQ in the area of working relationships among cabin crew cross-cultural team, particularly the team members who belong to a cultural minority group. As CQ was found to be one of the qualities of individuals from a cultural minority group that helped them to develop positive perceptions when working with colleagues belonging to a cultural majority group, CQ should be considered as one of the major qualifications of candidates that airline companies may consider when recruiting cabin crew members from other countries. Moreover, the airline companies should provide CQ as a mandatory training to both of their local and foreign cabin crew members.

Keywords: Cabin Crew, Cross-Cultural Team, Cultural Intelligence, Relationship Conflict, Trust, Knowledge-sharing, Job Burnou
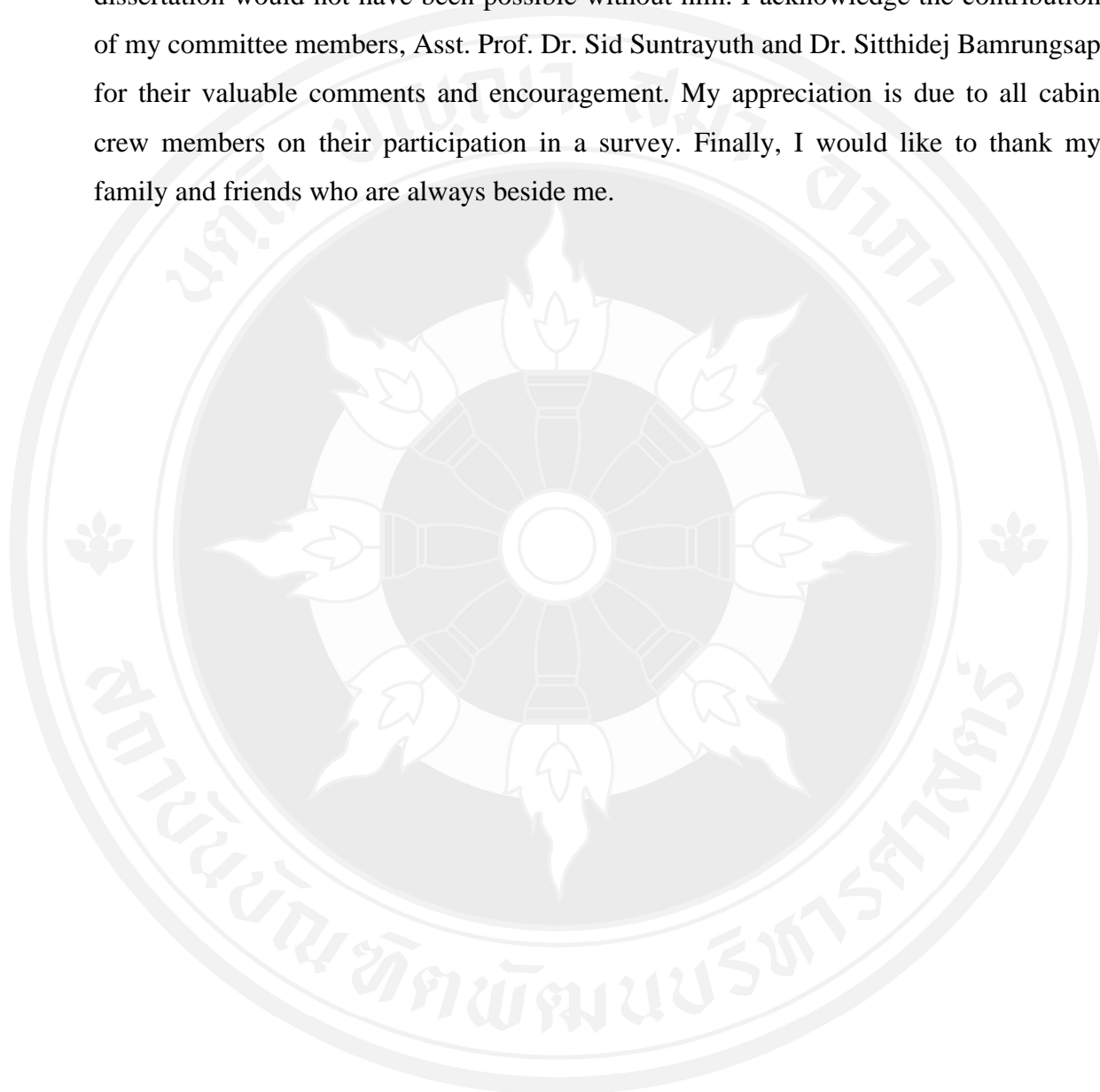
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The airline industry is large and continuously growing. According to the Air Transport Action Group (2018), this industry supported 65.5 million jobs globally and directly creates 10.25 million jobs worldwide in 2016. In addition, the airline industry helps to facilitate world economic growth, for example in terms of international trade, international investment, and tourism. Therefore, the airline industry is the central to globalization taking place in many other industries (Hartono, 2011). International passengers' demands are growing continuously (Air Transport Action Group, 2018). However, the competition in this industry is very intense. Hence, each airline has to work hard in order to gain and retain passengers as much as possible. The previous study showed that quality of cabin service has more influence on the passengers' choice of airlines than other factors such as ticket price and airline's reputation (Y. Kim & Park, 2014) and cabin crew members seem to be the key to cabin service.

The Federal Aviation Administration (2008) states that the cabin crew is compulsory on board commercial flights according to the aviation law. Compared to other front-line employees, cabin crew members tend to have more responsibilities (C.-F. Chen & Chen, 2012). They are trained to prepare for the uncertainties on board and recover the situations that arise (S. I. Ng, Sambasivan, & Zubaidah, 2011). Their main responsibilities are ensuring cabin safety and providing customer services on board (C.-F. Chen & Chen, 2012). Their duties involve the roles of waiter(tress), housekeeper, nanny, first aid provider, firefighter, and security guard. In some cases, they also have to handle explosive devices as well as to manage disruptive and violent passengers (Holcomb et al., 2009; Kelleher & McGilloway, 2005). Their passengers are different, for example, in personalities, religion, tradition, and other characteristics

which cause their jobs to be very demanding (Mengenci, 2014; Suthatorn & Charoensukmongkol, 2018). Apart from serving diverse passengers during flight, crew members have to deal with other job demands such as long working hours, night shifts, pressurized and polluted working spaces (C.-F. Chen & Chen, 2012). In addition, their tight shift-work schedule which is often revised that could lead to work-family conflicts because they are unable to attend to their family and social lives. (C.-F. Chen & Chen, 2012). Moreover, crew members are suffering from sleep deprivation, jet lag, and fatigue due to the nature of their jobs (Preston, 1974).

Nowadays, airlines try to expand their flights worldwide. Their passengers are coming from countries all over the world, therefore many airlines have hired foreign cabin crew members in order to improve service quality for their international passengers (Japantimes, 2017; Singaporeair, 2018). Nonetheless, foreign cabin crew members are normally under different contracts, rules, regulations, and laws from local cabin crew members (Byford & Wong, 2016); therefore, they are not entitled to the same benefits as local cabin crew members. Their jobs are also less secure because they will be the first group whom the airline chooses to revise or end the job contract in response to cost management. In addition, they are not welcomed by local cabin crew members because local cabin crew members tend to think that they are taking local people' jobs (Byford & Wong, 2016).

Foreign cabin crew members are the minority group in team in some airlines. Arzubiaga, Artiles, King, and Harris-Murri (2008) stated that the minority group is not represented by the number of members. It is a group which has a lower status in an ethnically diverse society and retained own group identity. Its members tend to encounter prejudgment, discrimination and detachment. While these members have enhanced his/her own social status, their group still has a lower status and no influence on the majority group's values (Arzubiaga et al., 2008; Rupert, Jehn, van Engen, & de Reuver, 2010). Research showed that their feelings of being part of a minority could enhance conflict and negative behaviors against the members of majority group as they feel that their cultural identity is threatened (Shupe, 2007). In addition, Hobman, Bordia, and Gallois (2003) pointed out that members in majority and minority groups are less attractive to one another. Therefore, local cabin crew

members (majority) tend to ignore what foreign cabin crew members (minority) have contributed to the team. In the meantime, foreign cabin crew members are likely to keep their minds away from team membership. Furthermore, the minority status in team could lead to lower group commitment, lower task contribution, less frequent communication, and higher perception of discrimination (Hobman et al., 2003). Moreover, the cultural differences between cabin crew members could be the barriers to interaction (Sousa & Bradley, 2006), because it is difficult to predict behaviors of people who have different values. (Hobman et al., 2003). Cabin crew members tend to think that team members from different cultures are untrustworthy and uncooperative; therefore they do not want to interact with them (Shupe, 2007). Less connection between them could lead to less knowledge sharing (McGrane, 2016). Hobman et al. (2003) added that cabin crew members from different cultures are often kept away from networks and important information. When knowledge is not shared between cabin crew members, their mutual trust, collaboration and relations are weak (Alsharo, Gregg, & Ramirez, 2017; Pinjani & Palvia, 2013). Furthermore, the cultural differences among them entail ambiguity and uncertainty due to unfamiliar signals which could easily lead to misunderstanding (Eriksson, Majkgård, & Sharma, 2000; Lincoln, Hanada, & Olson, 1981; Pudelko & Tenzer, 2011). The misunderstanding between crew members may trigger relationship conflict (Shupe, 2007). Conflict could lead to the chronic feelings of dissatisfaction and enemy (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). When relationship conflict takes place between cabin crew members, they tend to have more interpersonal problems and exhibit negative reactions (Jehn, 1995). Misunderstanding also weakens trust (Spreitzer, Shapiro, & Von Glinow, 2002). Distrust decreases interaction as well as diminishes the relationship and collaboration among crew members (Cheng, Yeh, & Tu, 2008; Ford, Piccolo, & Ford, 2017; Qualter, Quinton, Wagner, & Brown, 2009).

All of these working relationship problems that crew members face can potentially make them experience job burnout as a result (Alsharo et al., 2017; Bhanugopan & Fish, 2006; Ford et al., 2017; Jehn, 1995; Maslach, 2003). Job burnout is a negative psychological state of reaction to a prolonged job stress (Maslach et al., 2001). It appears when there is/are incompatible relationship(s) between individuals' role expectations and their work settings for a period of time (Bhanugopan & Fish, 2006;

Maslach, 2003). There are three determinants of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and loss of self-accomplishment (Bhanugopan & Fish, 2006; Maslach, 2003; Maslach et al., 2001). Job burnout is costly because it does not only cause detrimental impacts on cabin crew members, but also impacts the airlines (C.-F. Chen & Kao, 2012a). It negatively affects cabin crew members' health both physically and psychologically (C.-F. Chen & Chen, 2012; C.-F. Chen & Kao, 2012a). It also affects the airlines as burned-out cabin crew members tend to exhibit negative working behaviors such as low work ability (Milošević et al., 2018), job dissatisfaction (Mengenci, 2014; S. I. Ng et al., 2011), and low job performance (C.-F. Chen & Kao, 2012a). According to Rosskam et al. (2009), cabin crew members with high level of job burnout exhibit low performance on safety- and security-related duties, low ability to interact with other crew members, low quality service, and absenteeism.

Due to the problems which have been mentioned earlier, it is important for cabin crew members to have some competency to deal with cultural issues that lead to these problems. This research focuses on cultural intelligence (CQ) which is a cross-cultural competency that makes individuals effective across cultural settings (Soon Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2008; K.-Y. Ng & Earley, 2006). Previous researches have shown that CQ is a skill which helps individuals to perform effectively across cultures in many contexts. For instance, it was found to help individuals engage better in psychological and sociocultural adaptation when moving to foreign countries (L.-Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Presbitero, 2016b). CQ was found as a characteristic of individuals who exhibited cross-border leadership effectiveness (Anvari, Irum, Ashfaq, & Atiyaye, 2014; Deng & Gibson, 2008; Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; K. Keung & J. Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne, & Annen, 2011). CQ also was found to help people deal effectively with stress when they are exposed to unfamiliar cultural environment (Bolat, Seymen, Bolat, & Yuksel, 2017; Ramsey, Nassif Leonel, Zoccal Gomes, & Rafael Reis Monteiro, 2011; Tay, Westman, & Chia, 2008). CQ also allows entrepreneurs to develop good relationships with foreign business partners and to implement better international strategies (Charoensukmongkol, 2015). For individuals who work in the service industry, CQ was found to help them provide better service to foreign customers (Fakhreidin, 2011; Presbitero, 2016a; Suthatorn &

Charoensukmongkol, 2018). In addition, CQ was shown to promote the working relationships within cross-cultural teams (M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013; Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008; Scholz, 2012). According to these findings, CQ could be a cross-cultural competency that allows cabin crew members to enhance relationship building with foreign colleagues when they work in a foreign airline as a cultural minority group, thereby lowering their propensity to experience burnout.

1.2 Research Gap

Although CQ has been extensively studied in many areas, the contribution of CQ in the area of cross-cultural team of cabin crew has not been explored. This research investigates the contribution of CQ to the quality of working relationships that Thai cabin crew members have with other team members from different cultures in an international airline. Particularly, this research focuses on Thai cabin crew members belonging to a cultural minority group in the airline. In addition, this study focuses on the mediating roles of team process to explain the negative relationship between CQ and burnout that have not been investigated in previous CQ research.

1.3 Research Objectives

The objective of this study is to examine the relationship between the level of CQ possessed by Thai cabin crew members who work at a foreign airline and the quality of working relationship that they develop with other cabin crew members who belong to a majority cultural group. This study will examine whether cabin crew members with high CQ tend to exhibit favorable working relationships, higher trust and more knowledge sharing with their team members from different cultures. This research also examines the association between these three aspects of work relationships and the level of job burnout that cabin crew members exhibit.

In this study, two theories which are social identity theory (SIT) and social categorization theory (SCT), will be used for hypothesis development. These two theories have been used to understand the psychological basis of group processes and intergroup relations (Hornsey, 2008). They explain that an individual tends to maintain a positive identity by categorizing social groups into subgroups and identifying himself/herself to a certain group which matches his/her identity. Then, the individual enhances his/her group status by comparing between groups, which creates a favorable attitude toward in-groups and a negative view against out-groups (Y. Chen & Li, 2009). With an assumption on both SIT and SCT, cabin crew members try to maintain and enhance positive self-identity through their cultural identities by favoring the in-group members (Brown, 2000). Hence, they are more likely to weaken the working relationship with their team members from different cultures. Because research found that CQ could be a cross-cultural competency which helps individuals overcome perceptions about cultural barriers (Moon, 2013; Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008), then CQ might help to prevent a cabin crew member from experiencing relationship problem when working in a team with other crew members from another culture.

1.4 Research Contributions

1.4.1 Academic contribution

This research contributes to the academic field of CQ research. Although CQ role has been studied in cross-cultural teams, the study in the area of cabin crew cross-cultural teams is still lacking. This research will fill this research gap by studying the contribution of CQ to working relationships of cabin crew members who belong to cultural minority group in foreign airlines. This is a context that has never been investigated before.

1.4.2 Practical contribution

This research will also provide managerial contributions to international airlines that employ cross-cultural cabin crew teams. Cabin crew performance on board is a major factor in airline success, as previous study showed that quality of cabin service has stronger influence on the passengers' choice of airlines than other factors such as airfare and the airline's reputation (Y. Kim & Park, 2014). Given that relationship problem among team members from different cultures tends to be common in cross-cultural team (A. M. Pines & Zaidman, 2014), this situation can create challenges for cabin crew members to work together effectively to achieve the business objectives of the airline. From the management perspective, the finding of this research will provide valuable information regarding the cross-cultural training which airlines should provide to cabin crew members in order to help them be more effective in cross-cultural teams. Moreover, it will provide guidance to the airlines regarding the cultural competence needed when recruiting cabin crew members to work in cross-cultural teams.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   National Cultures

Hofstede (1993, p. 89) defined national culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes one group or category of people from another". National culture was defined by House, Javidan, Hanges, and Dorfman (2002, p. 5) as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of member of collectives and are transmitted across age generation". According to Eisingerich and Rubera (2010, p. 66), national culture refers to "the homogeneity of characteristics that distinguish human groups in term of norms, values, and institutions". Culture reflects beliefs, morals, habits, knowledges, arts, customs, laws, and habits that are shared among a group of people which people use to interpret experience and to generate common or standardized social behavior in society (Lam, Lee, & Mizerski, 2009; Lin, 2009; Nakata & Sivakumar, 1996; Stahl, Mäkelä, Zander, & Maznevski, 2010). Culture values guide a group's beliefs on how things should be (Doney, Cannon, & Mullen, 1998). Consequently, they serve as guidelines that decide if given behaviors are reasonable and should be followed by group members (Doney et al., 1998). Culture strongly affects how people think, behave, communicate, and interpret their surroundings; hence, it is a significant source of diversity (Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt, & Jonsen, 2010). Culture is a major source of separation and stereotypes (Worchel, 2005); therefore the effects of cultural diversity could be stronger than other sources of diversity such as age, gender, and function (Stahl, Maznevski, et al., 2010).

2.2   Role of Culture Difference in Cross-Cultural Team

A cross cultural team is a group of people whose members are from different cultural background but share a common goal (Stahl, Mäkelä, et al., 2010; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001; Zaidman & Malach-Pines, 2014). Nowadays, cross cultural teams become more common in many organizations (Behfar, Kern, & Brett, 2006; P. C. Earley & Gardner, 2005; Voss, Albert, & Ferring, 2014). When companies expand globally, they tend to employ more multicultural teams in order to gain global efficiency and creativities (Von Glinow, Shapiro, & Brett, 2004). Over the past decades, culturally diverse teams have been studied in many researches (Adair, Hideg, & Spence, 2013; Dekker, Rutte, & Van den Berg, 2008; Ghosh, 2013; Humes & Reilly, 2008; Popov et al., 2012; Simkhovych, 2009). Some have supported that culturally diverse teams are superior to homogeneous cultural teams in terms of team effectiveness, group satisfaction and perceived group performance (Stahl, Maznevski, et al., 2010; Vodosek, 2007). For example, Shachaf (2008) found that cultural diversity enhances better team decision-making. She indicated that team members' various sources of viewpoints, knowledge and skills empower a team to cope with complicated jobs. Result from the study of Watson, Johnson, and Zgourides (2002) showed that culturally diverse teams have higher performance on team project tasks than culturally non-diverse teams. They pointed out that team members' different views of problem solving benefit team performance. In contrast, others have found that culturally diverse teams have lower performance than homogeneous cultural teams due to lower cohesiveness, more competitiveness, higher attitudinal and perceptual problems, more stress, more conflict and worse team atmosphere (Matsumoto & Hwang, 2011; Shupe, 2007; Staples & Zhao, 2006; Voss et al., 2014). For example, Voss et al. (2014) found that the more the differences among team members' culture values, the more conflicts they perceived, which in turn led to a worse team atmosphere being perceived. Vodosek (2007) reported that there was a positive relationship between cultural diversity and conflicts; which finally led to an exhibited lower satisfaction with groups and lower perceived group performance.

2.3   Conflict in Cross-Cultural Team

Generally, research has shown that conflict in work groups is common (Amason, Thompson, Hochwarter, & Harrison, 1995) and likely to appear more in culturally heterogeneous teams than culturally homogeneous teams (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999; Von Glinow et al., 2004). Conflict refers to disagreements and resistances among parties due to different values, expectations, opinions, perceptions, desires, processes, goals, aims, and outcomes (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; J. Oetzel et al., 2001; J. G. Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003). Cross-cultural conflict is defined as the perception of incompatible values, expectations, opinions, perceptions, desires, processes, goal, or outcomes between individuals or social groups which are categorized by cultural boundaries over substantive and/or relational issues (Avruch, 2009; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001).

Conflict in teams can be categorized into two major dimensions which are cognitive conflict and affective conflict (Amason et al., 1995; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn, 1994; Kankanhalli, Tan, & Wei, 2006; R. S. Lau & Cobb, 2010; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999; Simons & Peterson, 2000). Cognitive conflict is an awareness of disagreement among group members about the work which can be divided into two types: task conflict and process conflict (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001). First, task conflict is about the different viewpoints, ideas and opinions about the task (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Nibler & Harris, 2003; Pearson, Ensley, & Amason, 2002; Vodosek, 2007). On the other hand, process conflict is about the differences in how the job should be done (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Vodosek, 2007).

Affective conflict (or relationship conflict) is an awareness of incompatibility among group members (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). It is a conflict caused by differences in interpersonal issues such as personality, values, norms, and attitudes and/or interpersonal feelings such as irritation, frustration, dislike, and anger (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; Jehn, 1994, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; R. S. Lau & Cobb, 2010; Nibler & Harris, 2003; Pearson et al., 2002; Vodosek, 2007). Scholars found that the

more interaction among group members, the more the relationship conflict; therefore the jobs which have a nature of interdependence tend to be associated with relationship conflict (Jehn, 1995; Kankanhalli et al., 2006). Von Glinow et al. (2004) stated that relationship conflict is unavoidable in cross cultural teams because team members are from different cultures which lead to different practices and different interpretations of their surroundings.

Relationship conflict is always seen as dangerous to group outcomes (Vodosek, 2007). This is because it reduces mutual understanding and creates interpersonal problems among group members which promote negative reactions such as suffering, annoyances, nervousness, fear, and feelings of not being accepted (Jehn, 1995; Kankanhalli et al., 2006; Vodosek, 2007). Relationship conflict entails group members showing less satisfaction with the group (Jehn, 1994) and lower levels of trust (Vodosek, 2007). Consequently, group members want to have less participation in group activities (Amason et al., 1995). Jehn (1994) added that group members might pay more time and attention solving interpersonal problems rather than effectively dealing with the job. Anyhow, these effects of relationship conflict can harm both group function and group effectiveness. (Amason et al., 1995; Jehn, 1994). Jehn (1994) indicated that relationship conflict may occur with no relation to task issues (for example, when group members are debating about dress or food). However, it can potentially affect task issues. For example, it can make individuals act against other group members with whom they have interpersonal problems (Jehn, 1994). It can also cause the helpful ideas to be suspended or denied because those ideas are from group members with whom they have a relationship conflict (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003).

Relationship conflict affects work life on both individual and group levels. Several studies have investigated the effects of relationship conflict and revealed that it has a negative relationship with intentions to remain in the group (Jehn, 1995), liking of other group members (Jehn, 1995), affective acceptance among team members (Amason, 1996; Pearson et al., 2002), individual satisfaction with the group (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn, 1994, 1995; Vodosek, 2007), perceived group performance (Vodosek, 2007), perceived team effectiveness (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010), perceived

group decision quality (Amason, 1996; Pearson et al., 2002), team commitment to group decisions (Pearson et al., 2002), and actual team performance (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn, 1994; Kankanhalli et al., 2006; Nibler & Harris, 2003). However, Mohammed and Angell (2004) have found that relationship conflict may not affect job performance as much if individuals can avoid interactions with any group members with whom they feel uncomfortable.

2.4   Social Identity Theory and Social Categorization Theory

Two theories: (1) social identity theory (SIT) and (2) social categorization theory (SCT) can be used to explain conflict in cross cultural team. They have been considered as main theories that are broadly applied in psychology research to understand the psychological basis of group processes and intergroup relations (Hornsey, 2008). Over the past decades, they have been widely applied in multiple areas of research such as economics (Y. Chen & Li, 2009), mergers & acquisitions (Giessner, Ullrich, & van Dick, 2012), leadership (Hogg, 2001), international management (Dessler, 2013), intercultural relations (Shupe, 2007; Ting-Toomey et al., 2000; Worchel, 2005). SIT and SCT emerge from the same principles and share almost the same assumptions and methods.

SIT was first introduced by Tajfel and Turner (1979) in 1979. SIT proposes that individuals tend to maintain a positive identity by grouping others into different social categories, then, placing himself/herself into certain category(ies) which is(are) corresponding to his/her self-identity (Brown, 2000; Y. Chen & Li, 2009). To enhance self-esteem, people develop positive views on their own category (in-group favoritism) and less favorable views on other categories (out-group discrimination) (Worchel, 2005). SIT was drawn up by an experiment of "minimal group studies" in early 1970s. Participants, who did not know each other before, had been randomly divided into groups. They were requested to allocate points to their own group members (in-group) and other groups' members (out-group). Participants did not gain or lose anything from their point allocation. The result was "in-group favoritism";

participants tend to allocate more points to unknown in-group members than unknown out-group members (Y. Chen & Li, 2009; Hornsey, 2008). Hence, the finding revealed that simply putting people into groups was able to generate intergroup discrimination (Reicher, Spears, & Haslam, 2010).

In order to elaborate both theories, Turner and his colleagues reviewed the categorization process that was considered underlying to SIT, consequently, developed SCT in 1987 (Hornsey, 2008). SCT shows how an individual identifies himself/herself with a group (from 'I' to 'We'). Individuals divide a social group into various subgroups according to his/her criteria, then, places himself/herself into a group corresponding to his/her self-identity (Hogg, 2001). Mohammed and Angell (2004) pointed out that when individuals feel dissimilarity, they are likely to start categorizing and tend to consider own group members more positively. Various criteria are used to categorize, however research on people's perception has shown that the two most common influences are ethnic and gender. Therefore, the difference of ethnics in a workgroup could lead to the feeling of conflict (Mohammed & Angell, 2004).

In conclusion, according to Y. Chen and Li (2009), SIT involves three major mental processes. The first process is social categorization - the process in which an individual determines categories, then, allocating people into each category. The second process is social identification - the process in which an individual identifies himself/herself with a certain category (from 'I' to 'We'); the category he/she belongs is "in-group" while the others are "out-groups". The third process is social comparison - the process which an individual enhances the status of his/her group by comparing between in-group and out-group ('We' versus 'They'); creating a favor toward in-group (in-group favoritism) and/or holding negative view against the out-groups (out-group discrimination) (Y. Chen & Li, 2009). In addition, Brown (2000, p. 747) suggested that there are three classes of variables that might influence intergroup differentiation; "people must be subjectively identified with their in-group; the situation should permit evaluative intergroup comparisons; the out-group must be sufficiently comparable (e.g. similar or proximal) and that pressures for distinctiveness should increase with comparability". Hence, SIT is concerned with

individual trying to maintain and enhance positive self-identity through selected social identity by in-group favorable comparisons (Brown, 2000). In case of dissatisfaction with the selected social category, individuals may find ways to obtain a more positive distinctiveness of it (e.g. making downward intergroup comparisons, focusing only in-group's strength dimensions, diminishing in-group's weakness dimensions) or leave his/her group (Brown, 2000; Hornsey, 2008).

The group identity not only shows what a group member should be, but also determines what types of attitudes, emotions and behaviors are proper in a given context (Hornsey, 2008). Worchel (2005) pointed out that culture binds people together by shaping the way people live their life and, at the same time, divides people into groups which entails conflict. Drawing group lines by culture is the stage for intergroup conflict because individuals perceive all people in cultural out-groups as homogeneous; they are all the same—such as stupid, aggressive, and dangerous (Worchel, 2005).

Culture divides people into an in-group and out-group on the basis of whether or not they share a common culture (Worchel, 2005). Contributing from the SIT, this division creates the necessary key for intergroup (intercultural) conflict (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010). Once group identity is dominant, people tend to interact differently between in-group and out-group members; individual will put at advantage their own group (in-group favoritism) and place disadvantages against other groups (out-group discrimination) (Shupe, 2007). People are likely to think that out-group members are less trustworthy and cooperative than in-group members (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010), and consequently show less connection (Shupe, 2007). Hence, a team with cultural diversity will trigger interpersonal friction and relationship conflict (Shupe, 2007; Worchel, 2005). In addition, Shupe (2007) stated that dissimilarities between groups are likely more outstanding when interactions happened among group members with large culture distances. Once the number of own group members are much less than other, individuals tend to feel that their culture identity is threatened and this perception stimulates intercultural conflict (Shupe, 2007).

National diversity becomes a major source of conflict in groups around the world because people increasingly connect across nations (Worchel, 2005). Curşeu and Schruijer (2010) stated that it's difficult for multinational group members to overlook the differences among them, resulting in interpersonal resistance and relationship conflict. Y. Y. Kim and Bhawuk (2008) suggested that the more ethnic diversity there is, the more intercultural conflict. Individuals prefer to interact with people similar to them (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; Mohammed & Angell, 2004). Dissimilarities weaken mutual understanding, resulting in ambiguity and uncertainty (Pudelko & Tenzer, 2011). In research, a term that is normally used to represent cultural diversity is cultural distance. Cultural distance is defined as "the degree to which cultural values in one country are different from those in another country" (Sousa & Bradley, 2006, p. 52). Cultural distance among group members could become a barrier of interaction between them, which influences work group process and outcomes (Sousa & Bradley, 2006; Thomas, 1999). C. P. Earley and Mosakowski (2000) present that the cultural distances among countries influence the individual's perception. A great cultural distance comes with more unfamiliar incoming signals, which make it more difficult to understand. (Eriksson et al., 2000). Thus, larger cultural distance could easily lead to misunderstandings (Lincoln et al., 1981). Pandey and Charoensukmongkol (2019) also pointed out that the larger the cultural distance, the more the difficulties in predicting each other. According to Sousa and Bradley (2006), the larger the cultural distance, the less the knowledge of other cultures is available which leads to more difficulty in understanding and learning each other. Therefore, the higher the degree of cultural distance, the higher the occurrence of cross cultural conflict (Shupe, 2007).

Given that national diversity is a source of conflict, it can potentially be harmful to productivity and effectiveness of cross-cultural team (Shupe, 2007; Vodosek, 2007). Because of this, some cross-cultural competence that allows individuals to overcome this perceived barrier that lead to this problem is important. This research focuses on CQ as a cross-cultural competence that can alleviate this problem. The detail of CQ including its characteristics and contribution will be explained in the next section.

2.5   Cultural Intelligence

Cultural intelligence (CQ) was developed by Christopher Earley, on the basis of Stenberg's framework of multiple intelligences (P. C. Earley & Ang, 2003). CQ is proposed as multidimensional skills for individuals in intercultural contexts (Soon Ang et al., 2007; Soon Ang et al., 2008). It explains why some individuals are more effective in dealing with, adjusting to, and functioning in cultural diversity contexts than others (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Soon Ang et al., 2007; Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). K.-Y. Ng and Earley (2006, p. 4) defined CQ as "the capability to be effective across cultural settings". This definition is consistent with Soon Ang, Van Dyne, and Rockstuhl (2015, p. 282); who defined CQ as "malleable capabilities that determine what a person can do to be effective in intercultural environments". Similarly to other intelligences, CQ is a set of capabilities, but it is different in some ways (Soon Ang et al., 2007; Soon Ang et al., 2015). Other intelligence frameworks are emic and cultural specific hence they function well only in certain cultural contexts (K.-Y. Ng & Earley, 2006). However, CQ is etic and cultural free thus their capabilities are borderless (Soon Ang et al., 2007).

CQ involves an individual's self-concept and the level of adaptability (P. C. Earley & Ang, 2003). Individuals with high CQ have not only "a well-differentiated concept of self but also a high degree of adaptability" (P. C. Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 73). They tend to adapt faster and are interacting more efficiently with people from different cultures (Soon Ang et al., 2007; K.-Y. Ng & Earley, 2006; Thomas, 2006). They know which practices are smart and appropriate for each culture (K.-Y. Ng & Earley, 2006) and are able to interpret unfamiliar behaviors as if they belong to that culture (P. C. Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). They will not judge others until gathering all related information (K.-Y. Ng & Earley, 2006). Şahin and Gürbüz (2014, p. 399) indicates that "Individuals with high CQ know when and how to apply their cultural knowledge, direct their attention and energy toward learning about appropriate responses and functioning, and exhibit situationally appropriate verbal and nonverbal behaviors" which lead to effective performance in culturally diverse settings.

Therefore, enriching CQ could lead to increasing adaptive performance in multinational assignments (Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014).

K.-Y. Ng and Earley (2006) stated that CQ is a capability that can be developed. A. S.-y. Chen (2015) reported that people can develop CQ by effective intercultural training. His empirical research found that the more the effective intercultural training, the higher the CQ of foreign laborers; which in turn enhances work adjustment. Thomas (2006) pointed out that another way to develop CQ is by social learning. Social learning allows people to gain knowledge and skills from their experience. The learning process starts from being aware of the situation, acquiring knowledge from situations, adapting gaining knowledge to social interactions, and ends with accepting and implementing comments (Thomas, 2006). In order to achieve this development, individuals will not only have to pay attention to other cultures but will also admire the differences between their own and other cultures (K.-Y. Ng & Earley, 2006).

CQ has been extensively studied by many scholars for the last decade, and its components have been proposed differently. P. C. Earley and Ang (2003) proposed that CQ consists of cognitive, metacognitive, motivational, and behavioral elements. P. C. Earley and Mosakowski (2004) presented three components of CQ: the cognitive, the physical, and the emotional/motivational. Thomas (2006) divided CQ into three facets: knowledge, mindfulness, and behavior. Thomas et al. (2008) indicated three elements of CQ: cultural knowledge, cross-cultural skills, and cultural metacognition. Four multidimensional aspects of CQ proposed by P. C. Earley and Ang (2003) are applied in this study because they cover all loci of intelligence framework. Their characteristics are discussed below.

2.5.1 Cognitive CQ

Cognitive CQ reflects knowledge framework of foreign cultural attributes gained from education and experiences (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Soon Ang et al., 2007; P. C. Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). The knowledge includes norms, conventions, practices, prohibitions, political, and economic systems which are used in describing each culture's characteristics (Soon Ang et al., 2007;

Hansen, Singh, Weilbaker, & Guesalaga, 2011). Van Dyne et al. (2012) proposed that there are two kinds of cultural knowledge: (1) culture-general knowledge and (2) context-specific knowledge. First, cultural-general knowledge is understanding the differences of general characteristics among cultures which explain the differences of people's behaviors around the world. It includes the knowledge of both objective culture and subjective culture. Objective culture includes the characteristics of that culture which can be easily noticed; for example, economic system and communication style. Subjective culture is the characteristics of that culture which cannot be easily noticed; for example, shared norms and beliefs in each society. The second aspect of cultural knowledge - context-specific knowledge – is understanding the cultural values on a specific area, such as working style and life style in that country, as well as how to deal with it effectively. This knowledge framework is a cultural blueprint which guides people to understand in a better way the inner part and behavior of people in other cultures (Thomas, 2006).

Given that cultural values shape people's behavior, people from different cultures tend to have different interaction patterns (Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). Therefore, having knowledge about culture is important because it helps individuals to form an understanding and interpretation of the behaviors from other cultures (Thomas, 2006). Individuals with high cognitive CQ have certain knowledge that allows them to realize and understand the similarities as well as differences among cultures (Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). They admire each culture's values and its mechanism which form behavior patterns (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; K.-Y. Ng & Earley, 2006; Thomas, 2006). These complex and rich cultural knowledges help people to predict more accurately, interact more effectively and alleviate misunderstandings with people from different cultures. (Soon Ang et al., 2007; P. C. Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Hansen et al., 2011; Thomas, 2006).

2.5.2 **Metacognitive CQ**

Metacognitive CQ is the ability of individuals to develop and implement the strategies of their cultural cognition in interactions across cultures. (Van Dyne et al., 2012). This facet of CQ is based on higher-order cognitive processes which allow individuals to

have cultural consciousness in socializing with people from different cultures (K.-Y. Ng, Van Dyne, Ang, & Ryan, 2012; Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). Van Dyne et al. (2012) proposed that metacognitive CQ concerns three mental processes. First, planning before interaction; individual thinks in advance on what 'I' and 'they' (other people from different cultures) will do, as well as predict how the effects of the interaction will be. Secondly, observing during interaction; individual is being aware of what I am and they are doing at that moment, as well as how the actual effects of the interaction are. Finally, adjusting during and after interactions; the individual is assessing the differences between anticipated situations (planning) and the present situation (observing) during interactions. If needed, individual modifies his/her strategy during and after interaction.

Individuals with high metacognitive CQ understand the process and method needed to enhance their cultural understanding at the appropriate level (Hansen et al., 2011). They realize each culture's preferences before and during interactions, then adjust their mental models during and after interactions (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Hansen et al., 2011; K.-Y. Ng et al., 2012). Metacognitive CQ encourages individuals to be flexible in intercultural interactions by tuning their self-concept to the new cultural settings; therefore it allows people to understand new cultural settings (P. C. Earley & Gardner, 2005). This facet of CQ links knowledge and appropriate behavior; showing that individuals are able to apply their knowledge effectively to cross cultural interactions (Hansen et al., 2011; Thomas, 2006). It helps people to carefully control their unconscious behaviors and reduce the stereotyping perception of others (Thomas, 2006). Individuals with low metacognitive CQ are not able to detect the signals during the course of socializing with people from other cultures. Therefore, they might be misled and eventually develop improper cognitive strategies in intercultural interaction (P. C. Earley, 2002).

2.5.3 **Motivational CQ**

Motivational CQ is the ability of people to generate drive as well as stimulating effort and energy to learn about and perform in new or unknown cultural settings (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Soon Ang et al., 2007; Hansen et al., 2011; Moon, 2013; Şahin &

Gürbüz, 2014) based on intrinsic interest, extrinsic interest and self-efficacy (Van Dyne et al., 2012). Motivation drives an individual's heart (affection), brain (cognition) and body (behavior) to achieve the target (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). The degree of motivation is influenced by individual's expectations of success as well as values on success (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). Self-confidence is one of major keys to achieve in intercultural interactions, and it could be found in people with high levels of self-efficacy (Hansen et al., 2011). Motivational CQ is characterized by individuals with high self-efficacy on socializing in unfamiliar manners (P. C. Earley, 2002). P. C. Earley (2002) argued that this psychological functioning is crucial for successful intercultural adaptation as having only cultural knowledge is not good enough; individuals should also have motivation to apply that knowledge.

Individuals with high motivational CQ value unfamiliar cultural settings and enjoy socializing with people from different cultures (Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). They are confident on their effectiveness in cross cultural context (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Soon Ang et al., 2007). They will not give up when encountering uncertainties, difficulties or failures in new cultural contexts; instead, they move on with more strength (P. C. Earley, 2002; P. C. Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). Motivational CQ helps people to urge their drives and dedicate their efforts to perform effectively across cultures (Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). Peng, Van Dyne, and Oh (2015) presented that motivational CQ help people with strong cultural identities to suppress their reactions by involving them in the learning process of cultural effectiveness. Therefore, it enhances people's capabilities of adapting to new cultures (P. C. Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). P. C. Earley (2002) pointed out that adaptation will not happen if motivational CQ is low (see also P. C. Earley & Ang, 2003).

2.5.4 **Behavioral CQ**

Having knowledge of what to do and how to do it, along with desire to do it, are still inadequate; these should be transformed to proper actions in order to show intention as being a part of their group (P. C. Earley, 2002; P. C. Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). Behavioral CQ reflects an individual's capability to exhibit and respond with proper

verbal behaviors and nonverbal behaviors in any given cultural context (Soon Ang et al., 2007; P. C. Earley, 2002; Hansen et al., 2011) based on cognitive and metacognitive CQ (Thomas, 2006). Individuals with high behavioral CQ have collections of behavior patterns to interact appropriately with people from any cultures through their communication adaptation (P. C. Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). For example, they can control themselves not to act as they usually do; instead they tailor their facial expressions, speeches, tones, actions to best fit the practices of people from other cultures (Soon Ang et al., 2007; Van Dyne et al., 2012).

Behavioral CQ can be considered as the most crucial facet since people cannot know what other people are truly thinking and feeling; therefore, they rely on what they can actually see, hear, and feel from both verbal and nonverbal actions. (Van Dyne et al., 2012). Behavioral CQ encourages individuals to exhibit behavioral patterns which aim to minimize the differences between them and people from other cultures as well as gaining acceptance (Hansen et al., 2011). Individuals with high behavioral CQ can make people from other cultures feel relaxed and comfortable during interactions (P. C. Earley, 2002). P. C. Earley and Mosakowski (2004) pointed out that people are more open and trusting when people believed that the other parties do their best to overcome the cultural barriers by minimizing the differences and trying to adopt to other people's patterns and styles.

2.5.5 Contributions of CQ

Recently, several studies have examined CQ in various contexts. These include military personnel, international students, foreign laborers, expatriates, offshore staff, cross cultural team leaders, and export company owners. The findings from empirical studies have revealed numerous outcomes. For instance, individuals with high CQ tend to exhibit better cross cultural adaptations (Presbitero, 2016b; Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014) and better cross cultural adjustments (A. S.-y. Chen, 2015; Jyoti & Kour, 2015; L.-Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Ramalu, Rose, Uli, & Kumar, 2012). CQ predicts intercultural negotiation effectiveness (Imai & Gelfand, 2010), cross-border leadership (Rockstuhl et al., 2011), and performance in cultural diversity settings (Barakat, Lorenz, Ramsey, & Cretoiu, 2015; Moon, 2013). In addition, it enhances

knowledge/idea sharing and knowledge acquisition capability in cross cultural context (Charoensukmongkol, 2014; M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013; Chua & Morris, 2009; Vlajcic, Marzi, Caputo, & Dabic, 2018). Moreover, it helps to build relationships and trust among people from different cultures (Charoensukmongkol, 2015; Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008). It also helps to lower burnout and anxiety when working in culturally diverse environments (Bolat et al., 2017; J. J. Bücker, Furrer, Poutsma, & Buyens, 2014). The outcomes of CQ has been summarized in table 1.

Table 2.1 Research Outcomes Associated with CQ

Cross cultural adaptation

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
Charoensukmongkol (2019)	Thai salesperson who are assigned to work at international trade shows in other countries	Salesperson with high CQ tend to have higher levels of adaptive selling behaviors in foreign countries
Presbitero (2016b)	New international students	International students with higher CQ tend to exhibit better psychological and sociocultural adaptations related to culture shock than those with lower CQ
	International students who had recently graduated and returned to their home countries	International students with higher CQ tend to exhibit better psychological and sociocultural adaptations related to reverse culture shock than those with lower CQ
Şahin and Gürbüz (2014)	Military personnel assigned in a multinational military organization	CQ predict individuals' adaptive performance in a multicultural environment.
Ward, Fischer, Zaid Lam, and Hall (2009)	International students attending universities in New Zealand	There is no relationship between CQ and psychological, sociocultural and academic adaptation outcomes

Cross cultural adjustment

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
A. S.-y. Chen, Wu, and Bian (2014)	International students attending universities in Taiwan	Students with higher CQ tend to exhibit better general adjustment and interaction adjustments
A. S.-y. Chen (2015)	Filipinos working in Taiwan	Foreign laborers with higher CQ perform better work adjustments which subsequently promote job involvement
Jyoti and Kour (2015)	Branch managers of nationalized banks in India who have experience of working outside the home state.	Managers with high CQ tend to exhibit better cultural adjustment, which in turn enhance task performance
L.-Y. Lee and Sukoco (2010)	Expatriates of Taiwanese MNC firms which operate in at least three countries	Expatriates with high CQ tend to demonstrate better cultural adjustments and cultural effectiveness which eventually promote better performance
Koo Moon, Kwon Choi, and Shik Jung (2012)	Expatriates hiring by Korean companies	Expatriates with higher CQ, except Metacognitive CQ tend to perform better work adjustments. Expatriates with higher MCQ tend to perform better general adjustments.
Ramalu et al. (2012)	Expatriates working in Malaysia	Expatriates with higher CQ exhibit better interaction adjustment and work adjustment, which in turn enhance job performance

Communication

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
Imai and Gelfand (2010)	Americans and East Asians students	CQ is a key predictor of intercultural negotiation effectiveness
Gregory, Prifling, and Beck (2009)	IT offshore outsourcing projects staff	"Cultural intelligence, including cognitive, motivational, and behavioral elements, is found to

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
		be an important driver for the development of a negotiated culture, characterized by trust-based interpersonal relationships, shared understanding, and the effective resolution of conflicts in IT offshore outsourcing projects"

Knowledge/Idea sharing and knowledge acquisition capability

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
Charoensukmongkol (2014)	The owner of export SMEs in Thailand	Firms, whose owners have higher levels of CQ, exhibit higher levels of international knowledge acquisition capability, and consequently have better export performances
M. L. Chen and Lin (2013)	Cross cultural team leaders from high-tech industries	CQ, except the behavioral aspect, directly influenced team knowledge sharing. Metacognitive and behavioral CQ indirectly influenced team knowledge sharing via perceived team efficacy
Chua and Morris (2009)	Executives in private sector companies who are attending Executive-MBA course	Individuals with high CQ tend to share ideas with people from different cultures due to existence of affect-based trust
Vlajcic et al. (2018)	Senior expatriate managers working in Croatia from several countries	CQ of expatriates plays an important role in knowledge transfer process performance

Leadership

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
K. Keung and J. Rockinson-	Leaders of international school based in 90	Leaders with higher CQ exhibit higher levels of transformational

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
Szapkiw (2013)	different countries	leadership style.
Rockstuhl et al. (2011)	Swiss military leaders work both domestic and cross-border leadership responsibilities and their peers	CQ has a positive relationship with cross-border leadership effectiveness but not with general leadership effectiveness.

Performance

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
Barakat et al. (2015)	Managers from multinational companies operating in Brazil	Managers with high CQ are more satisfied on their job, and therefore have better job performance
Groves and Feyerherm (2011)	Culturally diverse organizational leaders and their followers	Leader with higher CQ exhibit higher leader performance and team performance on team within cultural diversity rather than cultural homogeneous team
Mokhothu and Callaghan (2018)	International students in a large South African university	Students with higher CQ, except cognitive CQ, tend to exhibit higher academic performance.
Puyod and Charoensukmongkol (2019)	Call center agents from five business process outsourcing firms in the Philippines	Call center agents with higher CQ tend to have better quality of interaction involvement and job performance
Presbitero (2016a)	Call center employees in Philippines	CQ predicted task performance of employees who work with customers from different cultures, and CQ has a strong positive relationship with openness to experience and extraversions.
Moon (2013)	Students enrolled in a large business school in Korea; consisting of 16 nationalities	Teams with greater cultural diversity whose members have high levels of CQ tend to demonstrate better performance than teams in which members have lower CQ.

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
Scholz (2012)	Game development multicultural team members working in many countries	CQ benefits teamwork quality in creative jobs but not analytical jobs, which in turn enhance team performance

Relationship

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
Charoensukmongkol (2015)	The owner of export SMEs in Thailand	The higher the CQ of entrepreneurs, the better the relationship between their firms and foreign customers, foreign suppliers as well as foreign competitors. These relationships, except with foreign competitors, eventually enhance export performance

Trust

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
Rockstuhl and Ng (2008)	Local and international students of business school in Singapore	In culturally diverse dyads, individuals with higher CQ, except motivational aspect, have higher level of affective-based trust in their partners. CQ does not have any effect on trust ratings in monocultural dyads

Others

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
Anvari et al. (2014)	Full-time academic staff in University Technology Malaysia	CQ of leaders positively affects the organizational commitment of teams
Bolat et al. (2017)	Expatriates who work in various industries in different parts of the world	Expatriates with high CQ experience lower burnout caused by cultural distance

Author(s)	Respondents	Outcomes
J. J. Bücker et al. (2014)	Chinese managers working for foreign multinational enterprises in China	CQ relieves anxiety, which in turn enhances job satisfaction. CQ also associates with communication effectiveness
Castañeda, Huang, and Avalos (2018)	People who have previous or current experience working or studying in a country different from their country or origin. People who never left their country of origin but are situated in a multiculturally diverse environment	Individuals with high CQ tend to understand viewpoints of people from different cultures
Remhof, Gunkel, and Schlägel (2013)	German business students	CQ influences intention to work aboard

CQ has been shown to play important roles in cross-cultural teams. For example, M. L. Chen and Lin (2013) found that CQ influences knowledge sharing within cross-cultural teams. Furthermore, CQ benefits the quality of cross-cultural teamwork (Scholz, 2012). In addition, Moon (2013) found that teams with greater cultural diversity whose members have high level of CQ tend to demonstrate better performance than teams in which members have lower CQ. Groves and Feyerherm (2011) also found that leaders with high CQ exhibit higher performance within cultural diversity rather than cultural homogeneous teams. Considered these contributions of CQ, it can be expected that CQ of cabin crew members might help them to build good quality relationships with team members from different cultures. In particular, this research focuses on the contribution of CQ to three aspects of team process which are relationship conflict, trust, and knowledge sharing. The review of these three variables are provided below.

2.6   Trust

Trust is psychological functioning in building and maintaining human relationships and its role in the workplaces becomes more prominent (Bagraim & Hime, 2007; Moye & Henkin, 2006; Ridings, Gefen, & Arinze, 2002). Trust was defined as "an individual's confidence in the goodwill of others and the expectation that others will act in beneficial ways" (Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008, p. 208). In team perspective, trust is defined as the extent to which team members are confident in each other (Pinjani & Palvia, 2013). Trust is a process of decision making about whether to be vulnerable to others; that is to anticipate on others' positive actions in the future (Bagraim & Hime, 2007). Trust is risky in the sense that others might not act as one expects (Moye & Henkin, 2006) . Therefore, when individuals trust in other team members, they are willing to take risks (Costa, 2003). Trust is developed when an individual perceives team members' integrity, ability, and benevolence (Ford et al., 2017; Simons & Peterson, 2000). Integrity appears when team members are reliable and keep their words (Ridings et al., 2002; Spreitzer et al., 2002). Ability appears when team members have abilities to do their job effectively (Altinay, Brookes, Madanoglu, & Aktas, 2014; Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Spreitzer et al., 2002). Benevolence appears when team members show concern for others (Altinay et al., 2014; Ganesan & Hess, 1997). These three characteristics have presented both rational and emotional motives for trust (Kanawattanachai & Yoo, 2002; McAllister, 1995).

Trust appears to be one of the important elements in effective working relationships (Colquitt et al., 2007; Dahlstrom & Nygaard, 1995) and team effectiveness (Ford et al., 2017; Pinjani & Palvia, 2013). Dirks (1999) indicated that each team member's cooperation is a key to team success; and trust encourages team members to work and get along well with each other as well as increase eagerness to work for the team (Spreitzer et al., 2002). Dirks (1999) presented that trust takes away the mental and interpersonal barriers among team members. When trust is present, individuals do not feel worried that their coworkers will take benefits from them or disappoint them (Moye & Henkin, 2006). Spreitzer et al. (2002) claimed that the more the team members trust each other, the more they tend to interpret interaction among each other

in a positive way. According to Paul and McDaniel Jr (2004, p. 184) "Trust effectively and efficiently reduces complexity by enabling parties with different knowledge bases and experiences to collaborate". Ford et al. (2017) pointed out that members in teams with high levels of trust are likely to initiate interactions among team members and attend team's activities more often (Ridings et al., 2002; Spreitzer, Noble, Mishra, & Cooke, 1999). The more the communication among team members, the more the cooperation among them (Good, 2000). When trust is available among team members, the communication contents become coordination rather than inspection (Dahlstrom & Nygaard, 1995). Trust promotes helping (Dirks, 1999). Members in teams with high levels of trust tend to help others and request others to help (Ridings et al., 2002). They expect that other team members will have concern and care about them and will help them without taking advantage of the assistances (Dirks, 1999). When trust takes place in a team, members are more open to one another (Chowdhury, 2005). They put in more effort and are more willing to share knowledge (Abrams, Cross, Lesser, & Levin, 2003; Pinjani & Palvia, 2013; Ridings et al., 2002) and information (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010) .

It is more difficult to develop trust among members in cross-cultural teams than homogeneous cultural teams (Spreitzer et al., 2002) because individuals are more likely to trust other members who are similar to them (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008). Team members with different cultures tend to understand team's goals, roles and rules differently (Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008). Cultural differences among them entail ambiguity which could lead to misunderstanding; therefore they hesitate to trust each other (Spreitzer et al., 2002). From their studies, Pinjani and Palvia (2013) found that the higher the difference of cultural values among team members, the lower the mutual trust among them.

Distrust causes individuals to interpret "ambiguous behaviors" as threatening, which ultimately result in reciprocally distrustful behaviors (Simons & Peterson, 2000; Spreitzer et al., 2002). Lack of trust puts team members into competitive rather than collaborate atmosphere (Cheng et al., 2008). Individuals are more likely to keep the creative ideas with themselves because they fear that exposing those ideas may endanger their job security (Spreitzer et al., 1999). They tend not to believe that other

team members will be honest and keep promises, which in turn discourages relationships among them (Qualter et al., 2009). Members in teams with low levels of trust feel offended while exchanging their ideas (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010). Dirks (1999) pointed out that when distrust is present in teams, individuals will be worried because they feel that they are taking risks in their mutual responsibilities. Therefore, individuals closely observe their coworkers to make sure that their coworkers achieve his/her roles. This weaken individuals' concentration on team outcomes. In another case, individuals feel that their coworkers disrupt team achievement. Therefore, individuals direct their efforts to reaching their personal goals rather than team goals (Dirks, 1999).

Trust has been studied in many researches, and the findings show that trust increases team effectiveness (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; Pinjani & Palvia, 2013), team commitment (Griffith, Hu, & Ryans, 2000), team involvement (Spreitzer et al., 1999), knowledge sharing in team (Pinjani & Palvia, 2013), relationships in teams (Pinjani & Palvia, 2013), virtual team collaboration (Alsharo et al., 2017; Paul & McDaniel Jr, 2004), team performance (Colquitt et al., 2007), citizenship behavior (Colquitt et al., 2007), desire to get and give information in team (Ridings et al., 2002). On the other hand, trust decreases level of conflict within team (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; Porter & Lilly, 1996) and counterproductive behavior (Colquitt et al., 2007). Trust also has great impacts on organization including incomes, profits, and levels of employee turnover (Moye & Henkin, 2006).

2.7 Knowledge Sharing

Knowledge was defined by Ismail Al-Alawi, Yousif Al-Marzooqi, and Fraidoon Mohammed (2007, p. 22) as "a combination of experience, values, contextual information and expert insight that help evaluate and incorporate new experience and information". Cabrera and Cabrera (2002) indicated that knowledge has more value when it is shared. Knowledge is not only documented, but is also attached to people's brains which can be seen through people's behaviors (Ismail Al-Alawi et al., 2007).

It is classified into two types which are explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge (Chow & Chan, 2008) . Explicit knowledge is the form of knowledge that is easily gathered and communicated to others (Ali, Saleem, & Sikandar, 2014; Z. Wang, Sharma, & Cao, 2016). It normally appears in written forms such as reports and handbooks (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2002; P. Lee, Gillespie, Mann, & Wearing, 2010) On the other hand, implicit (tacit) knowledge is the form of knowledge that is difficult to communicate (P. Lee et al., 2010). It relates to "practical knowledge" (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2002, p. 690), experiences, expertise, and the "knowledge of more than we can tell" (Z. Wang et al., 2016, p. 4651). They are equally important to organizations as both types of knowledge essentially contribute to organization's sustainable competitive advantage (Alsharo et al., 2017).

Knowledge sharing is "the process where individuals mutually exchange their (implicit and explicit) knowledge and jointly create new knowledge" (Van den Hooff & De Ridder, 2004, p. 118). Knowledge sharing "involves a set of behaviors that aid the exchange of acquired knowledge" (Chow & Chan, 2008, p. 458). Two kinds of behaviors in knowledge sharing process are knowledge providing and knowledge receiving (Ologbo, Nor, & Okyere-Kwakye, 2015). Knowledge providing is giving knowledge to others either voluntarily or upon request, while knowledge receiving is asking knowledge from others (Ridings et al., 2002; Van den Hooff & De Ridder, 2004). When sharing knowledge, employees do not differentiate between explicit and tacit knowledge (Chow & Chan, 2008). Factors motivating the knowledge sharing in organizations can be divided into two aspects: objective and subjective (De Vries, Van den Hooff, & de Ridder, 2006; Panteli & Sockalingam, 2005; Riege, 2005; Van den Hooff & De Ridder, 2004). The objective aspect involves "technologies and tools" (De Vries et al., 2006, p. 116); which facilitate the knowledge distribution (Chow & Chan, 2008; Van den Hooff & De Ridder, 2004). For example, Ismail Al-Alawi et al. (2007) verified that the existence of knowledge sharing technology is positively related to knowledge sharing in organization. The subjective aspect involves motivations, individual and team characteristics and organizational climates which encourage knowledge sharing intention. (Van den Hooff & De Ridder, 2004; S. Wang & Noe, 2010). For example, Ismail Al-Alawi et al. (2007) reported that trust positively affects knowledge sharing in organizations.

Team effectiveness is achieved if team members can put team success over their "tendency to hoard knowledge" (Alsharo et al., 2017, p. 479). Knowledge sharing in teams leads to better team performance (P. Lee et al., 2010). Knowledge sharing helps team members to form the shared knowledge base (Ali et al., 2014; Z. Wang et al., 2016) which improves innovation capability, promotes team harmony, and enhances better performance (Z. Wang et al., 2016). Hu, Horng, and Sun (2009) pointed out that when knowledge is shared in teams, team processes are well developed. Team members are better in performing their tasks (Pinjani & Palvia, 2013), satisfying customers' expectations and obtaining team's goals and efficiency (P. Lee et al., 2010). Once team members share their knowledge, the process of creativity starts (P. Lee et al., 2010). Knowledge sharing helps individuals to improve their ability to originate new ideas and apply their knowledge which enhances innovative behavior (Ali et al., 2014; Ologbo et al., 2015). Knowledge sharing improves decision making; when team members share their knowledge, more options are explored and evaluated (P. Lee et al., 2010). In addition, more solutions are discovered for better problem solving (Ali et al., 2014; P. Lee et al., 2010). Knowledge sharing also promotes relationships (S. Wang & Noe, 2010; Z. Wang et al., 2016). When knowledge is shared among team members, they tend to conform to teams' working norms, which in turn enhances team harmony and alleviates interpersonal stress (Pinjani & Palvia, 2013).

Many scholars have studied knowledge sharing, and they found that knowledge sharing enhances employee innovation (Hu et al., 2009; Ologbo et al., 2015), trust, team collaboration (Alsharo et al., 2017), team effectiveness (Pinjani & Palvia, 2013), team performance (P. Lee et al., 2010), new service development (Hu et al., 2009), as well as company's sustainable competitive advantage, and organization performance (Riege, 2005). Lack of knowledge sharing among team members weakens team collaboration; consequently they are unable to achieve team goals. (Alsharo et al., 2017). When team members do not share knowledge, their relation is weak (Pinjani & Palvia, 2013). They feel that they are competitive with other employees, and their job is secured while hoarding their knowledge (Hu et al., 2009; Riege, 2005). Willingness

to share knowledge depends on the knowledge owners (Alsharo et al., 2017; De Vries et al., 2006). However, most of them perceived that they would lose possession of knowledge and their value within the organization if they shared it (Ali et al., 2014; Alsharo et al., 2017). Some of them think that they deserve something in return for sharing knowledge (Ali et al., 2014; De Vries et al., 2006). Therefore, they feel more likely to hoard their knowledge (Ali et al., 2014; Alsharo et al., 2017; De Vries et al., 2006).

National culture shapes people's attitudes toward knowledge sharing (Li, 2010) therefore cultural differences among team members can form the barriers to knowledge sharing in teams (Riege, 2005). Knowledge sharing among cross-cultural team members is more challenged (S. Wang & Noe, 2010). Because culture divides team members into groups on the basis of whether or not they share a common culture (Worchel, 2005), individuals do not want to share any benefits with team members who do not belong to their group (Hutchings & Michailova, 2004). According to Chow and Chan (2008, p. 459), "knowledge sharing required shared understanding; for example, shared culture and goals were important factors". Differences in culture among team members affects the ways and the degrees of knowledge sharing (Van den Hooff & De Ridder, 2004). The greater the cultural differences among team members, the greater the difficulty is in knowledge sharing among them (Hutchings & Michailova, 2004). Cultural differences also lead to different understandings among team members therefore individuals are less likely to interact with team members from foreign cultures (McGrane, 2016). Lack of interaction between them obstructs the knowledge sharing in teams (McGrane, 2016). From their study, Pinjani and Palvia (2013) found that the higher the diversity of attitudes, values and preferences among team members, the lower the level of knowledge sharing among them. The empirical results of Hauke (2006) showed that cultural differences play an important role in knowledge-sharing processes. In addition, the findings from Al-Esia and Skok (2014) study showed that cultural differences negatively affect the knowledge sharing between co-workers.

2.8 Relationship Conflict, Trust and Knowledge Sharing in Culturally Heterogeneous Team

Cross cultural teams comprise members with different cultural backgrounds (Stahl, Mäkelä, et al., 2010)), therefore national cultures seem to be the most visible differences among team members (Worchel, 2005). Conforming to SIT and SCT, when individuals feel the dissimilarity of team members, they tend to start grouping (Mohammed & Angell, 2004). They tend to put themselves with team members from the same and similar cultures to them as in-groups and other team members from foreign cultures together as the out-group (Y. Chen & Li, 2009). Different cultural groups within the same team exhibit each group's identity which possesses different perceptions, attitudes, social behaviors and understandings of team goals, roles and rules (Nibler & Harris, 2003; Worchel, 2005). When individuals perceive that they belong to different groups (in- versus out-group), they feel and interact to both group members differently (Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008). They prefer to interact with team members from the same culture and are more prone to give advantages to in-group team members (Y. Chen & Li, 2009; Mohammed & Angell, 2004). In the meantime, individuals tend to give disadvantages to out-group team members (Y. Chen & Li, 2009). They develop the stereotypes of team members from foreign cultures (Worchel, 2005) and are more likely to perceive them more negatively than team members from the same culture (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; Vodosek, 2007). Consequently, there is less connection, lower cohesion and greater conflict among team members from different cultures (Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008; Shupe, 2007). These negative perceptions of dissimilarity and differences as well as the discriminating behaviors against team members from foreign cultures are likely to endanger the team's functioning and outcomes (Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008).

Relationship conflict is likely to appear more in culturally heterogeneous teams than culturally homogeneous teams (Von Glinow et al., 2004). Feeling of dissimilarity is likely to result in conflict (Mohammed & Angell, 2004). When each cultural group within team is salient, each group member tends to perceive that their cultural identities and security are threatened (Shupe, 2007). This perception of fear stimulates

intergroup (intercultural) conflict (Worchel, 2005). When individuals perceive that they belong to different groups, they tend to exhibit negative perceptions of dissimilarity, preconception and unfairly treat team members from foreign cultures (Vodosek, 2007). Individuals tend to perceive that team members from foreign cultures are dangerous (Worchel, 2005) and less cooperative than team members from the same culture (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010). The negative attitudes and behaviors toward team members from foreign cultures could trigger relationship conflicts among them (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010; Mohammed & Angell, 2004). Evidence regarding the effect of cultural heterogeneity on relationship conflict is supported by the study of Vodosek (2007) which found that relationship conflict appears more in culturally heterogeneous teams than culturally homogeneous teams. In addition, the study of Griffith et al. (2000) found that conflict exists more between partners from different cultural types than partners from the same cultural type.

Trust is difficult to develop when team members see others as out-group members (Spreitzer et al., 2002). Individuals are more likely to perceive team members from foreign cultures as less trustworthy than team members from the same culture (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010). Cultural difference among team members entail ambiguity which could lead to misunderstanding (Spreitzer et al., 2002). Less mutual understanding among them could lead to incorrectly interpret the ambiguous behaviors which enhance reciprocally distrustful behaviors (Simons & Peterson, 2000). For example, from the qualitative research of Ismail Al-Alawi et al. (2007) which studied interpersonal trust of staff in both public and private organizations in Bahrain, interview information showed that expatriates in this company have a very low level of trust in locals. Research also showed that team members from different cultural backgrounds have different trust-developing processes. For example, Doney et al. (1998) stated that, with relation to self, people in individualistic cultures tend to develop trust by calculative and capability processes while people in collectivist cultures develop trust by prediction, intentionality and transference processes. In addition, a study of Al-Esia and Skok (2014) revealed that individuals exhibit low level of trust in co-workers from different cultures.

Differences in cultures affect the way and the degree of knowledge sharing among team members (Riege, 2005; Van den Hooff & De Ridder, 2004). The perception of in– and out-groups leads to lack of interaction, poor verbal communication and poor interpersonal skills between group members which could hinder the knowledge sharing among team members (Riege, 2005). When team members perceive that they belong to different groups, competitive behavior is likely to occur (Mohammed & Angell, 2004); therefore, they tend to hoard the knowledge among each other (Hu et al., 2009; Riege, 2005). For example, from a simulation study of Sackmann and Friesl (2007) which studied the influence of cultures on knowledge sharing in project team, it was found that cultural differences hinder the knowledge sharing among team members. In addition, the study found that the more salient the cultural differences, the stronger was each cultural identity; and, as a result, the less the knowledge sharing. This is supported by a study of Pinjani and Palvia (2013) which found that the higher the diversity of attitudes, values and preferences among team members, the lower the level of knowledge sharing was among them. In addition, the study of Al-Esia and Skok (2014) found that the cultural differences between co-workers restrain the knowledge sharing among them.

2.9   Burnout

Burnout was first proposed by Freudenberger in 1974 (Bhanugopan & Fish, 2006). Its initial study was in human service and healthcare industries (Maslach, 2003; Maslach et al., 2001) and, later it has been widespread in various areas. So far, burnout was found in many occupations such as health personnel (Ashtari, Farhady, & Khodaee, 2009; Bria, Spânu, Băban, & Dumitraşcu, 2014; Salyers, Flanagan, Firmin, & Rollins, 2015; SESEN, CETIN, & BASIM, 2011), firefighters (Lourel, Abdellaoui, Chevaleyre, Paltrier, & Gana, 2008), educators (Azeem, 2010; Azeem & Nazir, 2008; Kahn, Schneider, Jenkins-Henkelman, & Moyle, 2006), hotel personnel (H. J. Kim, Shin, & Umbreit, 2007; Lu & Gursoy, 2016), correctional staff (Griffin, Hogan, Lambert, Tucker-Gail, & Baker, 2010), restaurant personnel (Hayes & Weathington, 2007; H. J. Kim, Shin, & Swanger, 2009), staff in high-technology industry (Hsieh &

Chao, 2004), industrial employees (Ahola, Väänänen, Koskinen, Kouvonen, & Shirom, 2010), and business organization employees (Muhammad & Hamdy, 2005). Cabin crew is also an occupation that is prone to burnout (C.-F. Chen & Kao, 2012a, 2012b; S. I. Ng et al., 2011).

Burnout is a negative psychological state of reaction to a prolonged job stress (Maslach et al., 2001). It is an outcome of the inability to cope with the chronic work stress (SESEN et al., 2011; J. Singh, Goolsby, & Rhoads, 1994). According to Bhanugopan and Fish (2006, p. 454), burnout was characterized by "a lack of energy and a feeling that one's energy has been exhausted". Burnout appears when there is/are incompatible relationship(s) between individuals' role expectations and their work settings for a period of time (Bhanugopan & Fish, 2006; Maslach, 2003). Those work settings include workload, control, community, fairness, and values (Maslach et al., 2001). The more the incompatibility, the higher the possibility of burnout to be developed (Maslach et al., 2001). One of the clashes is the incompatibility of workload which appears when employees have insufficient resources to complete the job demands (Schaufeli, Leiter, & Maslach, 2009). For instance, the inability to handle the number of jobs within a timeline (Alarcon, 2011) or the lacking of skills needed to achieve their job (Bhanugopan & Fish, 2006). These excessive demands of job tend to drain employees' energy which in turn enhances exhaustion. Another clash which was discussed by Maslach et al. (2001) is the incompatibility of communities. This happens when employees sense a negative relationship with their co-workers which leads to the feeling of out-groups. In addition, a long period of conflict between them enhances dissatisfaction and opposition which in turn diminishes support among them (Maslach et al., 2001). Lack of social support promotes the feeling of isolation (Lambert, Altheimer, & Hogan, 2010). Employees with feelings of isolation are likely to suffer from stress, which in turn enhances job burnout (Lambert et al., 2010).

There are three determinants of burnout which are emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and loss of self-accomplishment (Bhanugopan & Fish, 2006; Maslach, 2003; Maslach et al., 2001). First, emotional exhaustion is the feeling of being so psychically and mentally drained that employees no longer want to work (Alarcon, 2011; Angerer, 2003). According to Lambert et al. (2010, p. 1219),

emotional exhaustion refers to "feeling emotionally drained, fatigued, and taxed or "used up" from the job". It reflects the personal stress dimension (Shirom & Melamed, 2005) and is considered as the main dimension of burnout (Muhammad & Hamdy, 2005; Shirom & Melamed, 2005). It can determine burnout because it tends to put employees on excessive strain which they could no longer cope with (Maslach et al., 2001). When employees feel emotionless and fatigued from their job, they tend to react by keeping their mind and brain away from their work (Alarcon, 2011; Maslach et al., 2001). Second, depersonalization is the feeling when employees exhibit negative attitudes toward their work, their tasks and their coworkers. This can cause them to develop a sense of separation from their works (Angerer, 2003; Lambert et al., 2010). According to S. I. Ng et al. (2011, p. 310), "depersonalization occurs when individuals distance themselves from their work by creating dehumanizing perceptions of tasks, clients, or co-workers". Depersonalization reflects the interpersonal dimension of burnout (Shirom & Melamed, 2005). It can demonstrate burnout because it tends to make employees extremely disengaged from their work setting (Maslach et al., 2001). Last, loss of self-accomplishment was defined by C.-F. Chen and Chen (2012, p. 43) as "the feelings of incompetence and lack of achievement at work". It reflects the self-evaluation dimension of burnout (Shirom & Melamed, 2005) and is associated with the lower levels of motivation and loss of self-confidence (Bhanugopan & Fish, 2006). It can devote to burnout because it tends to make employees feel that they are unproductive and cannot achieve their work (Maslach et al., 2001). Employees feel incapable and worthless when they fail to complete their works again and again. (J. Singh et al., 1994). Angerer (2003); Muhammad and Hamdy (2005) pointed out that burnout is the process of three determinants. Emotional exhaustion appears first, and it leads to depersonalization, which in turn promotes the loss of self-accomplishment. However, Shirom and Melamed (2005) argued that each determinant of burnout may be developed separately.

Burnout is costly for both employees (C.-F. Chen & Kao, 2012a) and organizations (Kahn et al., 2006). Findings from previous researches have shown that burnout negatively affects employees' health (C.-F. Chen & Chen, 2012; C.-F. Chen & Kao, 2012a), job satisfaction (Muhammad & Hamdy, 2005; J. Singh et al., 1994; Soler et

al., 2008), job performance (Ashtari et al., 2009; C.-F. Chen & Kao, 2012a; J. Singh et al., 1994; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010), and organizational commitment (Muhammad & Hamdy, 2005; J. Singh et al., 1994). On the other hand, it potentially leads to sick leave (Soler et al., 2008), absenteeism (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010), and the intention to leave (Muhammad & Hamdy, 2005; J. Singh et al., 1994; Soler et al., 2008).

Burnout negatively affects individuals' health physically and psychologically (C.-F. Chen & Kao, 2012a). According to Maslach et al. (2001, p. 406), "burnout is itself a form of mental illness". It could affect employees' health directly by making them fall in sick and indirectly by causing behaviors which risk their health (Ahola et al., 2010). C.-F. Chen and Chen (2012) pointed out that burned-out employees are fatigued and exhausted; therefore, they have to put extra efforts in order to achieve their work. This hard time will negatively affect their health (C.-F. Chen & Chen, 2012). Anxiety, depression, and helplessness could be examples of the mental health problems while insomnia, headaches, and poor appetite could be examples of physical health problems which are caused by burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993).

J. Singh et al. (1994)pointed out that employees with high levels of burnout may lower their job satisfaction. Burned-out employees tend to have insufficient resources to handle job demands (SESEN et al., 2011). These shortages not only cause less productivity but also negatively affect employees' psychological well-being on the job, which in turn decreases their job satisfaction (SESEN et al., 2011; J. Singh et al., 1994). Furthermore, burnout negatively affects the service quality (Azeem & Nazir, 2008). Burned-out employees tend to be less patient and more irritated, therefore they are less attentive to customers (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Salyers et al., 2015). They are also likely to drop their energy, pleasure, and intention in their works which leads to negative behaviors toward customers (Azeem & Nazir, 2008). Moreover, C.-F. Chen and Kao (2012a) showed that employees with high level of burnout may lower their performances. Burned-out employees tend to work less due to their emotional exhaustion (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010) and they think that they are incompetent; therefore, they try to disengage from their works which results in lower job performance (J. Singh et al., 1994; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). Besides this, their

negative behaviors toward co-workers create difficulties in cooperation between them; hence, their job performances tend to be lower (Salyers et al., 2015). In addition, C.-F. Chen and Kao (2012a); (J. Singh et al., 1994) presented that burnout leads to the lower organizational commitment. As burned-out employees feel depleted, they tend to put less effort into works and are not willing to help others (SESEN et al., 2011). They are more likely to develop negative attitudes toward self and others, therefore they tend to keep themselves away from the organization (J. Singh et al., 1994). Lastly, Angerer (2003); (Lambert et al., 2010) added that burnout could lead to absenteeism and turnover. Burned-out employees tend to be absent from work in order to temporarily heal their emotional fatigue and response to their depersonalization and sense of inefficacy (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). Alternatively, they may quit their jobs to be permanently away from their frustration and tension (J. Singh et al., 1994; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). They also tend to put less effort into their works which leads to ineffectiveness; finally, they quit their job (Harwood, Ridley, Wilson, & Laschinger, 2010; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010).

2.10 Hypotheses Development

2.10.1 The effect of CQ on relationship conflict, trust and knowledge

This research proposes that CQ of individuals not only prevent relationship conflict, but also enhances trust and knowledge sharing in cross-cultural team. CQ is a set of capability for individuals to be effective in intercultural environments (Soon Ang et al., 2015; K.-Y. Ng & Earley, 2006). It also involves the competency required to handle people from different cultural backgrounds (Moon, 2013). CQ equips individuals with the necessary capabilities to deal and engage within culturally diverse team (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). It helps them to adjust their behavior to perform well in unfamiliar cultural environment (A. S.-y. Chen, 2015). Individuals with high CQ have good knowledge of different cultures and value the differences (Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). Having a good understanding about other cultures is important because it makes individuals know how they should behave to prevent misunderstandings due to cultural differences (Soon Ang et al., 2007; Şahin &

Gürbüz, 2014). They not only expect and persist in the success on intercultural contexts, but they also enjoy and are confident in socializing with team members from foreign cultures (P. C. Earley, 2002). This helps to build a good relationship between team members from different cultures. Furthermore, individuals with high CQ are conscious and able to detect any signals when interacting with team members from foreign cultures as well as adjusting their mental model accordingly (P. C. Earley, 2002). These capabilities allow individuals to develop more accurate understandings of other cultures thereby preventing them from exhibiting inappropriate behaviors which could lead to relationship conflict and less cooperation among team members from different cultures. In particular, the willingness and the ability to adjust the behaviors shows individuals' attentiveness to team members from foreign cultures which enhances an open mind, more trust and cooperation as well as better relationship between them (Nguyen, Barrett, & Nguyen, 2004). In addition, CQ helps individuals to tailor their behaviors in order to minimize the differences between them and team members from foreign cultures (Hansen et al., 2011). Lastly, trying to adopt other cultures' patterns and styles allows individuals to gain trust and acceptance (P. C. Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Hansen et al., 2011). In conclusion, individuals with high CQ can effectively adapt when interacting with team members from foreign cultures (P. C. Earley, 2002). They make team members from foreign cultures feel relaxed and comfortable during interactions (P. C. Earley, 2002). Therefore, team members are less likely to perceive team members from foreign cultures as out-group members (Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008). Once in- and out-group perceptions are dissolved, the perceptions of belonging to a common group are enhanced. CQ helps to develop team's collective optimism, efficacy and identity when dealing with the problems among culturally diverse team members (Moon, 2013).

2.10.1.1 CQ and relationship conflict

For individuals with high CQ, perception about relationship conflict in cross-cultural team seems to be lower. The conflict between cultural groups can be resolved when each group members are more attracted to each other, perceive out-group members more positively, and tend to view in- and out-group as a common group (Worchel,

2005). In addition, Worchel (2005) stated that interaction between cultural groups can calm down the conflict if each cultural group's identity is reduced. CQ helps individuals to effectively adapt to team members from different cultures which in turn distracts the perception of out-group members (Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008). As a result, this can turn the perception of the in- and out-group into a common group. Furthermore, Moon (2013) mentioned that CQ enhances a team's collective identity in cross-cultural teams. When team members have a shared team identity, they tend to value more on team's identity than each group's identity (Tanis & Postmes, 2005). Consequently, stronger interpersonal relationships and better collaborations among team members are developed (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2010). Furthermore, because CQ was found to facilitate cross cultural team members' shared understanding and communication, it can enhance team cohesiveness, which in turn decreases conflicts and misunderstandings among them (Moon, 2013).

Based on the above supported discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: CQ is negatively associated with relationship conflict among team members from different cultures

2.10.1.2 CQ and trust

CQ could help to enhance trust in cross-cultural teams (Soon Ang et al., 2015). Trust is likely to be developed when team members share the same norms and values as they tend to follow the same trust-developing process (Doney et al., 1998). CQ encourages the sense of familiarity among cross-cultural team members which increases the ability to predict behaviors of one another, thereby enhancing trust among team members (Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008). From the social identity and social identification perspective, individuals tend to trust only team members who they accept to be their in-group as they perceive that in-group members will behave according to the group norms (Griffith et al., 2000). However, because individuals with high CQ are able to effectively adapt to team members from different cultures, they can weaken the perceptions of out-group members (Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008). Therefore, they are more likely to view both group members as a common group member. A common understanding and mental model in cross cultural teams can be

developed when team members try to cohere each other's behaviors (Spreitzer et al., 2002). Because CQ allows individuals to observe and assess team members from foreign cultures (K.-Y. Ng et al., 2012), individuals with high CQ are flexible in exhibiting proper interactions as if they belong to that culture. A common group membership shares the same norms, values, and common goals as well as exhibits cooperation and collective action (Tanis & Postmes, 2005). P. C. Earley and Gardner (2005) pointed out that when team members share a common goal, they are working and helping each other, thereby turning the sense of competition into cooperation. When they cooperate, they perceive team members' treat as a common treat; therefore, they are motivated to work together to counter the threat (P. C. Earley & Gardner, 2005). This cooperation enhances trust among team members (P. C. Earley & Gardner, 2005). Furthermore, individuals with high CQ are intense in learning about how to respond and behave appropriately with team members from foreign cultures (Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). Awareness of, and intention to deal with, the differences, team members have signified their cultural sensitivity; which in turn, enhances the development of relationship trust (Altinay et al., 2014). This effect of CQ is supported by a study of Rockstuhl and Ng (2008) which found that CQ plays an important role in promoting interpersonal trust among cross cultural team members.

Based on the above supported discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

> Hypothesis 2: CQ is positively associated with trust among team members from different cultures

2.10.1.3 CQ and knowledge sharing

CQ helps to facilitate knowledge sharing in cross-cultural team (M. L. Chen & Lin, 2013). It helps individuals to develop social networks in culturally diverse contexts (Soon Ang et al., 2015) which is a supportive condition for knowledge sharing. Research showed that social networks play an important role on knowledge sharing (Abrams et al., 2003). Moreover, De Vries et al. (2006) pointed out that when individuals can exhibit positive nonverbal behaviors, they are more attractive and favorable to team members from foreign cultures. Thus, they tend to enjoy communicating with each other, which in turn enhances knowledge sharing between

them (De Vries et al., 2006). These conditions that facilitate knowledge sharing can be met when team members have CQ. This is because individuals with high CQ enjoy interactions with team members from foreign cultures (Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). They can exhibit proper verbal and nonverbal behaviors based on their cultural cognition which can make team members from foreign cultures feel relaxed and comfortable (P. C. Earley, 2002).

According to Chow and Chan (2008, p. 459), "knowledge sharing required shared understanding; for example, shared culture and goals were important factors". CQ facilitates shared understanding of cross cultural team including status of team members, team functioning, role expectation, and communication (Moon, 2013). As individuals with high CQ are able to adapt effectively to team members from foreign cultures, they can lower their perceptions of out-group members (Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008). In addition, CQ enhances team's collective identity in cross-cultural teams (Moon, 2013). When team members feel that they are belonging to the same group, the team's identity, protection and loyalty are enhanced; and as a result, team members tend to share their knowledge to reward the loyalty (Hutchings & Michailova, 2004). When team members feel that there are commonalities among them, they tend to ignore each group' identities (Boer, Berends, & Van Baalen, 2011). Once a common identity is exposed within team, knowledge sharing is more likely to happen (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2002). This is supported by a study of Vlajcic et al. (2018) which found that CQ plays an important role in knowledge transfer within cross cultural teams.

Based on the above supported discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

> Hypothesis 3: CQ is positively associated with knowledge sharing among team members from different cultures

2.10.2 The effect of relationship conflict, trust, and knowledge sharing on burnout

This research also proposes that working relationships which are relationship conflict, trust, and knowledge sharing among cross-cultural team members affects employees'

job burnout. Burnout appears when there is/are incompatible relationship(s) between individuals' role expectations and their work settings for a period of time (Bhanugopan & Fish, 2006; Maslach, 2003). The more the incompatibility, the higher the possibility of burnout to be developed (Maslach et al., 2001). Maslach et al. (2001) stated that the incompatibility of a community happens when employees sense a negative relationship with their co-workers which leads to the feeling of out-group.

2.10.2.1 Relationship conflict and job burnout

First, this research suggests that relationship conflict among team members can be linked to job burnout. According to Lambert et al. (2010), people do not support the out-group members. Moreover, they tend to hold negative views and exhibit negative behaviors against the out-group members which could easily trigger relationship conflict (Y. Chen & Li, 2009). Jaramillo, Mulki, and Boles (2011) stated that the relationship conflict could lead to feelings of frustration, depression, sadness, energy depletion, helplessness, being overwhelmed, and lower self-esteem. Thus, individuals with these negative emotions are more likely to experience high level of emotional exhaustion (Jaramillo et al., 2011). Moreover, they tend to develop the sense of isolation by pulling themselves out of these unpleasant working environments (Greenbaum, Quade, Mawritz, Kim, & Crosby, 2014). This isolation could lead to ineffectiveness by neglecting their job which include coming to work late, absenteeism, less effort, and more errors (Greenbaum et al., 2014). Maslach (2003) stated that relationship conflict between team members tends to promote job burnout. This is supported a study of Sliter, Pui, Sliter, and Jex (2011) which found that there is a significantly positive relationship between relationship conflict with co-worker and job burnout.

Based on the above supported discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 4: Relationship conflict among team members is positively associated with job burnout

2.10.2.2 Trust and job burnout

In addition, this research suggests that lack of trust among team members can be linked to job burnout. According to Qualter et al. (2009), people are less likely to trust the out-group members. Van Maele and Van Houtte (2015) presented that when individuals distrust their team members, they may encounter emotion exhaustion because they tend to feel on their own in dealing with job demands. Moreover, individuals may develop the sense of isolation as they try to keep themselves away from their work settings in order to deal their job demands (Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2015). Lack of trust among team members could enhance job burnout (Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2015). On the other hand, when trust takes place among team members, they tend to help each other to cope with stress by providing support, advice, and guidance. This could enhance individuals' self-confidence in handling their work demands so that they are less likely to develop burnout (Lambert et al., 2010). Evidence about the benefits of trust on job burnout were reported in prior studies. For example, Van Maele and Van Houtte (2015) found that the teachers' trust in their students and colleagues exhibit lowers the level of job burnout. The study of Lambert, Hogan, Barton-Bellessa, and Jiang (2012) showed that the correctional staff who trust in their supervisors and management experienced lower levels of job burnout.

Based on the above supported discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5: Trust among team members is negatively associated with job burnout

2.10.2.3 Knowledge sharing and job burnout

Furthermore, this research suggests that knowledge sharing among team members can be linked to lower job burnout. Lambert et al. (2010) pointed out that people do not support the out-group members. When individuals do not support their out-group team members, they are less likely to provide assistance, guidance and information to each other (Lambert et al., 2010). Lack of knowledge sharing among team members weakens their relations (Pinjani & Palvia, 2013) which could lead to the feeling of isolation (Lambert et al., 2010).. Individuals with feelings of isolation are likely to suffer from stress which in turn enhances the likelihood of job burnout (Lambert et

al., 2010). In contrast, Leiter, Day, Harvie, and Shaughnessy (2007) presented that knowledge sharing in team allows individuals to develop their efficacy to deal with the job demands. Moreover, it provides them a good opportunity for involvement and connection (Leiter et al., 2007). It also enhances team harmony and alleviates interpersonal stress (Pinjani & Palvia, 2013). The effect of knowledge sharing on burnout is supported by a study of Leiter et al. (2007) which found that knowledge sharing among nurses leads them to experience lower levels of burnout.

Based on the above supported discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

> Hypothesis 6: Knowledge sharing among team members is negatively associated with job burnout

2.10.3 The effect of CQ on job burnout

This research also proposes that CQ can directly associate with lower levels of job burnout. Generally, individuals tend to be under stress when facing unfamiliar situations across cultures due to the inability to cope with intercultural experiences (Gudykunst, 2004). Therefore, it is not surprising that people who are a cultural minority are prone to experience stress when they work with the majority group. There are many characteristics of CQ that can help alleviate burnout from this situation. First, CQ involves the competency required to interact with people from different cultural backgrounds (Moon, 2013). It equips individuals with the necessary capabilities to deal with and engage in cross-cultural team (Soon Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Individuals with high CQ tend to be aware of and value the differences of their own and other cultures preferences (Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). They are flexible in intercultural interaction by tuning their self-concept to the new cultural settings (P. C. Earley & Gardner, 2005). They know what should or should not do to prevent misunderstandings due to the cultural differences (Soon Ang et al., 2007). Moreover, individuals with high CQ are highly motivated to perform effectively across cultures (Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014) and they have a strong sense of efficacy of doing so (P. C. Earley, 2002). In addition, they are able to exhibit behavioral verbal and nonverbal behavioral patterns which aim to minimize the cultural differences between them and people from foreign cultures (Hansen et al., 2011). With these capabilities, CQ tends

to serve as a resource for individuals to cope with the cultural barriers between team members from different cultures (Bolat et al., 2017). The role of CQ on burnout are supported by prior studies. For example, Tay et al. (2008) found that CQ helps to alleviate burnout in international business travelers who face culturally diverse settings. The study of Bolat et al. (2017) found that expatriates with high CQ experience lower levels of burnout when they worked in a country that is highly different from their home country. Suthatorn and Charoensukmongkol (2018) also found that airline cabin crew members with high CQ tend to demonstrate good intercultural communication and high levels of service attentiveness, which in turn lowers their anxiety when providing service to foreign passengers

Based on the above supported discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 7: CQ is negatively associated with job burnout

All hypotheses are summarized to Table 2 and they are presented in Figure 1 in a form of a conceptual model

Table 2.2 The Summary of Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses	
H1	CQ is negatively associated with relationship conflict among team members from different cultures
H2	CQ is positively associated with trust among team members from different cultures
H3	CQ is positively associated with knowledge sharing among team members from different cultures
H4	Relationship conflict among team members is positively associated with job burnout
H5	Trust among team members is negatively associated with job burnout
H6	Knowledge sharing among team members is negatively associated with job burnout
H7	CQ is negatively associated with job burnout
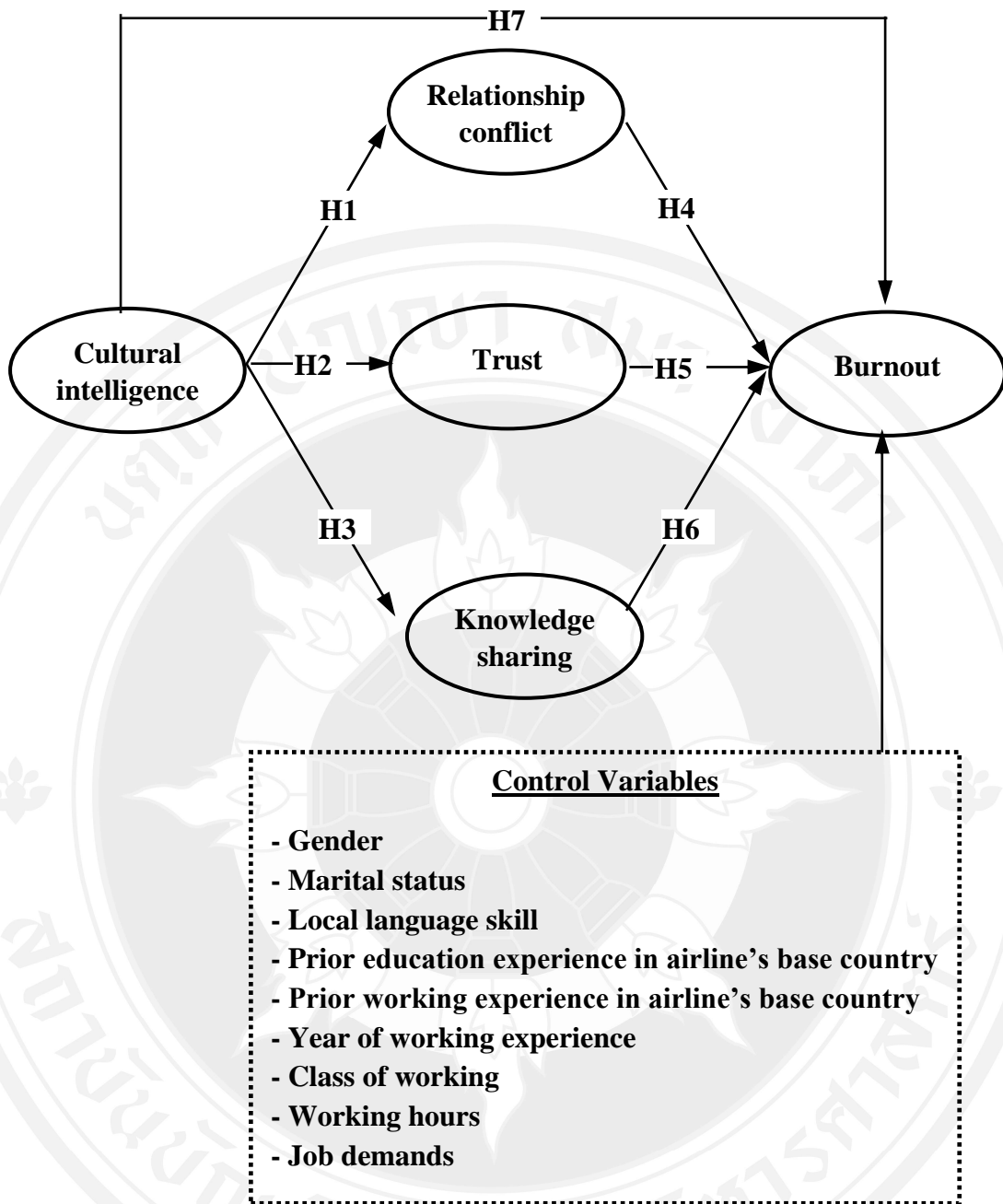
Figure 2.1 The Conceptual Model

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methodology applied to test the proposed hypotheses. It will discuss about the research context, sample selection, data collection procedure, and measurement.

3.1 Research Context

This study focuses on Thai cabin crew members who are hired by leading international airlines. In particular, this study targets Thai cabin crew members who work with Japan airlines, Korean air, Eva air, Lufthansa, Finnair, Kenya airways, and China airlines. These airlines are selected because they tend to employ a majority of their local people. Thai cabin crew members are generally the cultural minority group in these airlines. Therefore, this characteristic makes the sample fit with the objective of the research which focuses on CQ of individuals who belong to a cultural minority group.

In order to gain prior evidence that relationship problem is an issue experienced by cabin crew members who worked as a minority group in the international airways, informal interviews by telephone were conducted with 5 cabin crew members from Korean, Japanese and Taiwanese airlines. The cabin crew members were asked about how cultural difference influences the relationship quality and teamwork among cabin crew members. They pointed out that cultural difference seems to cause the separation, and it tends to have negative impacts on their relationship. For example,

One cabin crew mentioned that

> There is a big space between me and them. We tend to have different values, ideas and way of doing things which could lead to the relationship conflict between us. Furthermore, they treat us as the second-class citizens. For

example, they strongly value their seniority system, but they don't behave the same to the senior Thai crew members. Another example is Thai cabin crew members never have the choices of meal. We have to take whatever they have left. In addition to being the minority group on board, Thai cabin crew members are always separated into the different working stations. I feel so lonely as local cabin crew members prefer to socialize among themselves.

Other cabin crew said that

There is no personal connection between us. Local crew members are more likely to interact among themselves; even I am standing with them but they always act as I am not there. In addition, we have different style of working. For example, they like to work fast but untidy while Thai cabin crew members prefer to work tidy with the good speed. Moreover, they do not prefer Thai cabin crew members working together, therefore they always put us at the different working stations. I feel discriminated. Furthermore, they like to take advantage of Thai cabin crew members. For example, when passengers request some drinks from them, they call Thai cabin crew members to serve passengers while they are resting and taking tea.

One cabin crew also mentioned that

I am lucky, they are friendly to me maybe because I can speak their local language quite well. But I used to see they bully junior Thai cabin crew members especially who cannot communicate their local language. However, I feel annoyed with some of their behaviors because I think it's not good for passengers but nothing I can do because they are majority.

Overall, the information mentioned above provides some justification about the appropriateness of using the sample selected from these airlines for data analysis.

3.2   Sample Selection

This research used both the convenience sampling and snowball sampling methods for sample selection. Regarding the convenience sampling method, it allows researchers to collect the data from the members of population who are available and convenient to reach (Sekaran, 2003). Even though this method seems to have limitations as the findings from the samples cannot be generalized to the population. It is chosen because it allows researcher to easily access the samples (Kothari, 2004) as well as enables a quick and inexpensive way to collect the data (Sekaran, 2003). In this study, with the permission of the Airports of Thailand Public Company Limited was granted, the questionnaires were distributed at Suvarnabhumi airport to Thai cabin crew members who work for seven international airlines. In addition, with the airline office permission, the questionnaires were placed at the crew reporting area in the airline office. Regarding the snowball sampling method, it allows researcher to reach more respondents by approaching the initial group of persons who are relevant to the research and ask them to introduce more samples that meet the survey criteria (Greener, 2008). Despite the limitations in the generalization of results to the population, this method has several advantages. First, it helps the researcher to locate the samples within the limited time and budget. Furthermore, it allows researcher to easily access more samples. Moreover, the samples are more trusting and cooperative in providing data as the researcher was referred by their familiar and trusted persons (Cohen & Arieli, 2011). In this study, the researcher contacted the initial group of cabin crew members in each airline who helped to distribute the questionnaires to their colleagues. These methods are appropriate for this research for several reasons. First, the population of Thai cabin crew working with foreign airlines is unknown. Secondly, cabin crew members do not work in an office which make it difficult to locate them. Finally, their working schedules are varied and can be revised at any time, thereby making it difficult to arrange a meeting with them for data collection.

3.2.1   Sample size

Sample size is to determine the number of samples which will represent the entire population (A. S. Singh & Masuku, 2014). This study will apply the formula

technique to calculate the sample size which is Taro Yamane's formula (Yamane, 1967). The formula allows researcher to calculate the required sample size with a combination of different levels of confidence and precision (Israel, 1992).

The formula is:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where   "n" refers to sample size required,

"N" refers to number of the population, and

"e" refers to the level of sampling error.

Approximately 1,175 Thai cabin crew are hired by 7 international airlines as shown in table 3. With 95% confidence level, a proper sample size could be calculated by the equation below:

$$298 = \frac{1,175}{1 + 1175(0.05)^2}$$

The result from calculation shows that the proper sample size for this study is 298.

Table 3.1 The Number of Thai Cabin Crew Hired by Each Airline

Airline	No. of Thai cabin crew (Approximately)
Kenya Airways	50
Korean Air	70
Japan Airlines	550
Eva Air	230
China Airlines	150
Finnair	40
Lufthansa	85
Total	1,175

3.3   Data Collection Procedure

A self-administered questionnaire survey was used for data collection in this research. According to Bryman and Bell (2015); Kothari (2004), this method is chosen for several reasons. First, it allows the researcher to reach larger number of respondents within a short period of time when compared to other methods. Moreover, it is convenient for respondents as they can fill the questionnaire whenever they are free. Furthermore, respondents have time to think carefully before giving answers without time pressure. In addition, it can avoid the bias of the interviewer because there is no intervention of the interviewer in filling out the questionnaire (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Kothari, 2004). A cover letter was attached to each questionnaire. It explains the objective of study and guarantees that the collected data will be treated confidentially and kept anonymous. The questionnaire with a cover letter and postage-paid envelops were distributed to respondents in person. For returning, the respondents returned the questionnaire directly to the researcher or by post. As previous researches showed that the incentives were found to increase the response rate (Edwards et al., 2002; James & Bolstein, 1990), the researcher promises to donate money to the selected charity by each respondent for each completed questionnaire. Moreover, the researcher has arranged four lucky draws with the prizes of THB 500 Starbucks cash coupon.

3.4   Measurement

The questionnaire will be developed by using the existing measurement scales that have been applied in prior researches. Coluci (2012); Hyman, Lamb, and Bulmer (2006) suggested that there are several advantages of using the existing scales. First, they have been used extensively in prior researches; thus, the validity and reliability of the scale was confirmed. Second, it saves cost and time. Third, the consistency of scales with existing researches makes the results comparable. All scales which were originally developed in the English language will be translated to the Thai language and then back-translated into English by translators to ensure the validity of questionnaire (Brislin, 1970).

3.4.1 **Cultural Intelligence**

The measurement of CQ is adopted from Soon Ang et al. (2007). Prior researches confirmed the satisfactory level of reliability and validity of this measurement scale (J. Bücker, Furrer, & Lin, 2015; L.-Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010). The scale consists of 20 items which are divided into 4 subscales. First, cognitive CQ is comprised of six items. Second, metacognitive CQ is comprised of four items. Third, motivational CQ comprises five items. Finally, behavioral CQ comprises five items. All items are measured using a five-point Likert scales (1: strongly disagree; 5: strongly agree).

The question items are listed below.

Cognitive CQ

1. I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures
2. I know the rules (e.g. vocabulary, grammar) of other languages
3. I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures
4. I know the marriage systems of other cultures
5. I know the arts and crafts of other cultures
6. I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviors in other cultures

Metacognitive CQ

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

Motivation CQ

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

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

   Behavioral CQ

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

3.4.2 **Relationship conflict**

The measurement of relationship conflict is adopted from a study of Jehn (1995). Prior researches confirmed the satisfactory level of reliability and validity of this measurement scale (Greenbaum et al., 2014). Respondents are asked to evaluate their relationship conflict with team of foreign cabin crew they worked with in the airline. The scale consists of 4 items, and they are measured using a five-point Likert scales (1: none; 5: a lot).

The question items are listed below.

1. How much friction is there between you and your team members?
2. How much are personality conflicts evident between you and your team members?
3. How much tension is there between you and your team members?
4. How much emotional conflict is there between you and your team members?

3.4.3 **Trust**

The measurement of trust is adopted from Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (1996). Prior researches confirmed the satisfactory level of reliability and validity of this measurement scale (Staples & Webster, 2008). Respondents are asked to evaluate their trust in a team of the foreign cabin crew they worked with in the airline. The

scale consists of 6 items and are measured using a five-point Likert scales (1: Strongly disagree; 5: strongly agree).

The question items are listed below.

1. Overall, I feel that I can trust my team members completely
2. If possible, I would not give the other team members any influence over issues that are important to our successful completion of team tasks (reverse coded)
3. I feel comfortable depending on my team members for the completion of team tasks
4. I am comfortable letting other team members take responsibility for tasks which are critical to the group even when I cannot monitor them
5. I feel that I will not be able to count on my team members to help me (reverse coded)
6. I wish I could oversee the work of the other team members (reverse coded)

3.4.4 Knowledge sharing

The measurement of knowledge sharing is adopted from a study of Connelly and Kevin Kelloway (2003). Prior research confirmed the satisfactory level of reliability and validity of this measurement scale (Staples & Webster, 2008). Respondents are asked to evaluate the knowledge sharing between them and the team of foreign cabin crew they worked with in the airline. The scale consists of 5 items. All items are measured using a five-point Likert scales (1: Strongly disagree; 5: strongly agree).

The question items are listed below.

1. People in this team keep their best ideas to themselves (reverse coded)
2. People in this team are willing to share knowledge/ideas with me
3. People in this team share their ideas with me openly
4. People in this team with expert knowledge are willing to help me
5. This team is good at using the knowledge/ideas of employees.

3.4.5 **Burnout**

The measurement of burnout is adopted from a study of Malach-Pines (2005). The scale is a short version that was modified from the 21-item original scale developed by A. Pines and Aronson (1988). The scale is chosen because it has been widely used and validated in samples from various occupations (Akar, 2018; Basar & Basim, 2016; Kelly, 2015; Koski, 2013; Lourel et al., 2015; Rawolle, Wallis, Badham, & Kehr, 2016; Shani & Pizam, 2009; Talih, Warakian, Ajaltouni, & Tamim, 2016; Yıldırım, 2015). Moreover, it was proven to reflect the 21-item original scale (Koski, 2013; Lourel, Gueguen, & Mouda, 2008). Respondents are asked to rate their feelings on their work settings. The scale consists of 10 items. All items are measured using a five-point Likert scales (1: never; 5: always).

The question items are listed below.

1. Tired
2. Disappointed with people
3. Hopeless
4. Trapped
5. Helpless
6. Depressed
7. Physically weak/Sickly
8. Workless/Like a failure
9. Difficulties sleeping
10. I've had it

3.5   Control Variables

Control variable is a factor which may influence the dependent variable, therefore the influence must be controlled (Salkind & Rainwater, 2003). In this research, some personal characteristics of cabin crew members and the characteristic of the job itself that can affect the level of job burnout are included as control variables. Personal characteristics are gender, marital status, local language proficiency, prior international experience in the country of airline's base, and working experience; job

characteristics are class of working, working hours and job demand. All of eight control variables were found to strongly influence the level of job burnout in prior researches (Hamama, 2012; P. S. Lau, Yuen, & Chan, 2005; L.-Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Lourel, Abdellaoui, et al., 2008; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Mukundan & Khandehroo, 2010; Nishimura et al., 2014; Suthatorn & Charoensukmongkol, 2018; Ulrey & Amason, 2001; Upadyaya, Vartiainen, & Salmela-Aro, 2016). The control variables will be presented as the following:

3.5.1 Gender

Research found that gender of cabin crew may correlate with their level of job burnout. For example, Antoniou, Polychroni, and Vlachakis (2006) presented that female employees tend to have an ability to cope with stress less than male employees. Studies of Lourel, Gueguen, et al. (2008) and Maslach and Jackson (1981) found that female employees tend to experience higher level of burnout than male employees. Gender will be measured by using a dummy variable which female will be coded as 0 and male will be coded as 1

3.5.2 Marital status

Cabin crew's marital status may correlate with their level of job burnout. Research showed that married employees tend to experience less burnout due to the emotional support from their family (Hamama, 2012). P. S. Lau et al. (2005)found that single employees experience higher level of burnout than married employees. Marital status will be measured by using a dummy variable which single will be coded as 0 and married will be coded as 1.

3.5.3 Local language proficiency

Cabin crew's local language proficiency may correlate with their level of job burnout. Poor local language skill tends to diminish the effective communication which could lead to stress (Chan, Wan, & Kuok, 2015). Research found that employees who can communicate in the local language experience lower levels of anxiety (Ulrey &

Amason, 2001). Local language proficiency will be measured by using a five-point Likert scales (1: very poor; 5: very good).

3.5.4 Prior education experience in the country of airline's base

Cabin crew's prior study experiences in the country of airline's base they work for may correlate with their level of job burnout. Prior educational experience in that country could enhance the ability of adjustment which may reduce the level of stress due to unfamiliar cultural settings (L.-Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010). Prior study experience in the country of airline's base was measured by number of years that the respondent had studied in the country of airline's base.

3.5.5 Prior working experience in the airline's base country

Cabin crew's prior working experience in the country of airline's base they work for may correlate with their level of job burnout. Prior working experience in that country could help to cope with the uncertain and unfamiliar settings which help to lower the level of stress (Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun, & Lepak, 2005). Prior working experience in the country of the airline's base was measured by number of years that the respondent had worked in the country of airline's base.

3.5.6 Working experiences

Cabin crew's years of working experiences may correlate with their level of job burnout. According to Maslach and Jackson (1981), employees tend to experience burnout during the first few years of their careers. Moreover, Boyas and Wind (2010) presented that experienced employees are better in handling job demands or workloads than less experienced employees. A study of Hamama (2012) found that the fewer the number of working years, the higher the level of burnout. Working experiences will be measured by number of years.

3.5.7 Class of working

Cabin crew's class of working may correlate with their level of job burnout. Gudykunst (2004) pointed out that the larger the numbers of passengers in economy class, the more the unfamiliar intercultural interaction the cabin crew members may face which could lead to job stress. Research showed that cabin crews working in economy class tends to experience higher levels of job stress (Suthatorn & Charoensukmongkol, 2018). Class of working will be measured by using a dummy variable in which economy class will be coded as 0 and non-economy class (business/first) will be coded as 1.

3.5.8 **Working hours**

Working hours is the work factor which may correlate with cabin crew members' level of burnout. Cabin crew members who work more hours are more likely to experience fatigue and exhaustion (Rosskam et al., 2009). From their study, Mukundan and Khandehroo (2010); Nishimura et al. (2014) found that working hours is positively related with burnout. Working hours will be measured by number of hours per roster.

3.5.9 **Job demands**

Level of job demands for cabin crew may correlate with their level of job burnout. According to Alarcon (2011), employees who are unable to handle their job demands tend to experience burnout. Studies of Lourel, Abdellaoui, et al. (2008); Upadyaya et al. (2016) found that there is a positive relationship between job demands and burnout. The Job Content Questionnaire (JCQ) survey developed by Karasek et al. (1998) will be used to measure job demands in term of quantitative workload. Prior researches confirmed the satisfactory level of reliability and validity of this measurement scale (C.-F. Chen & Chen, 2012; C.-F. Chen & Kao, 2012a; de Araújo PhD, 2008; Edimansyah, Rusli, Naing, & Mazalisah, 2006).

3.6   Estimation Method

Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) will be used as a tool to analyze the proposed hypotheses. It has been used in various research areas such as management control systems (Baird & Su, 2018), information systems (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003), environmental management (Latan et al., 2018), and total quality management (Imran et al., 2018). PLS-SEM is a variance-based structural equation modeling (Garson, 2016). It provides several benefits. PLS-SEM can predict several dependent variables from a set of one or more independent variables. PLS-SEM does not require large sample sizes in comparison to other techniques. Also, PLS-SEM is able to handle non-normally distributed data. In addition, PLS-SEM allows to test multiple hypotheses simultaneously. Moreover, PLS-SEM can measure both formative and reflective scales (Garson, 2016). Accordingly, PLS-SEM is appropriate for this study and WarpPLS will be used to perform the analysis in this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter shows the characteristics of data, including the demographic statistics of respondents. In addition, it presents how the data was prepared. Finally, it reports the results from hypotheses testing.

4.1 Data

The data were collected from August to October 2018. The 1,000 questionnaires were sent out and, at the end, total 320 questionnaires were available for analysis which is a yield of 32 percent response rate. Some questionnaires have missing data; however, each variable has less than 10 percent of missing data. Therefore, these missing data were replaced by the column mean (Little & Rubin, 2014). Personal and job characteristics of respondents are presented in table 4.1 to 4.7.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics

4.2.1 Personal characteristics

Respondents consisted of 278 female (86.88%) and 42 male (13.13%) cabin crew members. 266 cabin crew members are single (83.13%) and 54 are married (16.88%). The majority of cabin crew members finished their bachelors' degree. There are 2 cabin crew members getting below bachelors' degree (0.63%), 266 getting bachelors' degree (83.13%), 51 getting master's degree (15.94%). One of the cabin crew members did not report his/her education level (0.31%). The gender, marital status, and education level of respondents are shown in table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Respondents' Gender, Marital Status, and Education Level

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	278	86.88%
	Male	42	13.12%
Marital status	Single	266	83.13%
	Married	54	16.88%
Education Level	Below Bachelors' degree	2	0.63%
	Bachelors' degree	266	83.13%
	Master's degree	51	15.94%
	Doctoral degree	0	0.00%
	Not specify	1	0.31%

The respondents' ages ranged from 23 to 51 years with a mean value of 33.93 (standard deviation = 7.09). One respondent did not report his/her age (0.31%). Their years of service in the present airline ranged from 1 to 26 years with a mean value of 8.29 (standard deviation = 6.46). 2 respondents did not report their tenure (0.62%). The age and tenure are shown in table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Respondents' Age and Tenure

	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Age (year)	23	51	33.93	7.09
Tenure (year)	1	26	8.29	6.46

In terms of the prior work and study experience abroad, most of them have never studied or worked in the country of airline's base before. There are 9 cabin crew members who (2.81%) have studied in the country of airline's base before. One cabin crew (0.31%) did not mention his/her prior study experience in the country of airline's base. The maximum studying period they spent is 3 years with the mean value of 0.04

(standard deviation = 0.29). There are 8 cabin crew members (2.50%) who have worked in the country of the airline's base before. One cabin crew (0.31%) did not mention his/her prior working experience in the country of airline's base. The maximum working period is 5 years with the mean value of 0.06 (standard deviation = 0.44). Their prior international experience in the country of airline's base are shown in table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Respondents' Prior International Experience in the Country of the Airline's
Base

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Education experience	Yes	9	2.81%
	No	310	96.88%
	Not specify	1	0.31%
Working experience	Yes	8	2.50%
	No	311	97.19%
	Not specify	1	0.31%
		Min	Max	Mean	SD
Education experience (year)		0	3	0.04	0.29
Working experience (year)		0	5	0.06	0.44

Regarding the airlines' local language proficiency, Thai cabin crew members working with Japan airlines have the highest capability to communicate the airline's local language with the mean value of 2.66 (standard deviation = 1.07). The data shows that most of them are able to interact in Japanese. This could be explained by some reasons. First, the Japanese language course is popular in Thailand both in and after school time. Second, Japanese is an advantage for candidates during recruitment process. Third, the selected candidates are required to take Japanese courses provided by the airline. Given these reasons, they are quite familiar with Japanese. On the other hand, Thai cabin crew members working with Finnair have the lowest capability

to communicate the airline's local language with the mean value of 1.48 (Standard deviation = 0.68). The data shows that most of them are quite poor on interactions in Finnish. Airlines' local language proficiency of Thai cabin crew members are presented in table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Airlines' Local Language Proficiency of Respondents

	Mean	SD
Kenya Airways	1.61	0.91
Korean Air	2.35	0.48
Japan Airlines	2.66	1.07
Eva Air	2.57	1.10
China Airlines	2.65	1.15
Finnair	1.48	0.68
Lufthansa	1.80	1.05

4.2.2 **Work-related characteristics**

Respondents are hired by 7 foreign airlines: 49 by Kenya Airways (15.31%), 51 by Korean Air (15.69%), 64 by Japan Airlines (15.97%), 47 by Eva Air (14.69%), 43 by China Airlines (13.44%), 31 by Finnair (9.69%), and 35 by Lufthansa (10.94%). There are 189 cabin crew members working in economy class cabin (59.06%) and 128 working in business/first class cabin (40.00%). 3 cabin crew members did not report their class of working (0.94%). The number of respondents hired by each airline and their class of working are shown in table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Respondents Hired by Each Airline and Their Class of Working

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Airlines	Kenya Airways	49	15.31%
	Korean Air	51	15.94%
	Japan Airlines	64	20.00%
	Eva Air	47	14.69%
	China Airlines	43	13.44%
	Finnair	31	9.69%
	Lufthansa	35	10.94%
Class of working	Economy class	189	59.06%
	Business/First class	128	40.00%
	Not specify	3	0.94%

In the matter of their working hours, their working hours per month ranged from 50 to 120 hours with a mean value of 77.50 (standard deviation = 9.72). There are 12 respondents who did not report their working hours (3.75%). Cabin crew members' working hours are presented in table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Respondents' Working Hours

	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Working hours (per month)	50	120	77.50	9.72

In terms of the percentage of Thai cabin crew members in team, the percentage ranged from 6.25 to 45.45 with a mean value of 22.11 (standard deviation = 7.28). The data shows that the number of Thai cabin crews are approximately 20 percent of total team members. They are much less than the local cabin crew members. Korean Air has the minimum percentage of Thai cabin crew members in team which is 11.35 (standard deviation = 5.000). China Airlines has the maximum percentage of Thai

cabin crew in team which is 27.53 (standard deviation = 8.09). The details are reported in table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Percentage of Thai Cabin Crew Members in Team

	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Percentage of Thai cabin crew members in team	6.25	45.45	22.11	7.28
By Airline:				
Kenya Airways	18.18	37.50	25.15	4.35
Korean Air	6.25	33.33	11.35	5.00
Japan Airlines	18.18	33.33	24.40	4.64
Eva Air	8.33	33.33	23.73	5.74
China Airlines	16.67	45.45	27.53	8.09
Finnair	16.67	22.22	19.18	1.41
Lufthansa	16.67	33.33	23.23	4.88

4.3 Normal distribution

Two tests are conducted to assess the data distribution: the Jarque-Bera test (Normal-JB) and the Robust Jarque-Bera test (Normal-RJB) (Jarque & Bera, 1980). The results showed that two main variables, relationship conflict and burnout, have non-normally distributed data. In addition, all control variables, which are job demands, gender, marital status, airline's base local language proficiency, prior education and working experience in airline's base country, tenure, class of working and working hours, also have non-normally distributed data. These evidences confirmed that Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) is appropriate for this study (Garson, 2016). The results are reported in table 4.8. In addition, the histograms of data distribution are shown in figure 2.

Table 4.8 The Normalization of the Data

	Normal-JB	Normal-RJB
CQ	Yes	Yes
RC	No	No
TRUST	Yes	Yes
KS	Yes	Yes
BO	No	No
JD	No	No
GEN	No	No
STATUS	No	No
LANG	No	No
EDUEX	No	No
WORKEX	No	No
TENURE	No	No
CLS	No	No
HR	No	No

Notes:

- CQ = Cultural intelligence, RC = Relationship conflict, KS = Knowledge sharing, BO = Burnout, JD = Job demand, GEN = Gender, Status = Marital status, LANG = Airline's base local language proficiency, EDUEX = Prior education experience in Airline's base country, WORKEX = Prior working experience in Airline's base country, CLS = Class of working, HR = Working hours
- Yes = Data has normal distribution, No = Data has non-normal distribution
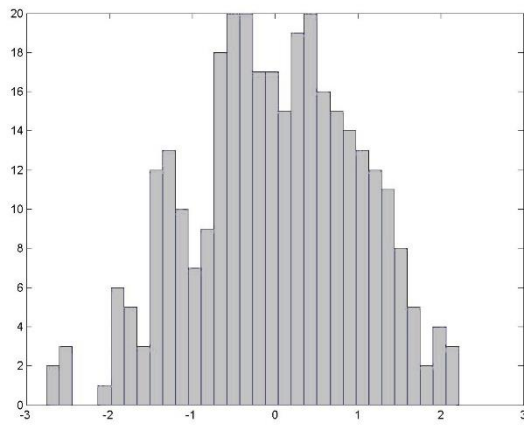
Cultural intelligence
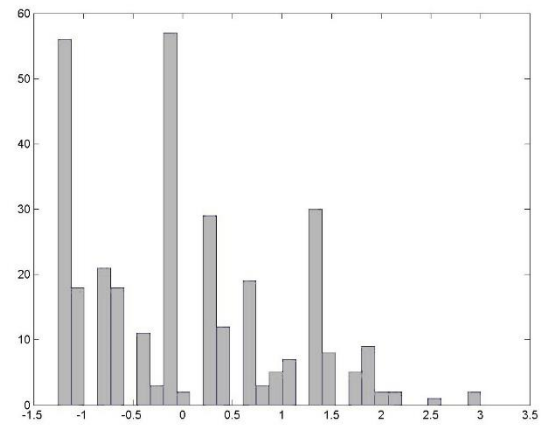
Relationship conflict
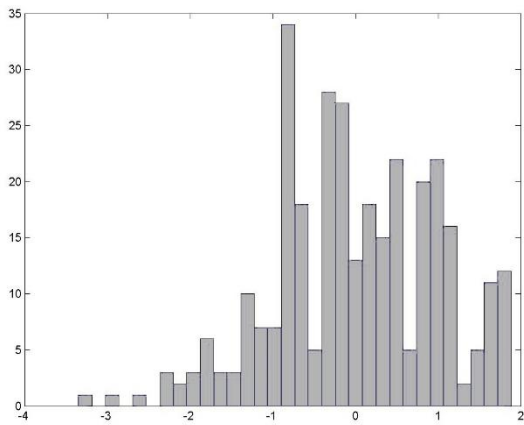
Trust
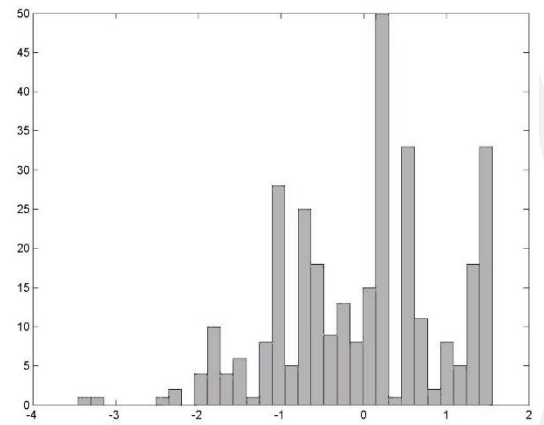
Knowledge sharing
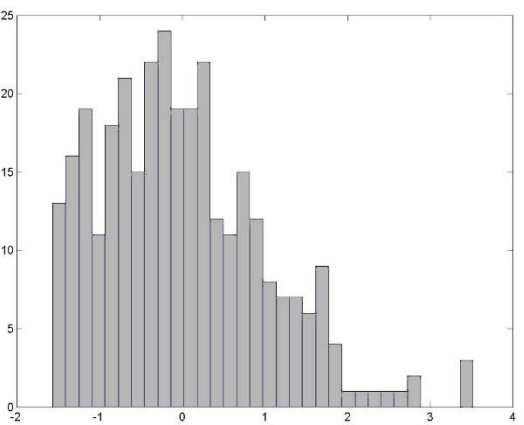
Burnout
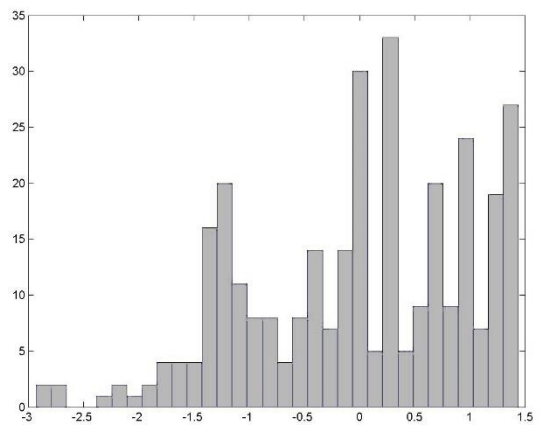
Job demand
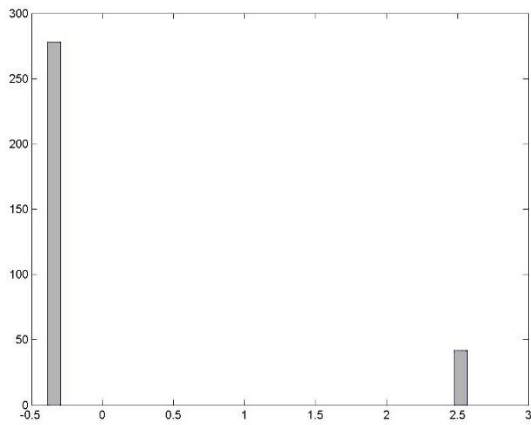
Gender
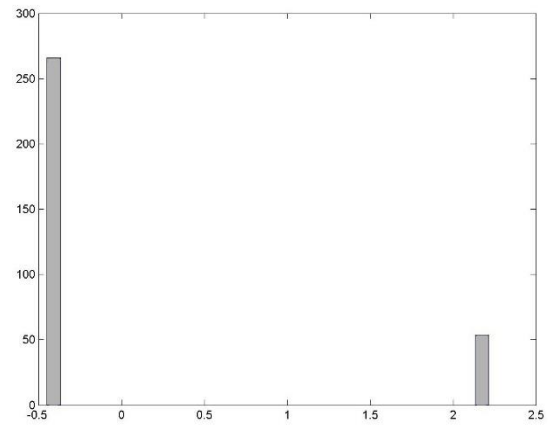
Marital Status
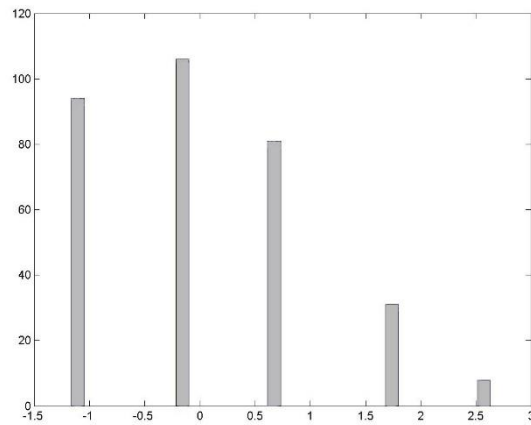
Airline's base local language proficiency
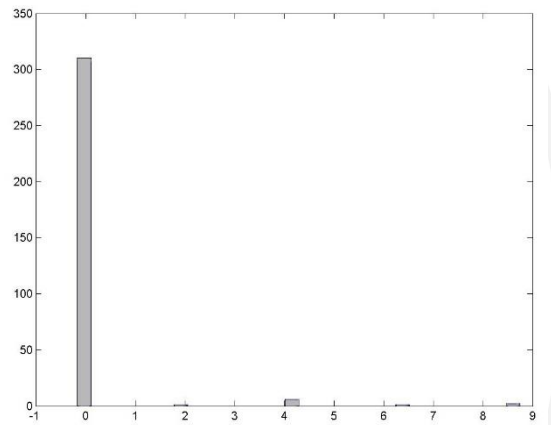
Prior education experience in Airline's base country
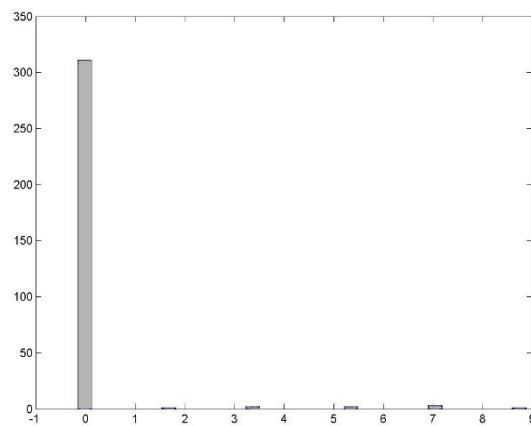
Prior working experience in Airline's base

Tenure

country

Class of working   Working hour
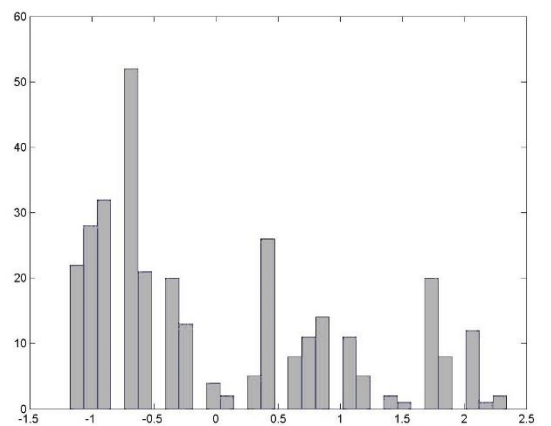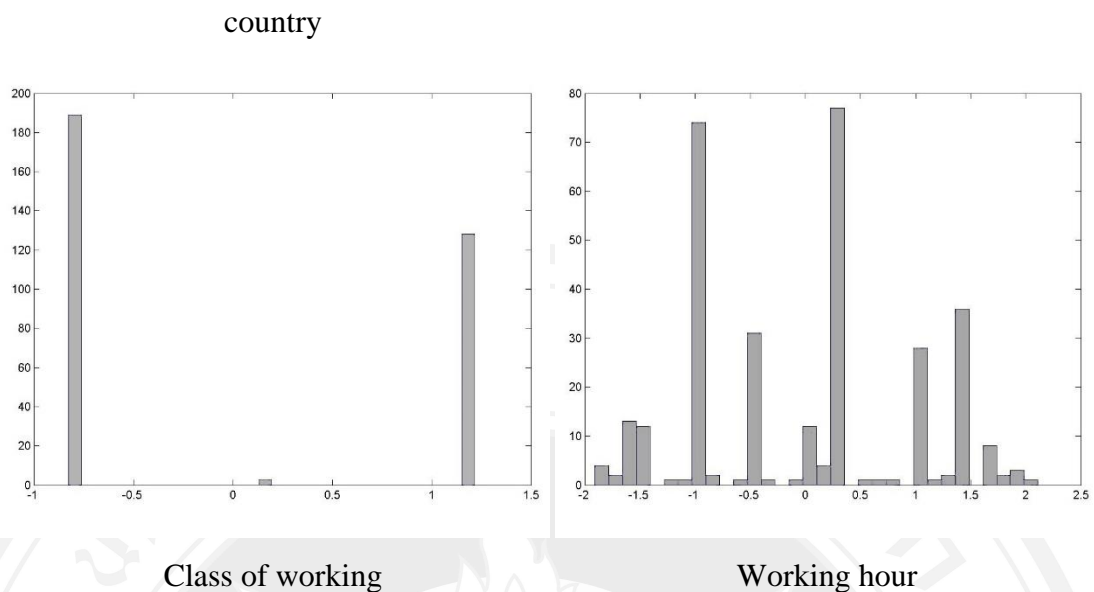
Figure 2.2 The Histograms for Data Distribution

4.4   Model assessment

Before estimating the model, a set of analyses have been performed to ensure that the data has the validity and reliability at the acceptable level. In this study, two types of validity test that are convergent and discriminant validity will be conducted. In addition, Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability are performed for the reliability test.

4.4.1 **Validity test**

The validity test was conducted to ensure that the scales that have been used in this study measure what they are intended to measure (Kothari, 2004; Sreejesh, Mohapatra, & Anusree, 2014). Two types of validity were tested: convergent and discriminant validity

4.4.1.1   Convergent validity

According to Sreejesh et al. (2014, p. 118), convergent validity is "the extent of correlation among different measures that are intended to measure the same concept". The level of validity will be high if the questions which measure the same variable are

highly correlated (Sekaran, 2003). In this study, convergent validity is tested using factor loading. Chin (1998) suggested that the value should be greater than 0.70. However, Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, and Mena (2012) pointed out that 0.50 is the minimum value for an adequate model. The result of factor loadings showed that most of the variables have the loadings greater than 0.70. The results are reported in table 4.9. However, one item of job demand (JD5) has the loading lower than 0.50 and was removed from the analysis. This question refers to the tendency to have multiple tasks to perform simultaneously. Although there are lots of demands at the same time, cabin crew members can prioritize and complete their job within the timeline. For example, when a passenger requests drinking water while cabin crew members are performing the cabin checks in preparation for landing, cabin crew members are aware that the safety duty takes priority over the service duty; therefore, they can reject a passenger's request and continue with the safety duty. Once done, they can respond to a passengers' requests later. This could be an example that explains why the multitasking aspect of job demands tend to be unlikely for the cabin crew job.

Table 4.9 The Normalized Combined Factor Loading and Cross-Loadings

	CQ	RC	TRUST	KS	BO	JD
CCQ1	**(0.755)**	-0.159	-0.028	-0.236	-0.010	0.145
CCQ2	**(0.743)**	-0.043	-0.023	0.090	0.124	-0.050
CCQ3	**(0.796)**	0.048	-0.185	0.103	0.008	0.141
CCQ4	**(0.793)**	-0.180	-0.195	-0.149	0.024	0.240
CCQ5	**(0.730)**	-0.115	-0.169	-0.105	-0.033	0.216
CCQ6	**(0.785)**	0.133	0.113	0.029	0.027	0.121
MCCQ1	**(0.780)**	-0.020	0.119	0.004	0.129	0.003
MCCQ2	**(0.701)**	0.003	0.234	0.109	0.070	0.160
MCCQ3	**(0.722)**	0.026	0.046	0.203	0.021	0.133
MCCQ4	**(0.799)**	0.085	0.049	0.033	-0.014	0.034
MCQ1	**(0.727)**	0.163	0.224	0.016	-0.101	-0.081
MCQ2	**(0.723)**	0.055	0.134	-0.076	-0.145	-0.116
MCQ3	**(0.679)**	-0.123	0.003	0.115	-0.040	-0.156
MCQ4	**(0.765)**	0.078	-0.027	0.045	-0.088	-0.119
MCQ5	**(0.768)**	-0.216	0.008	-0.092	0.143	0.090
BCQ1	**(0.795)**	0.170	-0.025	0.023	-0.083	-0.122
BCQ2	**(0.800)**	-0.075	-0.053	-0.016	0.061	-0.047

	CQ	RC	TRUST	KS	BO	JD
BCQ3	**(0.806)**	0.006	-0.040	-0.053	-0.018	0.002
BCQ4	**(0.842)**	-0.029	-0.096	-0.081	0.043	-0.077
BCQ5	**(0.845)**	-0.017	-0.157	-0.087	-0.016	-0.127
RC1	0.014	**(0.750)**	-0.022	-0.003	-0.089	0.003
RC2	0.023	**(0.780)**	0.024	0.055	-0.063	-0.033
RC3	-0.023	**(0.719)**	-0.010	0.025	0.047	0.061
RC4	-0.019	**(0.694)**	0.008	-0.093	0.132	-0.032
TRUST1	-0.095	0.279	**(0.728)**	0.273	-0.129	-0.030
TRUST2	-0.064	-0.162	**(0.738)**	-0.225	-0.029	-0.012
TRUST3	-0.003	0.096	**(0.736)**	0.220	0.113	-0.005
TRUST4	0.135	0.019	**(0.709)**	0.063	0.097	-0.055
TRUST5	-0.045	-0.098	**(0.702)**	-0.092	-0.104	0.085
TRUST6	0.037	-0.088	**(0.752)**	-0.197	0.020	0.011
KS1	0.060	-0.521	0.260	**(0.565)**	-0.223	-0.112
KS2	-0.024	0.106	-0.062	**(0.769)**	-0.009	-0.010
KS3	0.029	0.042	-0.060	**(0.751)**	0.038	-0.028
KS4	-0.069	0.050	-0.034	**(0.754)**	-0.022	0.024
KS5	0.047	0.028	0.056	**(0.731)**	0.106	0.075
BO1	-0.144	-0.034	0.217	0.000	**(0.751)**	0.294
BO2	-0.023	0.151	0.004	-0.005	**(0.708)**	-0.026
BO3	-0.039	-0.082	-0.121	0.106	**(0.746)**	-0.101
BO4	0.020	-0.098	-0.193	0.083	**(0.734)**	-0.123
BO5	0.060	0.276	-0.127	0.061	**(0.683)**	0.020
BO6	-0.090	0.160	0.188	-0.112	**(0.705)**	0.146
BO7	0.023	-0.104	0.104	-0.061	**(0.792)**	0.000
BO8	-0.033	-0.061	-0.154	0.102	**(0.731)**	-0.148
BO9	0.167	-0.059	0.071	-0.087	**(0.781)**	-0.036
BO10	0.084	-0.063	0.038	-0.111	**(0.748)**	0.015
JD1	0.020	-0.053	-0.114	0.063	-0.026	**(0.933)**
JD2	0.002	-0.018	0.091	-0.039	-0.048	**(0.921)**
JD3	-0.011	0.033	-0.077	0.085	-0.048	**(0.921)**
JD4	-0.013	0.042	0.138	-0.146	0.152	**(0.881)**

Note: CQ = Cultural intelligence, CCQ = Cognitive CQ, MCCQ = Metecognitive CQ, MCQ = Motivational CQ, BCQ = Behavioral CQ, RC = Relationship conflict, KS = Knowledge sharing, BO = Burnout, JD = Job demands

4.4.1.2 Discriminant validity

According to Sreejesh et al. (2014, p. 118), discriminant validity "denotes the lack of or low correlation among the constructs that are supposed to be different". The level

of validity will be high if the questions which measure different variables are uncorrelated (Sekaran, 2003). In this study, discriminant validity is tested by comparing the square root of average variance extracted (AVE) which should be higher than its correlation with any other variables (Garson, 2016). The result showed that the square root of AVE of each variable is higher than its correlation with other variables. Therefore, the measurements using in this study have discriminant validity. The results are reported in table 4.10.
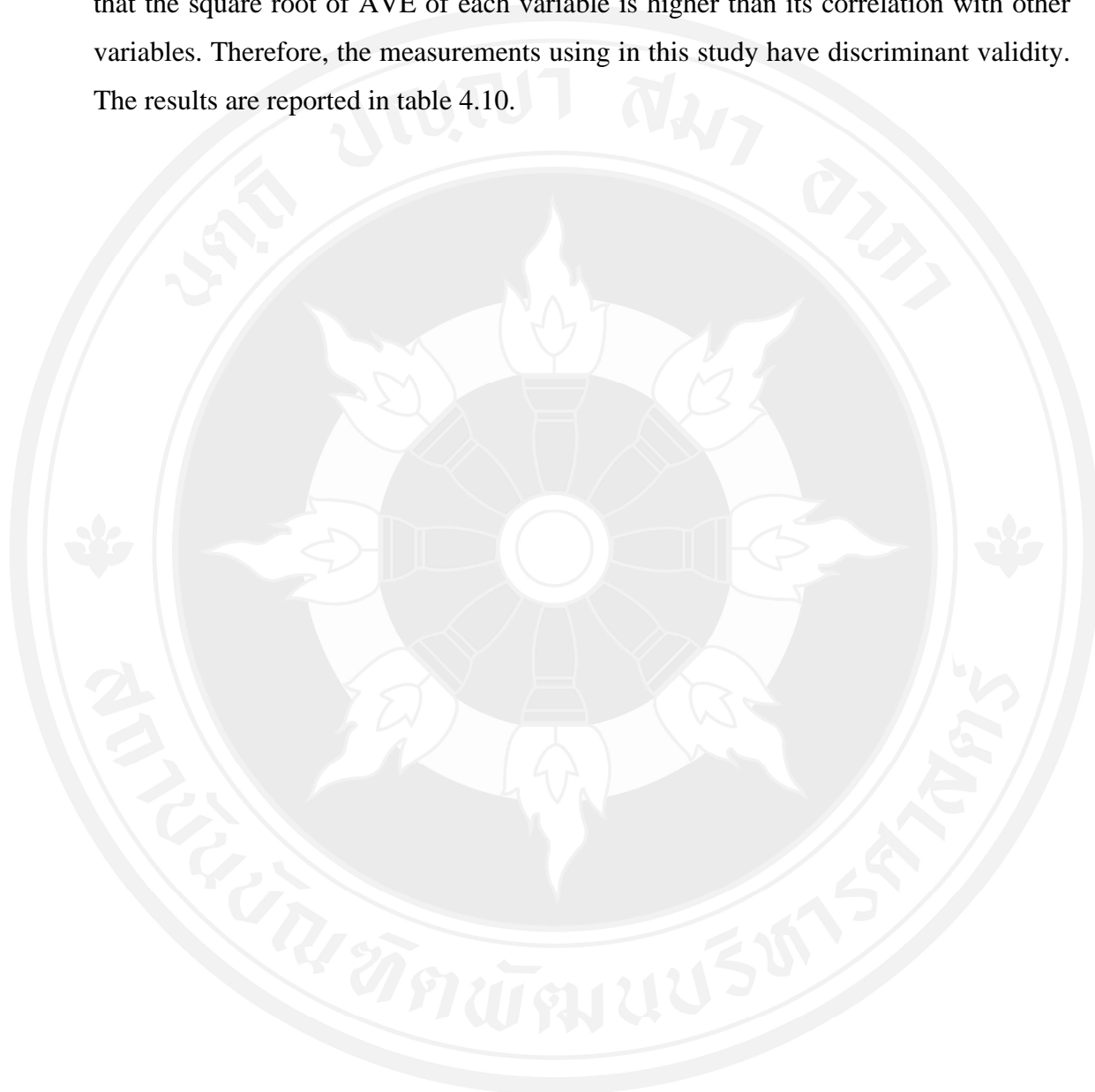
Table 4.10 Variable Correlations and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

	CQ	RC	TRUST	KS	BO	JD	GEN	STATUS	LANG	EDUEX	WORKEX	TENURE	CLS	HR
CQ	**(0.627)**													
RC	-0.300***	**(0.877)**												
TRUST	0.417***	-0.430***	**(0.776)**											
KS	0.416***	-0.496***	0.541***	**(0.861)**										
BO	-0.317***	0.541***	-0.442***	-0.383***	**(0.75**4)									
JD	0.154	0.077	-0.066	0.048	0.252**	**(0.830)**								
GEN	0.004	0.062	-0.044	-0.055	0.001	-0.159**	**(1.000)**							
STATUS	0.004	0.025	0.039	0.100	0.016	0.054	-0.101	**(1.000)**						
LANG	0.175**	0.055	0.081	-0.035	0.040	0.096	0.012	-0.018	**(1.000)**					
EDUEX	0.098	-0.020	0.036	0.006	-0.025	-0.069	-0.065	0.111	0.149**	**(1.000)**				
WORKEX	0.074	0.019	0.026	0.049	-0.022	-0.001	-0.062	0.034	0.084	0.441***	**(1.000)**			
TENURE	-0.040	0.096	0.008	-0.054	0.079	-0.107	0.173	0.248***	-0.024	0.048	-0.044	**(1.000)**		
CLS	-0.043	-0.017	0.048	0.057	0.018	-0.058	0.038	0.259***	-0.058	-0.024	-0.050	0.512***	**(1.000)**	
HR	-0.050	-0.030	0.021	0.073	0.026	0.037	-0.090	-0.034	0.004	0.006	-0.025	-0.261***	-0.017	**(1.000)**

Notes:

- CQ = Cultural intelligence, RC = Relationship conflict, KS = Knowledge sharing, BO = Burnout, JD = Job demands, GEN = Gender, Status = Marital status, LANG = Local language proficiency, EDUEX = Education experience in Airline's base country, WORKEX = Working experience in Airline's base country, CLS = Class of working, HR = Working hour
- * is p-value < 0.05, ** is p-value < 0.01, *** is p value < 0.001
- Square root of AVE is presented in parentheses.

4.4.2 **Reliability test**

According to Salkind (2013, p. 115), reliability occurs "when a test measures the same thing more than once and results in the same outcomes". Two types of reliability were tested: Cronbach's alpha coefficient and Composite reliability.

4.4.2.1 Cronbach's alpha coefficient

Cronbach's alpha coefficient determines the internal consistency of data to indicate the reliability. According to Sreejesh et al. (2014, p. 115), "internal consistency of data can be established when the data give the same results even after some manipulation". Kock (2017) recommended that the minimum value should be 0.70. The results showed that the values of Cronbach's alpha coefficient are higher than 0.8. Therefore, the measures in this study have a good level of reliability. The values are shown in table 4.11.

4.4.2.2 Composite reliability

Composite reliability measures the reliability by including indicator loadings in the calculation (Kock, 2017). Hair et al. (2012) suggested that the value should be higher than 0.70 and its value should be slightly higher than Cronbach's alpha (Garson, 2016). The results showed that the values of composite reliability are higher than 0.8 and higher than the values of Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Therefore, the measures in this study have a good level of reliability. The results are presented in table 4.11.

4.4.3 **Multicollinearity**

According to Garson (2016, p. 71), a multicollinearity problem exists "when two or more independent variables are highly intercorrelated". Therefore, respondents tend to perceive that questions measuring the two variables measure the same thing (Kock & Lynn, 2012). The variance inflation factor (VIF) is used as the threshold (Kock & Lynn, 2012). The problem exists if the value of VIF is higher than 3.3 (Kock, 2017).In this study, full VIF was conducted and the results showed that the VIF values of all variables are lower than 3.3. Therefore, multicollinearity is not a serious problem in this model. The values are shown in table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient, Composite Reliability, and Full VIF

	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite reliability	Full VIF statistics
CQ	0.916	0.927	1.463
RC	0.900	0.930	1.694
TRUST	0.867	0.901	1.682
KS	0.910	0.934	1.773
BO	0.914	0.929	1.712
JD	0.847	0.898	1.225
GEN	1.000	1.000	1.094
STATUS	1.000	1.000	1.153
LANG	1.000	1.000	1.093
EDUEX	1.000	1.000	1.317
WORKEX	1.000	1.000	1.264
TENURE	1.000	1.000	1.616
CLS	1.000	1.000	1.444
HR	1.000	1.000	1.117

Note:

- CQ = Cultural intelligence, RC = Relationship conflict, KS = Knowledge sharing, BO = Burnout, JD = Job demands, GEN = Gender, Status = Marital status, LANG = Airline's base local language proficiency, EDUEX = Prior education experience in Airline's base country, WORKEX = Prior working experience in Airline's base country, CLS = Class of working, HR = Working hour

4.5 Test of hypotheses

There are seven hypotheses proposed in this study. The results from PLS-SEM analysis will be reported in this section. Several measurements terms are used to explain the results. First, the path analysis reflects the direction and strength of relationships between variables. Beta coefficient (β) is used to refer to the path coefficient in PLS-SEM analysis (Salkind, 2013). Positive beta coefficient presents positive relationship between variables. The closer the value to absolute 1, the stronger the relationship (Garson, 2016). Second, the p-value "shows the

corresponding significance (probability) levels for the path Garson (2016, p. 111). It indicates whether the null hypothesis is rejected. If p-value is less than 0.05 (5%), the null hypothesis is rejected which means the relationship is statistically significant. The beta coefficients are estimated through the bootstrapping resampling algorithm. According to Kock (2017, p. 35), bootstrapping "employs a resampling algorithm that creates a number of resamples" It randomly selects original dataset to generate more subsamples. This study applied bootstrapping with 100 no. of resamples which is recommended by Efron, Rogosa, and Tibshirani (2001). The result from the PLS-SEM analysis are shown in figure 3.

Notes:

- p-value: *** < 0.001, ** < 0.01, * <0.05
- Solid lines are significant path, Dashed lines are non-significant path
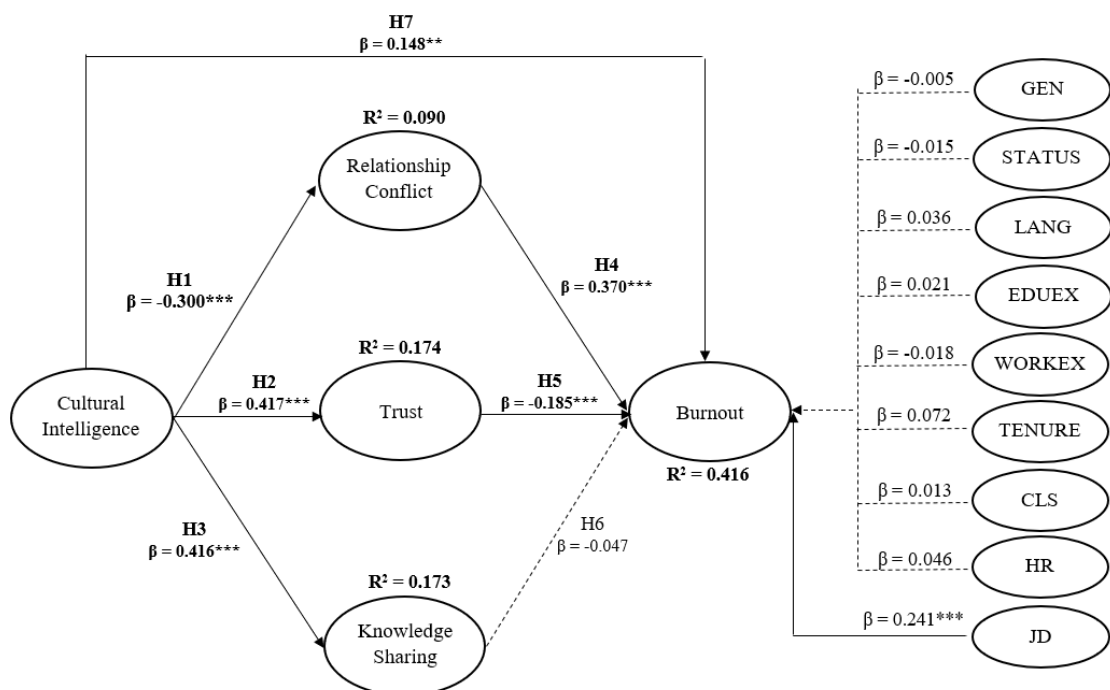- CQ = Cultural intelligence, RC = Relationship conflict, KS = Knowledge sharing, BO = Burnout, JD = Job demands, GEN = Gender, Status = Marital status, LANG = Airline's base local language proficiency, EDUEX = Prior education experience in Airline's base country, WORKEX = Prior working experience in Airline's base country, CLS = Class of working, HR = Working hour

Figure 3.1 Main Model Results

Hypothesis 1 proposed that CQ is negatively associated with relationship conflict among team members from different cultures. The result confirmed that there is a significantly negative relationship between them (β = -0.300; p < .001). The finding suggests that Thai cabin crew members with higher CQ tend to have lower relationship conflict with team members from different cultures. Thus, hypothesis 1 is supported.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that CQ is positively associated with trust among team members from different cultures. The results confirmed that there is a significantly positive relationship between them (β = 0.417; p < .001). The finding suggests that Thai cabin crew members with higher CQ tend to have higher levels of trust in team members from different cultures. Thus, hypothesis 2 is supported

Hypothesis 3 proposed that CQ is positively associated with knowledge sharing among team members from different cultures. The results confirmed that there is a significantly positive relationship between them (β = 0.416; p < .001). The finding suggests that Thai cabin crew members with higher CQ tend to exhibit higher knowledge sharing with team members from different cultures. Thus, hypothesis 3 is supported

Hypothesis 4 proposed that relationship conflict among team members is positively associated with job burnout. The result confirmed that there is a significantly positive relationship between them (β = 0.370; p < .001). The finding suggests that Thai cabin crew members who had high level of relationship conflict with team members tend to experience high level of burnout. Thus, hypothesis 4 is supported.

Hypothesis 5 proposed that trust among team members is negatively associated with job burnout. The results confirmed that there is a significantly negative relationship between them (β = -0.185; p = .001). The finding suggests that Thai cabin crew members who had high levels of trust with team members tend to experience low levels of burnout. Thus, hypothesis 5 is supported.

Hypothesis 6 proposed that knowledge sharing among team members is negatively associated with job burnout. The result showed the negative relationship between them. It presents that Thai cabin crew members who had knowledge sharing with

team members tend to experience low level of burnout. However, their relationship is not significant (β = -0.047; p = 0.269). Thus, hypothesis 6 is not supported.

Hypothesis 7 proposed that CQ is negatively associated with job burnout. The result showed that there is a significantly negative relationship between them (β = -0.148; p = .009). The finding suggests that Thai cabin crew members with higher CQ tend to experience lower level of burnout. Thus, hypotheses 7 is supported

In addition to the main hypotheses proposed, the relationships between control variables and burnout are found as follows. Regarding the first control variable which is gender, the results showed that female cabin crew members tend to experience a higher level of burnout than male cabin crew members (β = -0.005; p = 0.463). Regarding the second control variable which is status, the result showed that single cabin crew members tend to experience higher levels of burnout than married cabin crew members (β = -0.015, p = 0.363). Regarding the third control variable, which is the airline's local language proficiency, the result showed that the cabin crew members who are more proficient in airline's local language tend to experience higher levels of burnout (β = 0.036; p = 0.242). Regarding the fourth control variable, which is prior education experience in airline's base country, the result showed that cabin crew members who have more prior educational experience in the airline's base country tend to experience higher levels of burnout (β = 0.021; p = 0.312). Regarding the fifth control variable, which is prior working experience in airline's base country, the result showed that cabin crew members who have more prior working experience in airline's base country tend to experience lower levels of burnout (β = -0.018; p = 0.355). Regarding the sixth control variable, which is tenure, the result showed that cabin crew members who worked longer in the airline tend to experience higher levels of burnout (β = 0.072; p = 0.100). Regarding the seventh control variable, which is class of working, the results showed that cabin crew members who work in economy class tend to experience higher levels of burnout than cabin crew members who work in business/first class (β = 0.013; p = 0.406). Regarding the eighth control variable, which is working hour per month, the results showed that cabin crew members who work more hours per month tend to experience higher levels of burnout (β = 0.046; p = 0.139). Regarding the last control variable, which is job demands, the results

showed that job demands have a significantly positive relationship with the level of burnout (β = 0.241; p < 0.001). In conclusion, out of nine control variables, only job demand has a significant positive relationship with burnout.

R-square coefficient reflects the percentage of dependent variables that can be explained by the independent variables (Sekaran, 2003). The higher the value of R-square coefficient, the higher the explanation power. The analysis showed that cultural intelligence can explain 9 percent of relationship conflict, 17.4 percent of trust, and 17.3 percent of knowledge sharing. The analysis also showed that all the independent variables, that include cultural intelligence, relationship conflict, trust, and knowledge sharing, can predict 41.6 percent of burnout.

In addition to the analyses of the model proposed, the total effects of CQ on job burnout was analyzed. According to Kock (2017), the total effects relate to all latent variables that are correlated by one or more paths with more than one segment. It is equal to the direct effect plus the sum of indirect effects. "Total effects can be critical in the evaluation the downstream effects of latent variables that are mediated by other latent variables, especially in complex models with multiple mediating effects along concurrent paths" Kock (2017, p. 80). The results confirmed that the total effect of CQ of cabin crew members on their job burnout is negative and statistically significant (β = -0.356; p < .001). The finding suggested that relationship conflict, trust, and knowledge sharing strongly explain why cabin crew members with high CQ experience have a lower level of job burnout. The results described that cabin crew members with high CQ tend to experience lower levels of job burnout when they exhibit less relationship conflict as well as a higher level of trust and knowledge sharing with their team members.

4.6 Model fit indices

Apart from the model assessment and hypotheses testing, the model fit and quality indices have been analyzed. According to Kock (2017, p. 61), the model fit indices "allow investigators to assess the fit between the model-implied and empirical

indicator correlation matrices". Ten global models fit and quality indices are conducted by WarpPLS 6.0. The results are shown in table 4.12.

4.6.1 **Average path coefficient (APC)**

Average path coefficient (APC) reflects the strength of the relationship in the overall model and is calculated based on the absolute values of the path coefficients (Kock, 2017). As recommended, its p-values should be equal to or lower than 0.05. The results showed that the value of APC is 0.147 with p-value < 0.001. Thus, APC is statistically significant.

4.6.2 **Average R-squared (ARS)**

According to Henseler and Sarstedt (2013, p. 570), average R-squared (ARS) is "an index measuring the predictive performance of the structural model". As recommended, its p-value should be equal to or lower than 0.05 (Kock, 2017). The results showed that the value of ARS is 0.213 with p-value < 0.001. Thus, ARS is statistically significant.

4.6.3 **Average adjusted R-squared (AARS)**

According to Kock (2017, p. 62), average adjusted R-squared (AARS) "corrects for spurious increases in R-squared coefficients due to predictors that add no explanatory value in each latent variable block". As recommended, its p-value should be equal to or lower than 0.05 (Kock, 2017). The results showed that the value of AARS is 0.205 with p-value < 0.001. Thus, AARS is statistically significant.

4.6.4 **Average Variance inflation factor (AVIF)**

Average Variance inflation factor (AVIF) index measures the vertical collinearity in the model (Kock, 2017). As recommended, its value is acceptable if equal to or lower than 5.5 and is ideal when equals to lower than 3.3 (Kock, 2017).. The results showed

that the value of AVIF index is 1.345. Thus, the collinearity in this model is ideally acceptable.

4.6.5 **Average full variance inflation factor (AFVIF)**

Average full variance inflation factor (AFVIF) index measures both vertical and lateral collinearity in the model. Its value is acceptable if equal to or lower than 5.5 and is ideal when equals to lower than 3.3 (Kock, 2017). The results showed that the value of AFVIF is 1.403. Thus, the multicollinearity in this model is ideally acceptable.

4.6.6 **Tenenhaus GoF (GoF index)**

According to Kock (2017, p. 62), GoF index is "a measure of model's explanatory power". It is based on the square root of the average communality index and the ARS. The explanatory is small if GoF index is equal to or higher than 0.1, medium if equal to or higher than 0.25, and large if equal to higher than 0.36 (Kock, 2017). The results showed that the GoF index of this model is 0.423. Thus, this model's explanatory power is large.

4.6.7 **Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR)**

Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR) index measure whether a model is facing a Simpson's paradox. Simpson's paradox occurs when there are different signs between a path coefficient and a correlation of the paired variables (Kock, 2017). The value of SPR is acceptable if it is equal to or greater than 0.7 and ideally if equal to 1. The results showed that the value of SPR is 0.813 which means that 81.3 percent of the paths in this model is not facing Simpson's paradox. Thus, SPR index is in an acceptable level.

4.6.8 **R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR)**

R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR) index measures whether a model is facing negative R-squared contribution (Kock, 2017). When the R-square is negative, the independent variable reduces the percentage of variance explained in the dependent variable. The value of SPR is acceptable if it is equal to or greater than 0.9 and is ideal if it is equal to 1. The results showed that the RSCR index is 0.999. Thus, RSCR of this model is ideally acceptable.

4.6.9 **Statistical suppression ratio (SSR)**

Statistical suppression ratio (SSR) measures whether a model is facing the statistic suppression instances which is a possible sign for causality problems. According to Kock (2017), statistic suppression instance happens when the absolute value of path coefficient is higher than the correlation of the paired variables. The value of SSR is acceptable if it is equal to or higher than 0.7. The results showed that the SSR of this model is 0.875 which mean 87.5 percent of the paths in this model is not facing statistical suppression. Thus, the SSR of this model is acceptable.

4.6.10 **Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)**

According to Kock (2017, p. 64), nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR) measures "the extent to which bivariate nonlinear coefficients of association provide support for the hypothesized direction of the causal links in the model". The value of NLBCDR is acceptable if it is equal to or higher than 0.7. However, NLBCDR should not be considered in this study because only linear relationships are proposed.

Table 4.12 Model Fit Indices

Model fit indices	Coefficient	Result
Average path coefficient (APC)	0.147***	Significant
Average R-squared (ARS)	0.213***	Significant
Average adjusted R-squared (AARS)	0.205***	Significant
Average Variance inflation factor (AVIF)	1.345	Ideally
Average full variance inflation factor (AFVIF)	1.403	Ideally
Tenenhaus GoF (GoF index)	0.423	Large
Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR)	0.813	Acceptable
R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR)	0.999	Ideally
Statistical suppression ratio (SSR)	0.875	Acceptable
Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)	0.875	Acceptable

Note: Significant level; *** = 0.001, ** = 0.01, * = 0.05

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1   Overall findings

In this section, the results from hypotheses testing are summarized. The author also discusses the findings and their contributions related to existing researches. The results from PLS-SEM analysis are showed in table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

Hypotheses		Results
H1	CQ is negatively associated with relationship conflict among team members from different cultures	Supported
H2	CQ is positively associated with trust among team members from different cultures	Supported
H3	CQ is positively associated with knowledge sharing among team members from different cultures	Supported
H4	Relationship conflict among team members is positively associated with job burnout	Supported
H5	Trust among team members is negatively associated with job burnout	Supported
H6	Knowledge sharing among team members is negatively associated with job burnout	Not supported
H7	CQ is negatively associated with job burnout	Supported

Out of the seven hypotheses, six hypotheses were supported. The results provide the evidence that CQ is associated with the quality of working relationships between cabin crew members in cross-cultural teams. The working relationships in this study include relationship conflict, trust and knowledge sharing. The evidence also shows

that relationship conflict and trust relate to burnout. Moreover, the evidences reveal that CQ is directly associated with burnout. The results will be discussed as follows:

First, the result shows that CQ is negatively associated with relationship conflict in cross-cultural teams. The finding suggests that high CQ cabin crew members tend to experience lower relationship conflict with their team members from foreign cultures than those who have low CQ. This finding is in line with the study of Castañeda et al. (2018) which found that individuals with high CQ tend to have creativity relationships within multiculturally environments. As CQ allows individuals to develop the innovative sense in unfamiliar cultures, it helps to lessen the negative effects of differences in culturally diverse settings (Castañeda et al., 2018). This finding also conforms to the studies of Soon Ang et al. (2007); Şahin and Gürbüz (2014) who argued that CQ helps individuals to behave appropriately when dealing with cultural differences. It also encourages individuals to enjoy and have confidence when socializing in intercultural contexts, which in turn develop a good relationship. In addition, this finding is consistent with the previous study of Charoensukmongkol (2015) which found that entrepreneurs with high CQ tend to develop better relationships between their firms and foreign customers, foreign suppliers, as well as foreign competitors. Furthermore, this finding corresponds with the study of Nguyen et al. (2004) which shows that export managers who show high sensitivity in cultures tend to have a higher relationship quality with their foreign customers. The results suggest that as minority cabin crew members with high CQ can apply their cultural knowledge and skills to perform well with the majorities in team who are from different cultures, the dissimilarities between in- and out- group tend to be disregarded. Hence, their feelings of incompatibility and disagreements tend to be diminished. Consequently, more cooperative as well as positive attitudes and behaviors toward each other are enhanced. While performing their duties on board, relationship conflicts could be easily triggered due to the unfamiliar and unfavorable behaviors between team members from different cultures. However, minority cabin crew members with high CQ tend not to feel offended. They not only know and understand those behaviors but also interact with the proper responses. These capabilities help to lessen the chance to experience relationship conflicts. For example, minority cabin crew members with low CQ who are from high context

cultures may feel offended or annoyed when their team members from low context culture addresses his/her comments directly on their performance during the team debriefing. Moreover, they may react negatively, such as rude words or discontented facial expressions. This has already given rise to a relationship conflict between them. On the other hand, minority cabin crew members with high CQ know and understand that this is the normal behavior of people who are from a low context culture. They are aware that his/her intention is not blaming but instead helping one other to improve the job performance. Therefore, they are less likely to feel irritated on those comments. Moreover, they discuss and explain why they behave that in such a situation. Consequently, they have a favorable working relationship with each other.

In addition to the association of CQ with relationship conflict, the results provide the evidence that CQ has a positive relationship with trust in cross-cultural team. The finding suggests that cabin crew members with high CQ tend to develop higher level of trust with team members from foreign cultures than cabin crew members who have low CQ. This finding supports the study of Rockstuhl and Ng (2008) which found that CQ promotes trust among multicultural team members. This finding is also corresponding to the study of Gregory et al. (2009) which found that CQ could help to develop the interpersonal trust in cross-cultural project members which is the important component of negotiated culture. Furthermore, it is consistent with the study of Anvari et al. (2014) which showed that CQ of leaders affect positively to organizational commitment of a multicultural team. The results suggest that as minority cabin crew members with high CQ are more likely to exhibit their cultural sensitivity by adapting their behaviors when interacting with their team members from different cultures as if they belong to those cultures; they not only weaken the feeling of in- and out-group, but they also enhance the feeling of similarity and belonging to a common group. All of these are crucial for trust to be developed among members in the cross-cultural team. For example, during Ramadan, minority cabin crew members with low CQ may not be careful in drinking and eating during the day when working with their team members who are fasting. This behavior shows that they are unmindful of their team members' culture; therefore, they could be perceived negatively by their foreign colleagues. This creates difficulty for trust to be developed in the team. On the other hand, minority cabin crew members with high

CQ not only avoid eating and drinking in front of the fasting team members but also save iftars (Muslims' meals after ending their daily fasting) for them. This shows their concern and sensitivity to their team members' culture which cause them to be perceived favorably by their foreign colleagues. This creates a positive team atmosphere which makes trust developed easier.

Apart from the relationship between CQ and relationship conflict as well as trust, the results provide the evidence that CQ has a positive relationship with knowledge sharing in cross-cultural team. The finding suggests that high CQ cabin crew members tend to experience higher levels of knowledge sharing with their team members from different cultures than cabin crew members who have low CQ. This finding supports the study of Vlajcic et al. (2018) which found that CQ enhances knowledge sharing within cross-cultural team members. The finding also concurs with Hutchings and Michailova (2004); Moon (2013) who asserted that CQ enriches the collective identity in cross-cultural team; which in turn promotes knowledge sharing between team members. Furthermore, the finding is congruous with De Vries et al. (2006) who contended that CQ tends to enhance knowledge sharing in cross-cultural team because CQ promotes the communication between them. The results suggest that as minority cabin crew members with high CQ are keen to initiate conversation and build relationship with majority team members from different cultures, the favorable communication between them is promoted. This helps to weaken the feeling of dissimilarity while enhancing the feeling of belonging to a common group. Therefore, they are more likely to share experience and knowledge with each other. For example, minority cabin crew members with low CQ may choose to keep themselves apart from team members from different cultures. They may also refrain from having a conversation or an interaction with foreign colleagues on non-work issues. Give lack of communication, information or knowledge is less likely to be shared. On the other hand, minority crew members with high CQ are more likely to approach the cultural majority team member. They feel encouraged to initiate conversation with foreign colleagues on non-work issues such as lifestyles and hobbies. In addition, they are likely to spend time after the flight with foreign colleagues and get to know more about each other. This creates a healthy

interpersonal relationship between cabin crew members from different cultures, which is supportive for knowledge sharing at work to occur.

Overall, the results of CQ contributing to the quality of working relationships of cabin crew members in cross-cultural team are conforming with the researches on the association of CQ with the social identity theory and social categorization theory (Moon, 2013; Rockstuhl & Ng, 2008; Rockstuhl et al., 2011); which suggest that CQ is a cross-cultural competency that could help individuals to effectively adapt when facing with culturally diverse settings and therefore distract the perception of in-and out-group. According to the results, it can be argued that cabin crew members with high CQ, particularly those crew members who work with international airlines and belong to the cultural minority group, are able to develop favorable working relationships in cross-cultural teams.

In addition to the results of CQ contributing to the quality of working relationships, the results provide the evidence that CQ has a negative direct relationship with job burnout. This finding suggests that high CQ cabin crew members tend to experience lower levels of burnout than cabin crew members who have low CQ. The result provides support to prior researches which showed that CQ can be the characteristic of individuals that helps them cope effectively with stress that might occur during cross cultural encounters (Bolat et al., 2017; J. J. Bücker et al., 2014; Suthatorn & Charoensukmongkol, 2018; Tay et al., 2008). This finding supports the study of Bolat et al. (2017) which found that CQ lowers the burnout level of expatriates during their assignment in a country that has large culture distance to their home country. Furthermore, this finding is consistent with the study of Tay et al. (2008) which reported that CQ lowers the level of burnout when international business travelers are faced with culturally diverse settings. Moreover, this finding is in line with the study of J. J. Bücker et al. (2014) which showed that CQ relieves the anxiety of managers when working for foreign multinational enterprises located in home country. This finding also conforms with the study of Suthatorn and Charoensukmongkol (2018) which reported that CQ lowers the anxiety of cabin crew members when providing services to foreign passengers by enhancing the level of intercultural communication and service attentiveness. The result suggests that minority cabin crew members with

high CQ are able to handle the cultural barriers between them and majority team members who are from different cultures and that will help to lessen the possibility that they will develop job burnout.

Moreover, this study provides the evidence that relationship conflict is positively associated with job burnout. The finding suggests that the lower the level of the relationship conflict between team members, the lower the level of burnout cabin crew members will develop. This finding supports the study of Sliter et al. (2011) which found that there is a significantly positive relationship between relationship conflict with co-worker and job burnout. In addition, this finding conforms with the study of Boyas and Wind (2010) which indicated that the quality of relationships in the workplace could decrease the possibility of developing burnout. Furthermore, this finding is in line with the study of Kahn et al. (2006) which reported that teachers who get positive social support from co-workers tend to experience lower levels of burnout. Moreover, this finding is corresponding to the study of Lambert et al. (2010) who argued that unfavorable environments between co-workers make employees unable to cope with the job demands; therefore, they cannot achieve their job which in turn promotes the feeling of burnout. The results suggest that when minority cabin crew members develop interpersonal relationships with majority cabin crew members, they exhibit positive views and emotions toward one another. Furthermore, the pleasant working environments are enhanced; therefore, they are more collaborative. This could lead to the less possibility to develop job burnout. For example, once there is a relationship conflict between cabin crew team members, it creates an unfavorable team atmosphere that makes all members feel uncomfortable in working together. As teamwork is necessary for cabin crew's job, the feeling of incompatibility and disagreement diminishes support among team members, and that will easily create stress. On the other hand, when relationship conflict between crew members is reduced, the working environment tends to be more favorable. Therefore, crew members are more willing to collaborate, to help, and to support each other. This could help to diminish the development of job burnout of cabin crew members.

The result of this study also provides evidence that trust has a negative relationship with job burnout. This finding suggests that the higher the level of trust between team members, the lower the level of job burnout that cabin crew members will develop. The result provides support to prior researches which show that trust appears to be the factor which could help individuals deal with job burnout (Chughtai, Byrne, & Flood, 2015; Lambert et al., 2012; Liu, Siu, & Shi, 2010; Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2015). This finding supports the study of Van Maele and Van Houtte (2015) which reported that teachers who perceive high levels of trust in their colleagues tend to develop lower levels of job burnout. This finding also coincides with the study of Lambert et al. (2012) which found that the correctional staff who trust in their supervisors and management tend to experience lower levels of job burnout. In addition, this finding is in line with the study of Chughtai et al. (2015) which revealed that accountants who trust in their supervisors tend to face lower level of emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, this finding concurs with the study of Liu et al. (2010) which showed that employees who have high level of trust in their leaders tend to experience lower levels of perceived work stress and less stress symptoms. The result suggests that when trust is available between minority and majority cabin crew members, they feel that they can rely on each other. Nobody has to control and/or recheck what others have done. Therefore, each cabin crew member tends to concentrate on only what he/she is expected to do. This could lower the possibility that they will develop burnout. For example, when trust cannot be built among cabin crew members, it creates a negative working climate for them to work together, thereby causing work stress to happen easily. On the other hand, when team members trust other team members, they are motivated to take care of and support each other. This could help to lessen the possibility that cabin crew members will develop burnout.

However, the result does not provide the statistical support of a negative relationship between knowledge sharing and burnout. This finding could be explained by the nature of the cabin crew job that is performed largely based on standard operating procedures designed by the company. Once cabin crew members have passed all the training courses provided by the company, they should be able to complete their duties and responsibilities on board without depending on the knowledge of other cabin crew members. Moreover, knowledge sharing from other cabin crew members

may not be the crucial factor that causes work stress because cabin crew members can refer to the working manuals provided in the aircraft whenever they need information regarding the safety and service issues. Therefore, this nature of cabin crew task may provide some explanation about why knowledge sharing by team members did not significantly relate with their level of burnout.

In addition to the results of the main hypotheses, job demands is the only control variable which is significantly positively related to job burnout. The finding suggests that cabin crew members who are exposed to more to job demands tend to experience higher levels of burnout. This finding supports the study of Lourel, Abdellaoui, et al. (2008); Upadyaya et al. (2016) which found that there is a positive relationship between job demands and job burnout. The result suggests that as the nature of cabin crew members' job and their work settings are high demanding, the possibility for cabin crew member to develop job burnout tends to increase. Generally, a cabin crew's job is demanding by nature. Primarily, they are expected to complete their safety and service duties within timelines which require them to work hard, fast and without mistake. In particular, their safety duties are holding on everybody's life on board the aircraft including passengers and colleagues. If they are not meticulous enough to complete their safety duties, this may cause significant damages to the aircraft and create life-threatening consequences to passengers. If they fail to complete the tasks by the timeline, this may cause the flight to delay which will not only cost to the airlines but will also provoke the passengers' complaints and dissatisfaction. Moreover, they should be able to handle and satisfy the different expectations of the international passengers which even cause cabin crew's jobs to be more demanding. These significant job demands that cabin crew members experience can cause them to develop burnout eventually.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Letter Asking for Permission to collect Data in Airlines' company

No. 0526.14/ 288

International College
National Institute of Development Administration
Klongchan Bangkapi Bangkok 1024

September 18 , 2018

Re: Request for data collection from your airline

Dear Sir,

This letter confirms that Ms. Phenphimol Seriwatana is a Ph.D. candidate at the International College of National Institute of Development Administration (ICO NIDA), Thailand. Her dissertation title is "CONTRIBUTION OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE TO QUALITY OF WORKING RELATIONSHIP AND JOB BURNOUT OF CABIN CREW MEMBERS." This research project is a partial fulfillment of the PhD. in Management at ICO NIDA conducted under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Peerayuth Charoensukmongkol.

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

Thank you for your collaboration.

Looking forward to your positive response.

Sincerely,

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

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

APPENDIX 2: Letter Asking for Permission to collect Data in Suvarnabhumi Airport Area

ที่ ศธ ๐๕๒๖.๑๔/๘๒๗

วิทยาลัยนานาชาติ
สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์
คลองจั่น บางกะปิ กทม. ๑๐๒๔๐

๑๘ กันยายน ๒๕๖๑

เรื่อง   ขอความอนุเคราะห์เก็บข้อมูลงานวิจัย

เรียน   ผู้อำนวยการท่าอากาศยานสุวรรณภูมิ

สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย   แบบสอบถามเพื่อการวิจัย

        ด้วยนางสาวเพ็ญพิมล เสรีวัฒน์ นักศึกษาปริญญาเอกคณะวิทยาลัยนานาชาติ สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์ (NIDA)   กำลังดำเนินการทำวิจัยเพื่อเสนอเป็นดุษฎีนิพนธ์ เรื่อง "ศักยภาพและการจัดการความเครียดของลูกเรือไทยที่ทำงานกับลูกเรือต่างเชื้อชาติในสายการบินต่างประเทศ" ภายใต้การให้คำปรึกษาของผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.พีรยุทธ เจริญสุขมงคล อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์

        เพื่อให้การดำเนินการวิจัยสำเร็จลุล่วงไปด้วยดี จึงใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์ให้นางสาวเพ็ญพิมล เสรีวัฒน์ ได้ทำการเก็บข้อมูลบริเวณห้องโถงผู้โดยสารขาออก และพื้นที่ร้านอาหารอาคารผู้โดยสารเพื่อเป็นประโยชน์ทางวิชาการหากมีข้อสงสัยประการใดสามารถติดต่อสอบถามอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.พีรยุทธ เจริญสุขมงคล ได้ที่เบอร์โทรศัพท์ ๐๒-๗๒๗-๓๕๒๖ หรือทางอีเมล์ peerayuth.c@nida.ac.th

        จึงเรียนมาเพื่อขอความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านและขอบคุณเป็นอย่างสูงมา ณ โอกาสนี้ด้วย

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(รองศาสตราจารย์ดร.ไพบูลย์ ภูริเวทย์)
คณบดีวิทยาลัยนานาชาติ

สำนักงานเลขานุการวิทยาลัย
โทร.๐ ๒๗๒๗ ๓๕๒๖

APPENDIX 3: Acceptance Letter from the Airports of Thailand Public Company Limited

AOT

บริษัท ท่าอากาศยานไทย จำกัด (มหาชน)
Airports of Thailand Public Company Limited

ที่ ทอท. 13033 /2561

5 ตุลาคม 2561

เรื่อง การขอความอนุเคราะห์เก็บข้อมูลงานวิจัย

เรียน คณบดีวิทยาลัยนานาชาติ สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์

อ้างถึง หนังสือสถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์ที่ ศธ 0526.14/287 ลงวันที่ 18 กันยายน 2561

สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย ระเบียบปฏิบัติการแจกแบบสอบถาม การสัมภาษณ์ และการทำวิจัย
ณ ท่าอากาศยานสุวรรณภูมิ จำนวน 1 แผ่น

ตามหนังสือที่อ้างถึง สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์ขออนุญาต บริษัท ท่าอากาศยานไทย จำกัด (มหาชน) (ทอท.) พิจารณาให้ นักศึกษาระดับปริญญาเอก คณะวิทยาลัยนานาชาติ ชื่อ นางสาวเพ็ญพิมล เสรีวัฒน์ เข้าไปศึกษาและแจกแบบสอบถาม เพื่อประกอบการจัดทำโครงการวิจัยเรื่อง "ศักยภาพและการจัดการ ความเครียดของลูกเรือไทยที่ทำงานกับลูกเรือต่างเชื้อชาติในสายการบินต่างประเทศ" ดังความละเอียด ทราบแล้ว นั้น

ทอท.พิจารณาแล้ว ยินดีอนุญาตให้นักศึกษาสถาบันฯ เข้ามาดำเนินการตามที่แจ้งขอได้ บริเวณพื้นที่นอกเขตห้าม ห้องโถงผู้โดยสารขาออก อาคารผู้โดยสาร ท่าอากาศยานสุวรรณภูมิ (ทสภ.) ระหว่างวันที่ 10 ตุลาคม ถึงวันที่ 10 พฤศจิกายน 2561 โดยขอให้ปฏิบัติตามระเบียบการแจกแบบสอบถาม การสัมภาษณ์ และการทำวิจัย ณ ทสภ.ตามสิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วยอย่างเคร่งครัด ทั้งนี้ นักศึกษาสถาบันฯ สามารถติดต่อโดยตรงที่ ส่วนบริการอาคารผู้โดยสาร ฝ่ายการท่าอากาศยาน ชั้น 3 อาคารสำนักงาน ทสภ.โทรศัพท์ 0 2132 9273 เพื่ออำนวยความสะดวกให้ต่อไป

อนึ่ง ทอท.พิจารณาแล้ว เห็นว่าผลการสำรวจวิจัยเกี่ยวกับเรื่องนี้จะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อการดำเนิน กิจการของ ทอท. ดังนั้น จึงขอให้สถาบันฯ ส่งสำเนาผลการวิจัยให้กับ ทอท.เมื่อดำเนินการเสร็จเรียบร้อยแล้ว

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อทราบ

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

พันตรี

(กมล วงศ์สมบุญ)
รองผู้อำนวยการท่าอากาศยานสุวรรณภูมิ ปฏิบัติงานแทน
กรรมการผู้อำนวยการใหญ่

ฝ่ายการท่าอากาศยาน

โทรศัพท์ 0 2132 9273

โทรสาร 0 2132 9219

ถวัญภาค ดอนเมือง กรุงเทพฯ 10210
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Registration No. 0107545000292

WEBSITE : http://www.airportthai.co.th
E-mail : aotbia@airportthai.co.th

APPENDIX 4: Questionnaire – English

ICO NIDA
International College

Dear All Cabin Crew Members

This survey is a part of the dissertation for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy and is conducted for the academic purpose only. The obtained data will be treated confidentially and kept anonymously. The data will only be processes as statistical observation.

Thank you very much

For each completed questionnaire, the researcher will donate money to the charity according to your choice. Please select your choice

☐ Ban Dek Ramindra School   ☐ Elderly Person House
☐ Ramathibodi Foundation   ☐ Home for Handicapped Animals Foundation

For each complete questionnaire, get a chance to win lucky draw. The prizes are four of THB500 Starbucks cash coupon. Please provide your 6-digits code. Your code is _____.

Demographics

Age (years)	_____			
Gender	☐ Female	☐ Male		
Marital Status	☐ Single	☐ Married		
Children (s)	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ More than 2
Education	☐ Below bachelors' degree		☐ Bachelors' degree	
	☐ Master's degree		☐ Doctoral Degree	
How long have you worked in this airline?	_____ Year _____ Months			
Working hour / roster	_____ Hour			
Working class	☐ Economy Class		☐ Business / First class	

1. Please specify the IATA of the airline you work with (e.g. TG, PG) _____

2. How many, in average, "Thai crew" and "Foreign crew" in each flight?

     Thai crew _____ person(s)   Foreign crew _____ person(s)

3. How fluently you can communicate the local language of the airline's base?

     ☐ Very Poor   ☐ Poor   ☐ Fair   ☐ Good   ☐ Very Good

4. Have you ever studied in the country of airline's base before you join the airline?

     ☐ No   ☐ Yes, for _____ year(s)

5. Have you ever worked in the country of airline's base before you join the airline?

     ☐ No   ☐ Yes, for _____ year(s)

To what extent do you agree with the following statements	(1) Strongly Disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neutral	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly Agree
I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I know the rules (e.g. vocabulary, grammar) of other languages	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I know the marriage systems of other cultures	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I know the arts and crafts of other cultures	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviors in other cultures	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interaction	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I changed my verbal behavior (e.g. accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I change my nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I alter my facial expression when a cross-cultural interaction requires it	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your duties on board	(1) Strongly Disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neutral	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly Agree
Requires working hard	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Requires working fast	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Excessive work	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Not enough time	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Conflicting demands	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

For this section, please think about your overall experience with your team foreign team members

To what extend do you feel with the following statements	(1) None	(2) Slightly	(3) Moderate	(4) High	(5) A lot
How much friction is there between you and your foreign team members?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
How much are personality conflicts evident between you and your foreign team members?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
How much tension is there between you and your foreign team members?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
How much emotional conflict is there between you and your foreign team members?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

To what extent do you agree with the following statements about your foreign team members	(1) Strongly Disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Neutral	(4) Agree	(5) Strongly Agree
Overall, I feel that I can trust my foreign team members completely	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
If possible, I would not give the other foreign team members any influence over issues that are important to our successful completion of team tasks	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel comfortable depending on my foreign team members for the completion of team tasks	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I am comfortable letting other foreign team members take responsibility for tasks which are critical to the group even when I cannot monitor them	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel that I will not be able to count on my foreign team members to help me	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I wish I could oversee the work of the other foreign team members	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
My foreign team members keep their best ideas to themselves (reverse coded)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
My foreign team members are willing to share knowledge/ideas with me	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
My foreign team members share their ideas with me openly	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
My foreign team members with expert knowledge are willing to help me	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
This team is good at using the knowledge/ideas of employees.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

When you think about your work overall, how often do you feel the following?	(1) Never	(2) Rarely	(3) Occasionally	(4) Often	(5) Always
Tired	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Disappointed with people	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Hopeless	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Trapped	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Helpless	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Depressed	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Physically weak/Sickly	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Workless/Like a failure	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Difficulties sleeping	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I've had it	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Thank you very much for your valuable comments and time

APPENDIX 5: Questionnaire – Thai

ICO NIDA
International College

เรียน ลูกเรือทุกท่าน

แบบสอบถามนี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของดุษฎีนิพนธ์ในหัวข้อเกี่ยวกับ "ศักยภาพและการจัดการความเครียดของลูกเรือไทยที่ทำงานกับลูกเรือต่าง เชื้อชาติในสายการบินต่างชาติ" ขอความกรุณาท่านสละเวลาอันมีค่าตอบคำถามในแบบสอบถามนี้ตามความเป็นจริงมากที่สุดเพื่อประโยชน์ ในทางวิชาการ โดยข้อมูลทุกอย่างจะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับเพื่อใช้ในการวิจัยเท่านั้น และข้อมูลทั้งหมดจะถูกทำลายเมื่อการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูล เสร็จสิ้น

ขอขอบพระคุณเป็นอย่างสูงสำหรับความร่วมมือในครั้งนี้
นักศึกษาวิทยาลัยนานาชาติ สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์ (นิด้า)

ท่านจะมีส่วนร่วมในการบริจาคเงินให้แก่องค์กรการกุศลต่างๆ เพียงแค่ท่านตอบแบบสอบถามนี้ให้ครบถ้วนสมบูรณ์ โดยผู้จัดทำจะเป็นผู้ บริจาคเงินแก่องค์กรการกุศลที่ท่านเลือก โดยท่านสามารถเลือกองค์กรการกุศลที่ท่านจะช่วยเหลือได้ ดังต่อไปนี้

☐ บ้านเด็กพิการซ้ำซ้อน ☐ สถานสงเคราะห์คนชรา ☐ มูลนิธิรามาธิบดี ☐ มูลนิธิบ้านสงเคราะห์สัตว์พิการ

และเมื่อท่านตอบแบบสอบถามได้ครบถ้วนสมบูรณ์ ท่านจะได้รับสิทธิ์ชิงรางวัล "บัตรกำนัลแทนเงินสด Starbucks มูลค่า 500 บาท" จำนวน 4 รางวัล โดยที่ท่านจะต้องตั้ง code 6 หลักของตัวท่านเอง เป็นภาษาอังกฤษและตัวเลขเท่านั้น จากนั้นผู้จัดทำ จะทำการสุ่ม code 6 หลัก เพื่อ หาผู้ได้รับรางวัล โดย Code ของท่านคือ _____ ทั้งนี้ผู้จัดทำจะประกาศรายชื่อผู้โชคดีผ่าน facebook (QR Code นี้)

<u>ข้อมูลส่วนตัว</u>

อายุ	_____ ปี
เพศ	☐ หญิง ☐ ชาย
สถานภาพ	☐ โสด ☐ สมรส
จำนวนบุตร-ธิดา	☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ มากกว่า 2 คน
ระดับการศึกษา	☐ ต่ำกว่าปริญญาตรี ☐ ปริญญาตรี ☐ ปริญญาโท ☐ ปริญญาเอก
อายุงานในสายการบินปัจจุบัน	_____ ปี _____ เดือน
จำนวนชั่วโมงบินโดยเฉลี่ย / roster	_____ ชั่วโมง
ปฏิบัติงานในห้องโดยสาร	☐ ชั้นประหยัด (Economy Class) ☐ สูงกว่าชั้นประหยัด (Business / First class)

1. กรุณาระบุ IATA code ของสายการบินที่ท่านทำงานด้วย (เช่น TG, PG) _____

2. ในแต่ละเที่ยวบินโดยเฉลี่ยมี "ลูกเรือไทย" และ "ลูกเรือต่างชาติ" ประมาณกี่คน

ลูกเรือไทย _____ คน ลูกเรือต่างชาติ_____ คน

3. ท่านสามารถสื่อสารภาษาท้องถิ่นของสายการบินที่ท่านทำงานด้วยในระดับใด

☐ ไม่ได้ ☐ ได้บ้าง ☐ ปานกลาง ☐ ดี ☐ ดีมาก

4. ท่านได้เคยศึกษาในประเทศต้นสังกัดของสายการบินนี้ ก่อนที่ท่านจะเริ่มทำงานกับสายบินนี้หรือไม่

☐ ไม่เคย ☐ เคย เป็นระยะเวลา_____ ปี

5. ท่านได้เคยประกอบอาชีพในประเทศต้นสังกัดของสายการบินนี้ ก่อนที่ท่านจะเริ่มทำงานกับสายบินนี้หรือไม่

☐ ไม่เคย ☐ เคย เป็นระยะเวลา_____ ปี

กรุณาประเมินว่าตัวคุณเองมีคุณลักษณะเหล่านี้ในระดับใด	(1) น้อยที่สุด	(2) น้อย	(3) ปานกลาง	(4) มาก	(5) มากที่สุด
ฉันรู้จักระบบกฎหมายและเศรษฐกิจของประเทศอื่นๆเป็นอย่างดี	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้จักหลักภาษา คำศัพท์และไวยากรณ์ของภาษาต่างประเทศเป็นอย่างดี	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้จักค่านิยมทางวัฒนธรรมและความเชื่อทางศาสนาของประเทศต่างๆเป็นอย่างดี	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันมีความรู้เกี่ยวกับวัฒนธรรมประเพณีการแต่งงานของชาติอื่นๆเป็นอย่างดี	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันมีความรู้เกี่ยวกับศิลปหัตถกรรมของประเทศต่างๆเป็นอย่างดี	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ภายใต้สถานการณ์เดียวกันฉันรู้ว่าในบางวัฒนธรรมฉันควรแสดงลักษณะท่าทางแบบหนึ่งและแสดงออกต่างกันในอีกวัฒนธรรมหนึ่ง	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
เมื่อฉันพูดคุยกับชาวต่างชาติฉันตระหนักถึงความรู้ทางวัฒนธรรมของฉันว่าจริงหรือไม่	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
เมื่อฉันพูดคุยกับชาวต่างชาติฉันไม่ยึดติดกับความรู้ทางวัฒนธรรมที่ฉันเคยรู้ แต่จะเปิดใจเรียนรู้วัฒนธรรมใหม่ในขณะที่พูดคุยกับพวกเขาเหล่านั้น	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันตระหนักถึงความรู้ทางวัฒนธรรมที่ฉันมีเวลาฉันใช้ความรู้นั้นพูดคุยกับชาวต่างชาติ	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันมักตรวจสอบความรู้ทางวัฒนธรรมของฉันว่ามีความถูกต้องหรือไม่ในขณะที่พูดคุยกับชาวต่างชาติ	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้สึกดีเวลาที่ได้พูดคุยกับชาวต่างชาติ	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันมั่นใจว่าสามารถเข้าสังคมกับชาวต่างชาติจากวัฒนธรรมที่ฉันไม่คุ้นเคย	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันมั่นใจว่าสามารถจัดการกับความกดดันในการปรับตัวให้เข้ากับวัฒนธรรมต่างชาติที่ฉันไม่คุ้นเคยได้ดี	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้สึกชอบหากได้มีโอกาสไปอยู่ในวัฒนธรรมต่างชาติที่ไม่คุ้นเคย	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันมั่นใจว่าสามารถใช้ชีวิตด้วยตัวเองที่ต่างประเทศโดยไม่ต้องพึ่งใคร	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันสามารถเปลี่ยนสำเนียงและน้ำเสียงในการพูดเมื่อต้องติดต่อสื่อสารกับชาวต่างชาติ	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
เวลาพูดคุยกับชาวต่างชาติฉันรู้ว่าเวลาไหนควรพูดและเวลาไหนควรเงียบเพื่อให้เหมาะกับวัฒนธรรมต่างชาติ	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันปรับเปลี่ยนจังหวะความช้าเร็วในการพูดให้เหมาะกับสไตล์การพูดของคนต่างชาติได้	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
เวลาพูดคุยกับชาวต่างชาติฉันสามารถปรับเปลี่ยนลักษณะท่าทางให้เข้ากับวัฒนธรรมของชาวต่างชาติได้ดี	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
เวลาพูดคุยกับชาวต่างชาติฉันสามารถปรับเปลี่ยนการแสดงออกทางสีหน้าให้เหมาะกับวัฒนธรรมของพวกเขา	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

คุณเห็นด้วยกับการทำงานในสายการบินที่คุณทำงานอยู่ด้วยมากน้อยเพียงใด	(1) เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	(2) เห็นด้วยน้อย	(3) เห็นด้วยปานกลาง	(4) เห็นด้วยมาก	(5) เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
ต้องทำงานหนัก	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ต้องทำงานให้รวดเร็ว	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
มีงานและภาระหน้าที่ที่ต้องทำมาก	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
เวลาจำกัด มีเวลาว่าง/เวลาพักน้อย	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
เมื่อมีงานเข้ามาในเวลาเดียวกัน ทำให้ตัดสินยากว่าจะทำอะไรก่อนหลัง	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

สำหรับคำถามในส่วนนี้ ให้คุณคิดถึงประสบการณ์ในภาพรวมที่คุณทำงานร่วมกับลูกเรือต่างชาติในสายการบินนี้

คุณมีความรู้สึกต่อไปนี้มากน้อยเพียงใด	(1) น้อยที่สุด	(2) น้อย	(3) ปานกลาง	(4) มาก	(5) มากที่สุด
มีความไม่ลงรอยกันระหว่างฉันกับเพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติ	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
มีความขัดแย้งที่เกิดจากความแตกต่างระหว่างฉันกับเพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติ	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
มีความตึงเครียดระหว่างฉันและเพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติ	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
มีความขัดแย้งทางอารมณ์ระหว่างฉันและเพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติ	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

คุณเห็นด้วยกับเหตุการณ์เหล่านี้มากน้อยเพียงใดเมื่อคุณทำงานร่วมกับลูกเรือต่างชาติในสายการบินนี้	(1) เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	(2) เห็นด้วยน้อย	(3) เห็นด้วยปานกลาง	(4) เห็นด้วยมาก	(5) เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
ฉันสามารถไว้ใจเพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติได้ในภาพรวม	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันไม่ไว้ใจให้เพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติมีอิทธิพลในเรื่องที่สำคัญต่อความสำเร็จของทีม	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันวางใจที่จะพึ่งพาเพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติให้รับผิดชอบงานของทีมได้	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันวางใจที่จะให้เพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติรับผิดชอบงานสำคัญของทีมในเวลาที่ฉันไม่สามารถอยู่รับผิดชอบได้	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้สึกไม่สามารถพึ่งพาเพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติได้	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันอยากอยู่กำกับการทำงานของเพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติเสมอเพราะไม่ไว้ใจ	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
เพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติไม่แบ่งปันความรู้ให้ฉัน	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
เพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติเต็มใจที่จะแบ่งปันความรู้ให้ฉัน	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
เพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติแบ่งปันความรู้ให้ฉันโดยไม่ปิดบัง	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
เพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติที่มีความรู้เต็มใจที่จะช่วยเหลือฉันโดยแบ่งปันความรู้ให้	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันและเพื่อนร่วมงานต่างชาติต่างนำความรู้ที่ได้รับจากการแบ่งปันกันไปใช้	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

คุณเกิดความรู้สึกเช่นนี้บ่อยแค่ไหนในการทำงาน	(1) ไม่เคย	(2) น้อยครั้ง	(3) บางครั้ง	(4) บ่อย	(5) บ่อยมาก
ฉันรู้สึกเหนื่อยกับงาน	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้สึกผิดหวังกับผู้คนในการทำงาน	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้สึกสิ้นหวังในการทำงาน	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้สึกหมดหนทาง	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้สึกไม่มีใครช่วยเหลือฉัน	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้สึกกดดันในการทำงาน	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้สึกป่วยจากการทำงาน	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้สึกล้มเหลวในการทำงาน	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันนอนไม่หลับเพราะงาน	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
ฉันรู้สึกไม่อยากทำงานที่นี่แล้ว	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

ขอขอบพระคุณเป็นอย่างสูงที่กรุณาสละเวลาอันมีค่าของท่านทำแบบสอบถามนี้

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