

Running head: THINKING GLOBAL

Thinking Global, Acting Local:  
Global Identification Promotes Culturally Integrative Problem Solving

Shira Mor\*

Michael W. Morris

Agnieszka Jagiello

Johann Joh

Columbia University

Author Note

Shira Mor, Michael W. Morris, and Johann Joh, Department of Management, Columbia Business; Agnieszka Jagiello, Chazen Institute for International Business, Columbia Business School.

Acknowledgments: Supported by the Chazen Institute of International Business at Columbia Business School.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Shira Mor, Department of Management, Columbia Business School, 3022 Broadway, New York, NY 10027. E-mail: sm2355@columbia.edu

## Abstract

Global identity, one's sense of belonging to the greater world community, is increasingly salient amongst managers. The current research investigates how this aspect of individuals' self-identity or self-concept affects the way they work with others as a manager. We hypothesized that global identity salience engenders culturally integrative problem solving—incorporating ideas from multiple cultures. In two studies, we provide evidence that global identification, varying as a function of individual differences or situational cues, engenders culturally integrative approaches, both in terms of seeking ideas and incorporating them into solutions. Across both studies, the effect of global identity salience on problem solving was mediated by cultural perspective taking—looking at the problem from the perspective of a different culture. We discuss the implication for management, collaboration and negotiation in multicultural environments.

*Keywords: Global identity, perspective taking, problem-solving, multicultural environments, collaboration*

Abstract Word Count: 129

Global identity, the sense of belonging to all humankind, has been documented since antiquity. Diogenes famously declared himself to be a cosmopolitan, a citizen of the world. In recent decades, globalization processes have exposed a larger fraction of humanity than ever before to multiple cultures, through travel, migration, and residence in culturally complex communities (Appadurai, 1996). As more people today identify as global citizens (Arnett, 2002; Buchan et al., 2011; Vertovec & Cohen, 2003), social theorists have suggested that more people than ever before may feel motivated toward intercultural collaboration (Appiah, 2007). Global identification is aspect of the self-concept, distinct from political attitudes toward globalization (Buchan, et al., 2011) and from competences relevant to intercultural situations (Buchan, et al., 2011). A global identity involves the person's civic and political affiliations (Held, 2004), social habits and relationships (Appiah, 2007; Hannerz, 1996) as well as consumer tastes (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Szerszynski & Urry, 2002; Thompson & Tambyah, 1999). Globally identified individuals tend to endorse the values of multiple traditions and feel at home in multiple countries (Appiah, 2007; Arnett, 2002).

In recent years, organizational behavior researchers have proposed that the salience of managers' global identifications may affect how they handle problems in multicultural environments (Gelfand, Leslie, & Fehr, 2008; K. Leung, Bhagat, Buchan, Erez, & Gibson, 2005; Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyn, & Anne, in press ). Global identification amongst managers is associated with greater motivational cultural intelligence (Shokef & Erez, 2008), implicated in intercultural performance (Chen, Liu, & Portnoy, in press). Consistent with these findings, global identification amongst Mexican managers is associated with greater professional advancement (Gillespie, McBride, & Riddle, 2010). In multicultural teams global

identification is associated with enhanced team performance (Shokef & Erez, 2006).

In this paper, we explore one way that global identification affects managers' approaches to problems, which may be involved in these performance advantages. Specifically, we propose that managers with salient global identities would be more likely to access and integrate ideas and practices from other cultures. We hypothesize several steps in this causal chain. First, global identification is associated with more life experience in foreign cultures (cultures other than one's own heritage culture). Second, the more salient an individual's global identification, the more they will adopt culturally integrative approaches to solving problems as a manager. Finally, we suggest that global identification has this effect on management style because it spurs the individual to take the perspectives of people from other cultures, to look at the problem from their perspectives. We report two studies examining these ideas, the first examining individual differences in dispositional global identification and the second manipulating the salience of global identities situationally.

### **Multicultural Experience and Global Identification**

We first explore managers' past experiences in multicultural environments as catalysts for global identification. Past research finds that global identification is associated with a number of behavioral factors such as working with counterparts from different cultures and having friends from different culture backgrounds (Cohavi, 2007). We extend past research and contend that one way that stays in host cultures affect managers is by instilling a global identity. Consistent with this idea, Kohnen suggested (2005) that international assignments provide a platform for identity construction and transformation. Expatriates develop identifications with their host cultures in the course of adjusting to them, just as past evidence suggests immigrants do (Hong, Wan, No, & Chiu, 2007). After several expatriate stays,

identifications with particular other cultures may coalesce into a global identity. As a result, we propose the following hypothesis:

*H1: Global identification is positively associated with the amount of prior experience studying and working abroad.*

### **Culturally Integrative Problem Solving**

We further propose that one aspect of decision making in multicultural work environments is the extent to which managers incorporate foreign cultural ideas in decision making. Indeed, past research finds that integrative creative problem solving takes place when diverse cultural sources of information are available (Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, & Lee, 2008; A. K. Leung & Chiu, 2010). The notion that global identity salience will promote culturally integrative thinking is supported by observations of the anthropologist Hannerz (1990) who suggests that globally identified individuals search for cultural differences rather than uniformity. This attraction of cosmopolitans to culturally complex solutions is consistent with the general principle that when an identity is salient (dispositionally or situationally induced) attention goes to information that is congruent with the identity (Brewer & Kramer, 1986; LeBoeuf, Shafir, & Bayuk, 2010; Morris, Carranza, & Fox, 2008).

While past research has not directly tested the link between global identification and integrating ideas from other cultures, there is indirect evidence consistent with this link. Research by Shokef and Erez (2008) on cultural intelligence has found that global identity is most associated with the motivational dimension, which reflects interest in communicating and connecting with people from other cultures (Ang et al., 2007). This motivational dimension of cultural intelligence, in turn, predicts intercultural negotiation success, such as salespersons' success with customers from other cultures (Chen, et al., 2011; Imai & Gelfand,

2010). Hence global identity may be predictive of solving problems through integrating ideas from other cultures.

Other indirect evidence comes from research on the tendency to integrate ideas from other cultures. Leung and Chiu (2010) found an association between life exposure to multiple cultures and sampling ideas from foreign cultures in a laboratory task. They asked American undergraduates to develop a thesis about happiness, providing them with an array of fictional quotations from US, Turkish and Chinese experts, and tracked which quotations the participants drew upon. Students with more life experience exposing them to multiple cultures (an immigrant family or time spent abroad) were more likely to sample foreign sources rather than solely American sources. This evidence suggests that the tendency to integrate ideas from multiple cultures is affected by individual differences related to culture, although it doesn't test whether self-identities in particular are involved.

Recent research suggests that the job characteristics of globally identified managers are associated with integrating interests from culturally diverse constituents (Erez, 2010). For example, global identification is found to be higher for managers whose in multinational firms compared with firms that operate solely within one country (Lisak, Erez, & Schippers, 2011) and past research suggests team level global identification is associated with improved performance of international teams (Shokef & Erez, 2006, 2008). As a result, we would expect managers with higher levels of global identification to incorporate others' cultural advice in problem solving and decision making. To summarize our arguments, we propose the following hypothesis:

***H2: Global identity is positively associated with culturally integrative problem solving.***

### **Cultural Perspective Taking as the Intervening Mechanism**

Thus far we have proposed a link between an aspect of the self-concept, global identification, and a tendency in decision to utilize ideas from different cultures in decision making. However, what psychological mechanism accounts for the association between managers' self concept and their decision making style? Drawing on social psychology research on perspective taking (Galinsky, Maddux, Gilin, & White, 2008; Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000; Ku, Wang, & Galinsky, 2010), cross cultural training (Bhawuk, 1998), and international experience and creative problem solving (Maddux, Adam, & Galinsky, 2010; Maddux & Galinsky, 2009), we propose that the cognitive habit of taking the perspective of different culture counterparts is a byproduct of global identification that gives rise to culturally integrative approaches to problem solving.

Perspective taking is a cognitive capacity that allows individuals to consider the world from others' viewpoint, and moreover, allows an individual to anticipate the behavior and reactions of others (Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000). More recently, researchers have found that cultural perspective taking is distinct from more general perspective taking (Lee, Adair, & Seo, in press). Moreover, when individuals take the perspective of an outgroup member, they are more likely to behave in a way consistent with the stereotype of the outgroup member (Ku, et al., 2010). These findings suggest that managers who take the perspective of a person from a different culture, for example, a Mexican colleague, would be more likely to incorporate Mexican culture's priorities and preferences (for example, putting emphasis on family relations in business). This cognitive habit is important to examine in terms of managerial effectiveness in multicultural work environments because it has been found to be associated with better performance in strategic interactions such as integrative negotiations

(Galinsky, et al., 2008).

The notion that cultural perspective taking facilitates managerial decision making is also consistent with cross-cultural training research (Bhawuk, 1998) and recent research on international experience and creative problem solving (Maddux, et al., 2010; Maddux & Galinsky, 2009). For example, literature on cross-cultural training which finds that people become better at making judgments and decisions appropriate to a new cultural setting after being trained in the habit of considering cultural differences in value orientations and interpretive frames (Bhawuk, 1998). To illustrate, suppose a manager in a US-based firm, which typically relies on individual performance bonuses, has to decide how to motivate employee performance in a recently acquired Mexican division. If the manager considers how individual performance payments might come across to the more collectivistic Mexican world-view this will likely help her in asking the right questions and making the policy adjustments in formulating an incentive plan for the Mexican division. A more adaptive solution to such situation is placing more weight on work group performance rather than strictly using an individual performance incentive plan. Moreover, research on managers who have lived abroad finds that the degree of adaptation to the other culture determines the extent to which managers gain greater flexibility in problem solving (Maddux, et al., 2010; Maddux & Galinsky, 2009). Therefore, the habit of thinking about the practices of other cultures is expected to facilitate problem solving and the inclusion of these practices in decision making.

However, how does managers' global identity give rise to the habit of thinking about the world from the perspective of a person from a different culture? We contend that global identification involves incorporating others' priorities and preferences into the self, and as such, should promote a cognitive tendency to chronically think about other's preferences and

priorities when solving problems. For example, research on the intercultural development of sojourners holds that the self-related process of accepting the other culture's differences (rather than ethnocentrically projecting one's own culture onto all people) lays the groundwork for learning to cognitively adapt or shift perspectives effectively cultural perspective taking (Hammer, Bennett, & Wiseman, 2003).

Consistent with our argument, past research finds that the cognitive habit of thinking about the world from other's point of view can form into a habit. For example, research on individuals having strong identifications with two cultures, such as Asian-American immigrants or native Americans, documents an automatized frame-shifting tendency in many domains of judgment and decision making wherein the bicultural individual switches between norms of the heritage or host culture triggered by visual or linguistic cues in the social situation (Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martinez, 2000). While this may begin as a deliberate process, some aspects of it become an automatized habit (Briley, Morris, & Simonson, 2005). This chameleon-like frame switching process is more likely for biculturals who represent their two cultures in their identity as integrated rather than separate (Benet-Martínez, Leu, Lee, & Morris, 2002; Friedman, Liu, Chi, Hong, & Sung, in press) .

Other studies of problem solving suggest that more integrated bicultural identity is associated with greater facility in taking two cultural perspectives on the same problem and ultimately generating more culturally integrative solutions (Cheng, et al., 2008). Global identity is akin to integrated bicultural identity, in that different cultural identities become merged into one identity with a broader international arena. Based on interviews with individuals who have immigrated twice, Sussman (2000) suggested that global identification fosters cognitive habits of drawing upon multiple cultural perspectives. Taking these ideas

about the connection between cultural identities and perspective taking to their next step, we propose that global identification, which involves integrating others' in the self, would incline an individual toward the habit of taking multiple cultural perspectives on a problem. In summary, we propose the following hypothesis:

*H3: The relationship between global identification and culturally integrative problem solving is mediated by cultural perspective taking.*

We tested the three hypotheses formulated above in two studies. In Study 1, we examined our hypotheses using a sample of international MBA students reflecting on their problem solving habits working in multicultural settings and international teams. In Study 2, we examine the effects of global identity salience on utilizing foreign cultural business practices in a business case involving a multinational corporation.

### **Study 1**

The goal of Study 1 is to examine our hypotheses using a sample of international MBA students reporting on their problem solving habits working in culturally diverse work environments. We evaluated culturally integrative problem solving by evaluating students problem solving in culturally diverse work settings (time 1 dependent variable). We hypothesized that global identification would be positively associated with students' habit of integrating foreign cultural ideas to solve problems and this effect will be explained by students' cultural perspective taking. Two months subsequent to evaluating students' problem solving in culturally diverse settings, we evaluated students' collaborative skills working in international teams. We expected that global identity salience would also be positively associated with the degree to which students sought out diverse perspectives and ideas working international teams (culturally integrated collaboration) and this effect would be

explained by students' habit of taking the perspective of different culture peers. Last, we examined the association between length of time students spent abroad and their strength of global identification.

## **Method**

**Participants.** 201 MBA students (Males = 64%) were recruited to fill out an online survey as a voluntary part of their orientation activities (37% of incoming students completed the survey). Participants represented 38 nationalities (54.7% of US nationality and 45.3% of non-US nationalities). Nationalities represented the following world regions: Africa = 2.5%, Central Asia = 2.5%, East-Asia = 11.9%, Europe = 12.9%, Middle-East = 1.5%, North America = 58.7% and South America = 10%.

**Procedure.** Before arriving to campus, MBAs were asked to complete an online survey about their international experience. Students were provided a link to an online survey that contained time 1 measures. The survey asked students to reflect on their behavior and cognitive practices while working in multicultural work environments (e.g. international teams, work or study abroad programs, etc). Two months after these measures were collected, students were asked to complete a 360 leadership survey as part of a course assignment. During these two months, students worked in internationally diverse learning teams composed of five to six students. On average, each team was composed of three American students, one European student and between 1-2 students from either: Africa, South-America, Middle-East, East Asia or Central Asia. Students rated themselves on leadership items (time 2 measure) which evaluated their decision making while working in international teams.

### ***Time 1 Measures.***

*International Experience.* Students were asked to list up to five experiences working or studying abroad, starting from their longest stay. Participants with more than one home culture were instructed to exclude the countries in which they were raised. For each stay, participants listed if it was either a study or work abroad stay as well as the number of months they resided in that country. We calculated the length of study abroad stays by adding the number of months for all the stays participants indicated were study abroad stays. We also created the same variable for all stays participants indicated they were work stays. In addition, students who did not have either work or study abroad experiences were assigned zero months for either work or study stay measures. From our sample, 51.7% of students had one or more study abroad experience and 40.8% had one or more work abroad experience. The maximum amount of months participants in our sample had studied or worked abroad was 144 and 120 months respectively.

*Global Identity.* The global identity items were adapted from Shokef and Erez's (2006) global identification scale and included five items (Table 1, items 1-5). Students responded to the items using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree*; 5 = *Strongly Agree*). The scale revealed good internal consistency, Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.78$ . Items on this scale were averaged to create a score for each student.

*Cultural Perspective Taking.* The measure was adapted from research on cultural perspective taking (Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000; Lee, et al., 2011) as well as the cognitive habits developed by expatriates (Hammer et al., 2003). The scale included three items (Table 1, items 6-8) which were rated using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree*; 7 = *Strongly Agree*). The scale revealed good internal consistency, Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.70$ . Items on this scale were averaged to create a score for each student.

*Culturally Integrative Problem Solving.* The measure was developed based on past research examining biculturals' decision making process when solving problems in domains associated with their respective cultural identities (Cheng, et al., 2008). The scale included two items (Table 1, items 9-10) which were rated using a 7 –point Likert scale (1 = *Never*, 7 = *Always*, Cronbach's  $\alpha = .76$ ). Items on this scale were averaged to create a score for each student.

*Culturally Integrative Collaboration.* We used three items to assess students' collaboration working on international teams. Items on the scale included the following statements: "When making a decision, I seek information from diverse sources.", "I make effective use of other people's advice in making a decision.", and "As a listener, I get others to open up, elaborate and share information." The scale included three items which were rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Never*, 7 = *Always*, Chronbach's  $\alpha = .50$ ). Items on this scale were averaged to create a score for each student.

**Control Variables.** Past research has found that global identification varies as a function of cultural background (Shokef & Erez, 2008). Thus, we used students' region as control variables in all analyses. We created seven dummy variables for each of the following cultural regions: (1) Africa, (2) Central Asia, (3) East-Asia, (4) Europe, (5) Middle-East, (6) North America and (7) South America.

## **Results and Discussion**

As recommended by organizational behavior scholars, confirmatory factor analysis procedures should be carried out when study measures are based on a-priori theory and research (Hurley et al., 1997). As a result, we carried out confirmatory factor analysis procedures to examine the divergent validity of the three measures administered at time 1.

**Confirmatory Factor Analysis.** We compared the model fit of the hypothesized three factor model (global identity, cultural perspective taking, and culturally integrative problem solving) with a single factor model. The models were assessed in comparison to a baseline (independence) model using the  $X^2$  and the  $X^2/d.f.$  parameters and a number of relative fit indices, namely: the goodness of fit index (GFI), the normed fit index, NFI (Bentler & Bonett, 1980) and the comparative fit index, CFI (Bentler, 1990). GFI, CFI and NFI values greater than .95 indicate an excellent fit to the data, whereas RMSEA values below 0.05 indicate a good fit for the model (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999). The three factor model revealed that all absolute and relative fit measures were all above recommended standards (e.g., Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993):  $X^2=48.45$ ,  $df = 32$ ,  $p <.05$ ;  $X^2/d.f= 1.51$ ; GFI = .95, NFI=, 0.96, CFI = .99, and RMSEA = .05). By comparison, a single factor model did not fit the data well ( $X^2 =162.65$   $df =35$ ,  $p <.01$ ;  $X^2/d.f= 4.65$ ; GFI = 0.86, NFI = 0.89, CFI = 0.92, RMSEA = .14). The chi square difference test computed between the two models indicated a significantly better fit for the three-factor model than for the single-factor model,  $X^2 (3) =114.2$ ,  $p < .001$ .

**Time 1 Measures.** The descriptive statistics of the study measures are reported in Table 2. Students' cultural regions were used as control variables in the following analyses as cultural background has been found to be associated with global identification (Shokef & Erez, 2008).

**International Experience.** Consistent with our first hypothesis, global identity was positively associated with number of months students studied abroad,  $r = .20$ ,  $p <.01$  and number of months students worked abroad,  $r = .23$ ,  $p < .01$ .

**Culturally Integrative Problem Solving.** Consistent with our second hypothesis, global

identification was positively associated with culturally integrated problem solving ( $\beta = .48, p < .01$ ). Next, we examined whether cultural perspective taking mediated this effect using Baron and Kenny's method for testing mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986) and a Sobel test. Global identity was positively related to cultural perspective taking ( $\beta = .50, p < .05$ ) and with the addition of cultural perspective taking into the multiple regression model, the positive effect between global identity and culturally integrated decision making was reduced ( $\beta = .26, p < .01$ ), whereas cultural perspective taking remained a significant predictor ( $\beta = .44, p < .01$ ) indicating partial mediation. A Sobel test confirmed the indirect effect between global identity and culturally integrative decision making via cultural perspective taking was statistically significant,  $Z = 5.00, p < .01$ . The results are presented in Figure 1.

*Culturally Integrative Collaboration.* Global identity was positively associated with culturally integrative collaboration evaluated at time 2 ( $\beta = 0.17, p < 0.05$ ). Next, we examined whether cultural perspective taking mediated this effect. With the addition of cultural perspective taking into the regression model, the positive effect between global identity and culturally integrative collaboration turned statistically non-significant ( $\beta = 0.10, p > 0.10$ ), whereas cultural perspective taking remained a significant predictor ( $\beta = 0.18, p < .05$ ) suggesting a mediating effect. A Sobel test confirmed the indirect effect between global identity and decision making via cultural perspective taking was statistically significant,  $Z = 2.15, p < .05$ . The model results are presented in Figure 2. In addition, we examined the association between culturally integrative problem solving (time 1 dependent variable) and culturally integrative collaboration (time 2 dependent variable) and found them to be positively associated,  $r = .31, p < .01$ .

The results of Study 1 provide support for our three hypotheses. Using a sample of

international MBA students in a quasi-field setting, we find that global identification is positively associated with utilizing foreign cultural ideas when students engage in (1) problem solving in multicultural work environments, and (2) collaboration skills working in international teams. Consistent with our predictions, cultural perspective taking, the habit of thinking of a problem from the perspective of a person from a different culture, explained this effect. Extending past research and theory, we find that international experiences, such as study and work abroad experiences, are associated with global identification.

One of the limitations of Study 1 is it did not establish the causal association between our main variables. Study 2 addresses these shortcomings in an experimental design by manipulating global identity salience. Research on self-categorization theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987) has emphasized that, although individuals may subscribe to many identity categories, typically there is only category salient in mind at a given time. Therefore, in Study 2, we used an experimental paradigm involving implicit priming to make global identification salient and test its causal effect on cultural perspective taking and CIDM.

## **Study 2**

In Study 2, we examined American managers' problem solving while confronted with the ideas and practices from a local home office (Mexico). To complement the methods employed in Study 1, we manipulated the temporary salience of global identification rather than measuring individual differences in chronic global identification. Second, we held constant the culture of the participant (American) and that of the colleagues with whom the participant could seek advice from prior to decision making (American and Mexican). We measured culturally integrative problem solving using two measures: (1) the degree to which American participants sought the advice of a Mexican colleague versus an American

colleague and (2) the extent to which they utilized the Mexican colleague's cultural advice when solving the business issue. Third, in contrast to Study 1, we used external raters to evaluate the degree to which participants engaged in culturally integrative problem solving in the business case.

The study materials were adapted from a negotiation role-play exercise called "The Mexico Venture" (Schroth & Ramirez, 2002). In the scenario we created, American participants were put in the role of an American businessman working for an American software company based in Chicago and who is now assigned to head the company's operations in its Mexican branch. The task of the manager was to provide the American board of directors with recommendations on ten business issues associated with the Mexican branch business operations. Participants could seek the advice of either an American or Mexican colleague before proposing their solution to each issue. Six of these ten issues were culturally laden issues; such as issues which reflected cultural differences in power distance (e.g. need to maintain a receptionist to greet customers) or collectivism (e.g. employee incentive system). Four issues were not associated with cultural values or beliefs (e.g. personal or financial issues). The dependent measures were the extent to which participants sought advice from the Mexican colleague and the degree to which their solutions incorporated the Mexican colleague's advice (e.g. Mexican local practices and norms).

## **Method**

**Participants.** Fifty one undergraduate students (32 females, 19 males) from a large University in the Eastern US participated in the study. The mean age was 21.94 years ( $SD = 3.13$ ). All participants were tested individually and received \$8 for their participation in the study. To control the conditions of cultural contrast, participation was restricted to

students born and raised in the United States, who are native speakers of English and who identify as White non-Hispanics. Prior to the study, participants answered a short demographic survey at home which included the global identity scale ( $M = 3.11$ ,  $SD = 0.84$ ).

**Procedure.** Participants arrived to the lab and were randomly assigned to global or control conditions, and given the appropriate version of a sentence unscrambling task which was used as a global prime in previous research (Tankard, Markus, & Savani, 2011). After completing this priming task, participants were provided with information about the business case and their role. The participants were advised they were appointed as head of Operations of the Mexican branch of an American company and needed to provide the American board of directors with recommendations on ten decisions related to the Mexican branch of the company. Six out of the ten decisions were culturally laden issues which involved issues where there are differences between American and Mexican business practices and norms. Of the remaining decisions, two were financial matters (e.g. next year's revenue) and two more personal issues (e.g. hotel stay). All ten issues were randomized for each participant to prevent any order effects. Participants were given brief background about the 10 business issues. In addition, participants were advised of two colleagues from whom they could seek advice on these issues: Jose Martinez the head of international marketing (Mexican colleague) and Steve Johnson the financial controller (American colleague). For each issue, after choosing between seeking advice from Jose or Steve (both were not allowed), they were presented with an advice message from the chosen colleague. The Mexican colleague provided the participants with an explanation of the issue from the perspective of a Mexican manager and local business practices whereas the American colleague provided the American perspective on each issue and a financial analysis. For instance, one issue was the receptionist

in the local branch. The local Mexican manager insisted that the Mexican office will have a receptionist, but this idea seemed superfluous to an American given the small size of the office. Participants who choose to seek Jose's (Mexican colleague) advice on this issue were provided with the following information:

This dilemma reminds me of an example from my past professional experience in Turkey. There was a function of a 'tea man' - full time office employee, who was responsible for brewing tea in a traditional Turkish way. Every hour he made his way around the office offering tea. My new American boss wanted to cut the costs quickly, so he replaced a tea man with a vending machine. It was a bad decision because Turkish clients would not take seriously a company that lacks a 'tea man'. The receptionist in Mexican companies represents a similar role--she is the face of the company. She welcomes the customers and knows their personal preferences. Customers would be surprised if there is no receptionist to cater to their needs. Therefore, I would be careful about removing the receptionist role if you want to maintain your current customer relations and business status.

On the other hand, Steve's advice was the following:

All I have to say is that in the US, similarly sized companies do not have a receptionist; each employee handles administrative tasks him or herself. Also, I compared the receptionist's salary with sales agents' salaries and it seems that we could afford two part-time agents for the same amount of money that we currently pay the receptionist. Sales agents would be more of use for Algorithm. It would be difficult to find a sound justification for keeping a receptionist on the payroll. As seen in this example, the Mexican colleague always supported a decision that was

consistent with Mexican business practices whereas the American colleague always advocated imposing US practices. Additionally, the advice of the Mexican colleague (Jose) was twice as long (~150 words) as that of the American colleague (~75 words). The response length difference captured the trade-off involved in seeking advice from foreign colleagues—it demands greater effort and hence is less expedient (Adair, Okumura, & Brett, 2001; Adler & Graham, 1989). Next, participants were asked to make their decisions; they were asked to come-up with solutions to the issues they were presented with using an open-ended response format. The responses were later rated by two research assistants blind to conditions and hypotheses. Afterwards, participants completed questions about their approach to making these managerial decisions, including the extent to which they took the perspective of a Mexican businessperson during the task (cultural perspective taking measure). After completing the study, participants were thanked, debriefed and paid.

### **Materials.**

***Global Identity Prime.*** The sentence unscrambling task contained 18 items which has been used in past research to implicitly prime global identity (Tankard, et al., 2011). For each item, participants were given a set of words and asked to form a sentence using all the words provided and without using any additional words. For participants in the global condition, nine of the 18 sentences contained words made inferences to the habits, preferences and behaviours of globally identified individuals (for example, “Michelle uses the internet to read the international news”) and nine sentences used neutral words. Participants in the control condition were provided with 18 sentences which only included neutral words (for example, “Michelle needs a new computer”).

***Cultural Advice Seeking.*** To measure the extent to which participants’ sought cultural

advice to solve the business issues, we summed the number of issues participants sought the Mexican colleague's advice across the ten issues.

***Incorporating Cultural Advice in Problem Solving.*** To evaluate the degree to which participants integrated the advice of the Mexican colleague (Jose) in their final solutions to business problems, two raters evaluated the open responses of each participant on the following two items: "to what degree was the solution based on the Mexican colleague's advice?" and "to what degree was the solution based on the American colleague's advice?" (Reverse coded). The raters provided their ratings using a 7 point Likert scale and their ratings were averaged to create a score for each participant for each issue ( $1 = \textit{strongly disagree}$ ;  $7 = \textit{strongly agree}$ ; inter-rater reliability across the 10 issues: Cronbach's  $\alpha = .91$ ). We created a summary score for each participant by averaging their scores across the ten issues.

***Cultural Perspective Taking.*** We adapted the three items from Study 1 to evaluate participants' cultural perspective taking in this task. Participants reported their perspective taking tendencies during the business case using the following three items: (1) I tried to think what a Mexican manager would do in this case, (2) When encountering an unexpected business practice, I tried to figure it out by taking the Mexican business perspective and (3) I used different criteria for interpreting and evaluating the case than I use in my own culture (Rating were made on a seven point Likert scale:  $1 = \textit{Strongly Disagree}$ ,  $7 = \textit{Strongly Agree}$ ). Participants' ratings across the three items were averaged to create an individual score.

## **Results and Discussion**

Participants' age was entered as a control variable in all analyses as age was significantly associated with the main dependent variables: seeking cultural advice,  $r = .31$   $p < .05$ , and incorporating cultural advice in problem solving,  $r = .33$ ,  $p < .05$ .

**Seeking Cultural Advice.** An ANCOVA [between-subjects factor: identity prime (global, control); covariate: age] revealed a main effect of global identity prime,  $F(1, 48) = 6.77, p < .05, \eta^2 = .12$ . Across the ten issues, seeking advice from the Mexican colleague was higher in the global identification prime condition ( $M = 5.04$ ) than in the control condition ( $M = 4.15$ ). Follow-up analysis revealed that this effect was due to enhanced cultural advice seeking on the six culturally laden issues but not the filler issues. An ANCOVA [between-subjects factor: identity prime (global, control); covariate: age] revealed a main effect of global identity prime,  $F(1, 48) = 8.10, p < .01, \eta^2 = .23$  on the six culturally laden issues. Advice seeking from the Mexican colleague was higher in the global identification prime condition ( $M = 2.96$ ) than the control condition ( $M = 2.12$ ). On the four neutral issues, advice seeking from the Mexican colleague was not higher in the global identification prime condition ( $M = 2.08$ ) than the control condition ( $M = 2.04$ ),  $F(1, 48) = .03, p = .87, \eta^2 = .04$ .

**Incorporating Cultural Advice in Problem Solving.** An ANCOVA [between-subjects factor: identity prime (global, control); covariate: age] revealed a main effect of global identity prime,  $F(1, 48) = 5.40, p < .05, \eta^2 = .10$ . Across the ten issues, participants' adoption of cultural advice into their solutions was higher in the global identification prime condition ( $M = 4.01$ ) than in the control condition ( $M = 3.58$ ). Follow-up analysis revealed that this effect emerged only in the culturally laden issues. On the six culturally sensitive issues, participants provides solutions to the problem more in line with the Mexican colleague's advice (and less in line with the American colleague's advice) ( $M = 3.86$ ) than participants in the control condition ( $M = 3.20$ ),  $F(1, 48) = 8.33, p < .01, \eta^2 = .24$ . On the four neutral issues, cultural advice was not incorporated differently amongst participants in the global identification prime condition ( $M = 4.19$ ) than the control condition ( $M = 4.07$ ),  $F(1,$

48) = 0.11,  $p = .74$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ . Last, we tested the association between cultural advice seeking and incorporating cultural advice in problem solving and found them to be strongly positively associated as predicted,  $r = .72$ ,  $p < .01$ .

**Mediation Analysis.** To test whether cultural perspective taking during the task accounted for the association between global prime and cultural advice seeking on the six culturally laden issues, we followed Baron and Kenny's (1986) steps for testing mediation. Multiple regression analyses revealed that the global prime had a positive effect on cultural advice seeking,  $\beta = .37$ ,  $p < .01$  as well as cultural perspective taking,  $\beta = .44$ ,  $p < .01$ . When both the experimental condition and cultural perspective taking were included in the model, the effect of the prime turned statistically non-significant,  $\beta = .19$ ,  $p = .17$ , while the effect of cultural perspective taking remained statistically significant,  $\beta = .42$ ,  $p < .01$  (see Figure 3). A Sobel test confirmed that the indirect effect between global identity prime and cultural advice seeking via cultural perspective taking was statistically significant,  $Z = 2.37$ ,  $p < .05$ . The results are presented in Figure 3.

We next examined whether cultural perspective taking mediated the effect of global identity prime on incorporating cultural advice in problem solving on the six culturally laden issues. We first established that global identity prime was positively associated with adopting cultural advice in decision making ( $\beta = .38$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and cultural perspective taking ( $\beta = .44$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Second, we regressed global identity prime and cultural perspective taking on incorporating cultural advice in decision making and found that global identity prime turned statistically non-significant,  $\beta = .16$ ,  $p = .20$ , while the effect of cultural perspective taking remained statistically significant,  $\beta = .48$ ,  $p < .00$ . A Sobel test confirmed that the indirect effect between global identity prime and incorporating cultural advice in problem solving via

cultural perspective taking was statistically significant,  $Z = 2.48, p < .05$ . The results are presented in Figure 4.

Taken together, the results of Study 2 support hypotheses 2 and 3 and reveal that global identity salience promotes culturally integrative decision making. To complement Study 1, we used an experimental design with external evaluators to test our hypotheses. Moreover, we evaluated managerial problem solving using two process measures: cultural advice seeking prior and the degree to which final solutions adopted foreign (e.g. Mexican) cultural practices. Consistent with our hypotheses, American participants primed with global identity were more likely to seek the advice of a Mexican colleague on a culturally laden issue. More importantly, global priming also increased participants' use of their Mexican colleague's advice about local norms and practices in their final solutions to the American board of directors on culturally sensitive issues. At the same time, global identity priming did not alter participants cultural advice seeking and business solutions on non-culturally salient issues (personal or financial issues) in which the Mexican colleague's advice was less relevant and appropriate for decision making. In other words, priming of global identity facilitated participant's interest in the Mexican colleague's advice only when the advice of the Mexican colleague was applicable and appropriate. This evidence is consistent with past theory and research finding that knowledge activation depends largely on applicability and accessibility, which in turn hinges on recency and frequency of use (Higgins, 1996). The results from Study 2 suggest that global identity salience can promote incorporating of local practices in decision making for culturally laden issues, but not for issues in which foreign cultural knowledge is irrelevant.

## **General Discussion**

The present research provides an important theoretical and empirical contribution to ongoing research investigating managerial performance in culturally diverse work settings. In Study 1, global identification was positively associated the habit of integrating foreign cultural ideas when solving a problem and was explained by the habit of taking the perspective of a person from a different culture. Furthermore, global identification was also found to be positively associated with MBA students' collaboration skill in international teams and was explained by cultural perspective taking. In Study 2, global identity salience promoted seeking and utilizing foreign cultural advice to solve business problems in a multinational corporation. Consistent with past theory and research, we also found that length of time spent working and studying outside one's home culture was associated with strength of global identification. We evaluated our hypotheses in a quasi-field setting as well as a laboratory experiment and found converging evidence supporting our three main hypotheses.

### **Theoretical and Practical Implications**

The present research offers a number of key contributions to organizational behavior research. While ample research has investigated managerial intercultural effectiveness by evaluating managers' adjustment during expatriate assignments (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005; Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991), international experience (Black, et al., 1991) or cultural intelligence (Ang, et al., 2007), little research has focused on examining managers' global identity. Moreover, recent research has recognized the importance of global identity in moderating the relationship between managerial skills and effectiveness (Rockstuhl, et al., in press). Consistent with this argument, our findings suggest that global identity salience allows managers to recognize when cultural practices are important to adopt when working in MNCs or during expatriate assignments.

The present research also provides novel insights to research on intercultural effectiveness by introducing a new psychological mechanism: cultural perspective taking. While past research on perspective taking has chiefly focused on evaluating or manipulating perspective taking without any reference to culture (Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000), we provide the first empirical evidence suggesting that this perspective taking style has positive implications for intercultural collaboration. We also extend past research on perspective taking by showing that it is closely associated with one's self-concept and decision making. While past research has found that taking the perspective of an outgroup member promotes behavior consistent with the outgroup stereotype (Ku, et al., 2010), we find that taking the perspective of a person from a different culture is associated with making decisions that are in line with other cultural knowledge and preferences.

According to Janssens and Brett (2006), managers need to develop management skills for working in international teams that allow them to extract diverse information and also implement it in decision making. The present research contributes to this line of research as it offers new methods and measures for evaluating the extent to which managers utilize foreign cultural ideas in problem solving: seeking foreign cultural advice and incorporating foreign advice when solving business problems. We find that MBA students reported seeking diverse perspectives and incorporating diverse perspectives when working in international teams. We found that a similar decision making process took place when students evaluated a colleague's advice when solving problems in a business case simulating the problems confronted by managers in MNCs'. As a result, the present research unveils that intercultural effectiveness is preceded by seeking foreign cultural advice and being able to recognize when foreign cultural advice can provide a competitive advantage.

One of the main challenges of global teams is getting members from different cultures and countries to work effectively with one another (DiStefano & Maznevski, 2000; Earley & Gibson, 2002; Gibson & Zellmer-Bruhn, 2001; Hagel III & Brown, 2005; Janssens & Brett, 2006). At the same time, past research finds that making a shared identity salient promotes intergroup cooperation (Allport, 1979; Gaertner, Dovidio, Anastasio, Bachman, & Rust, 1993) and that organizations that encourage people to categorize one another as sharing a common interest are more capable of reaping the benefits of demographic diversity within their companies (Chatman, Polzer, Barsade, & Neale, 1998). The present findings extend these findings by demonstrating that managers' attachments to a superordinate identity can promote greater inclusion of outgroup members' ideas in decision making. The practical implications of the present finding are that there is no prerequisite for all team members or organizational members to share a global identity. In other words, it may be sufficient to have one team leader with high levels of global identification to stimulate the integration of cultural ideas and practices and promote greater intercultural cooperation. Consistent with this idea, recent research finds that individual level global identification is associated with greater cooperation and contribution to public goods (Buchan, et al., 2011). For example, Individuals who identified more strongly with a global identity contributed more money to an account serving the global community.

The present findings suggest that incorporating foreign ideas and practices in managerial decision making can promote managerial performance. For example, past research finds that local nationals provide important links to the local business community and play a key strategic role in gaining new business (Boyacigiller, 1990). Another reason why an integrative decision making style is expected to promote managerial performance in culturally

diverse teams is because it is closely associated with participative decision making. Participation of team members in decision making stimulates the integration of information shared (Stasser & Titus, 1987) and generates the social support needed for new ideas to be pursued and implemented (Mumford & Gustafson, 1988). Past research also finds that managers who seek input from a broader range of coworkers are more likely to propose decisions that satisfy a broader range of interests (Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, & Jennings, 1988; Miller & Monge, 1986).

Past research also finds that managerial performance in MNC's hinges on managers' ability to reconcile between home and local business practices (Boyacigiller, 1990). In the increasingly global work environments, cultural practices, such as wearing a *Hijab* to work may stand in contrast to Western values of feminism and thus may trigger exclusionary responses (Chiu & Cheng, 2007; Torelli & Cheng, 2011). Moreover, past research suggests finds when people from different cultures work together, such as in MNC, misunderstandings occur (Adler & Gundersen, 2008) and the greater the cultural differences the greater the frequency of such problems (Lincoln, Hanada, & Olson, 1981). Moreover, cultural differences between two countries influence not only interpersonal relations between employees of the MNC but also the context of decision making in the firm (Kogut & Singh, 1988). The present research suggests that global identity salience can facilitate reconciliation between home and local cultural practices in business which can improve managerial performance in expatriate assignments.

### **Limitations**

While individual studies have limitations, the present research presents several studies with different methods. The first study using MBA students in naturalistic settings has more

external validity than the laboratory study, yet the latter allows for greater internal validity. According to past research (Cook, Campbell, & Peracchio, 1990; Singleton Jr, Straits, & Straits, 1993), construct investigation is more accurate and reliable when multiple measurement methodologies are utilized. Along the same vein, we used different methods to evaluate our research question. While Study 1 used correlational methods in a naturalistic setting, Study 2 used an experimental design.

One potential limitation of Study 1 may be the use of self-reports to infer decision making process. Conway and Lance's (2010) claim that self-reports are as valid as observer reports in organizational behavior research and recommend that researchers explain why their research questions demand the use of self-reports. We believe that self-reports developed and utilized in the first study are more appropriate than peer reports as observers are less capable of recognizing which individuals engage in cultural perspective taking. Consistent with Conway and Lance's claims, we find that the effects we found using self-reports measures collected in the first study replicated in the second study using external evaluators. Another potential limitation of Study 1 was the use of MBA students which participated in the study as part of their program requirements. While this may be of concern, we believe there are more advantages than disadvantages to using this sample as international MBA students are more closely representative of international managers than other student samples.

### **Directions for Future Research**

Recent research suggests that when presented with a mix of home and foreign cultural business practices and ideas, some individuals exhibit strong exclusionary responses, such as greater stereotyping of the host culture (Chiu & Cheng, 2007; Torelli & Cheng, 2011). These findings suggest that some employees and customers of MNC which incorporate local and

home business practices may oppose such practices. For example, customers of national brands which decide to integrate foreign and national local practices and symbols may switch to competing brands. More optimistically, the findings from the present research suggest that interventions such as cultural perspective taking may remediate against such exclusionary responses. As a result, we suggest that future research examine the extent to which cultural perspective taking may promote employees and customers acceptance of cultural mixing.

Future directions for research should also include examining managers' global and local identity integration. According to Arnett (Arnett, 2002) and others (Erez & Gati, 2004), individuals' local and global identities are becoming increasingly integrated forming a hybrid "glocal" identity. This suggests that identity integration (Benet-Martínez, et al., 2002; Friedman, et al., 2011), the degree to which local and global identities are overlapping and complement each other, may be associated with managers' culturally integrative decision making style. This claim is consistent with past research which finds bi-culturalists with higher identity integration as more apt at creative problem solving (Cheng, et al., 2008). Moreover, recent research suggests that greater identification with local and global cultures is associated with greater intercultural collaboration. For example, Lyons, Lun and Gelfand (2011) find that American citizens who strongly identify with their national culture and a global culture are more trusting of foreigners and more likely to collaborate with different culture counterparts. Taking this line of research forward, we further suggest that researchers examine antecedents for global and local identity integration and its effect on managers' intercultural collaboration.

## **Conclusion**

Scholars are increasingly recognizing the importance of examining the role of global identification on group process within nations as well as across borders (Brewer, 2006;

Buchan, et al., 2011; Lyons, et al., 2011; Shokef & Erez, 2006, 2008). The present research provides some new directions for research suggesting that managers' self-concepts has important consequences for promoting integration of foreign and home cultural ideas increasingly available in today's global workforce (Earley & Gibson, 2002; Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007).

## References

- Adair, W. L., Okumura, T., & Brett, J. M. (2001). Negotiation behavior when cultures collide: The United States and Japan. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 371-385.. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.371
- Adler, N. J., & Graham, J. L. (1989). Cross-cultural interaction: the international comparison fallacy? *Journal of International Business Studies, 20*, 515-537. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/155189>
- Adler, N. J., & Gundersen, A. (2008). *International dimensions of organizational behavior*: South-Western Pub. doi:10.1002/tie.5060280112
- Allport, G. W. (1979). *The nature of prejudice*. New-York: Basic Books.
- Appadurai, A. (1996). *Modernity at large: Cultural dimensions of globalization* (Vol. 1): Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Appiah, K. A. (2007). *Cosmopolitanism: Ethics in a world of strangers*: New York & London: WW Norton & Company.
- Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007). Cultural intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation and task performance. *Management and Organization Review, 3*, 335-371. doi:10.1111/j.1740-8784.2007.00082.x
- Arnett, J. J. (2002). The psychology of globalization. *American Psychologist, 57*, 774. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.57.10.774
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 1173. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1173

- Benet-Martínez, V., Leu, J., Lee, F., & Morris, M. W. (2002). Negotiating biculturalism. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 33*, 492. doi: 10.1177/0022022102033005005:
- Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Luk, D. M. (2005). Input-based and time-based models of international adjustment: Meta-analytic evidence and theoretical extensions. *The Academy of Management Journal, 48*, 1033-1049.  
doi:10.2307/20159655
- Bhawuk, D. P. S. (1998). The role of culture theory in cross-cultural training. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 29*, 630-655. doi:10.1177/0022022198295003
- Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G. (1991). Toward a Comprehensive Model of International Adjustment: An Integration of Multiple Theoretical Perspectives. *The Academy of Management Review, 16*, 291-317. doi:10.5465/AMR.1991.4278938
- Boyacigiller, N. (1990). The role of expatriates in the management of interdependence, complexity and risk in multinational corporations. *Journal of International Business Studies, 21*, 357-381. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/154951>
- Brewer, M. B. (2006). Bringing Culture to the Table. *National culture and groups, 9*, 353-365. doi:10.1016/S1534-0856(06)09014-1
- Brewer, M. B., & Kramer, R. M. (1986). Choice behavior in social dilemmas: Effects of social identity, group size, and decision framing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 50*, 543-549. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.50.3.543
- Briley, D. A., Morris, M. W., & Simonson, I. (2005). Cultural chameleons: Biculturals, conformity motives, and decision making. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 15*, 351-363. doi:10.1207/s15327663jcp1504\_9
- Buchan, N. R., Brewer, M. B., Grimalda, G., Wilson, R. K., Fatas, E., & Foddy, M. (2011).

Global Social Identity and Global Cooperation. *Psychological Science*, 22, 821.

doi:10.1177/0956797611409590

Cannon, H. M., & Yaprak, A. (2002). Will the real-world citizen please stand up! The many faces of cosmopolitan consumer behavior. *Journal of International Marketing*, 10, 30-52. doi:10.1509/jimk.10.4.30.19550

Chatman, J. A., Polzer, J. T., Barsade, S. G., & Neale, M. A. (1998). Being different yet feeling similar: The influence of demographic composition and organizational culture on work processes and outcomes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 43, 749-780. doi: 10.2307/2393615

Chen, X. P., Liu, D., & Portnoy, R. (In press). A multilevel investigation of motivational cultural intelligence, organizational diversity climate, and cultural sales: Evidence from US real estate firms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. doi: 10.1037/a0024697

Cheng, C. Y., Sanchez-Burks, J., & Lee, F. (2008). Connecting the Dots Within. *Psychological Science*, 19, 1178 -1184. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9280.2008.02220.x

Chiu, C. Y., & Cheng, S. Y. Y. (2007). Toward a social psychology of culture and globalization: Some social cognitive consequences of activating two cultures simultaneously. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 1, 84-100. doi: 10.1111/j.1751-9004.2007.00017.x

Cohavi, I. (2007). The development of global identity in the global work environment (unpublished master's thesis). Technion University, Haifa, Israel.

Conway, J. M., & Lance, C. E. (2010). What reviewers should expect from authors regarding common method bias in organizational research. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25, 325-334. doi:10.1007/s10869-010-9181-6

- Cook, T. D., Campbell, D. T., and Peracchio, L. (1990). Quasi-experimentation. In M. D. Dunnette and L. M. Hough (Eds.) *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Cotton, J. L., Vollrath, D. A., Froggatt, K. L., Lengnick-Hall, M. L., & Jennings, K. R. (1988). Employee participation: Diverse forms and different outcomes. *Academy of Management Review*, *13*, 8-22. doi:10.2307/258351
- DiStefano, J. J., & Maznevski, M. L. (2000). Creating value with diverse teams in global management. *Organizational Dynamics*, *29*, 45-63. doi:10.1016/S0090-2616(00)00012-7
- Earley, P. C., & Gibson, C. B. (2002). *Multinational work teams: A new perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Erez, M. (2010). Culture and job design. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *31*, 389-400. doi:10.1002/job
- Erez, M., & Gati, E. (2004). A dynamic, multi-level model of culture: From the micro level of the individual to the macro level of a global culture. *Applied Psychology-an International Review*, *53*, 583-598. doi:10.1111/j.1464-0597.2004.00190.x
- Friedman, R., Liu, W., Chi, S. C. S., Hong, Y. Y., & Sung, L. K. (in press). Cross-cultural management and bicultural identity integration: When does experience abroad lead to appropriate cultural switching? *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*. doi: 10.1016/j.ijintrel.2011.03.002
- Gaertner, S. L., Dovidio, J. F., Anastasio, P. A., Bachman, B. A., & Rust, M. C. (1993). The common ingroup identity model: Recategorization and the reduction of intergroup bias. *European review of social psychology*, *4*, 1-26. doi:

10.1080/14792779343000004

Galinsky, A. D., Maddux, W. W., Gilin, D., & White, J. B. (2008). Why it pays to get inside the head of your opponent: The Differential Effects of Perspective Taking and Empathy in Negotiations. *Psychological Science, 19*, 378. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9280.2008.02096.x

Galinsky, A. D., & Moskowitz, G. B. (2000). Perspective-taking: Decreasing stereotype expression, stereotype accessibility, and in-group favoritism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 78*, 708. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.78.4.708

Gelfand, M. J., Erez, M., & Aycan, Z. (2007). Cross-cultural organizational behavior. *Annual Review of Psychology, 58*, 479-514. doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.58.110405.085559

Gelfand, M. J., Leslie, L. M., & Fehr, R. (2008). To prosper, organizational psychology should adopt a global perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 29*, 493–51. doi:10.1002/job

Gibson, C. B., & Zellmer-Bruhn, M. E. (2001). Metaphors and meaning: An intercultural analysis of the concept of teamwork. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 46*, 274-303. doi: 10.2307/2667088

Gillespie, K., McBride, J. B., & Riddle, L. (2010). Globalization, Biculturalism and Cosmopolitanism. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management, 10*, 37-53. doi:10.1177/1470595809359581

Hagel III, J. & Brown, J.S. (2005). *The Only Sustainable Edge: Why Business Strategy Depends On Productive Friction And Dynamic Specialization*. Harvard Business Press.

Hammer, M. R., Bennett, M. J., & Wiseman, R. (2003). Measuring intercultural sensitivity:

- The intercultural development inventory. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 27, 421-443. doi:10.1016/S0147-1767(03)00032-4
- Hannerz, U. (1990). Cosmopolitans and Locals in World Culture. In Featherstone M. (ed.) *Global Culture: Nationalism, Globalization and Modernity*, pp.237–252. London: Sage.
- Hannerz, U. (1996). *Transnational connections: culture, people, places*. New-York: Routledge
- Held, D. (2004). Democratic accountability and political effectiveness from a cosmopolitan perspective. *Government and Opposition*, 39, 364-391. doi:10.1111/j.1477-7053.2004.00127.x
- Higgins, E. T. (1996). Knowledge activation: Accessibility, applicability, and salience. In E. T. Higgins & A. W. Kruglanski (Eds.), *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles* (pp. 133–168). New York: Guilford Press.
- Hong, Y., Morris, M. W., Chiu, C., & Benet-Martinez, V. (2000). Multicultural minds: A dynamic constructivist approach to culture and cognition. *American Psychologist*, 55, 709. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.55.7.709
- Hong, Y., Wan, C., No, S., & Chiu, C. (2007). Multicultural identities. In S. Kitayama & D. Cohen (Eds.), *Handbook of Cultural Psychology* (pp.323-345). Guilford Press.
- Hurley, A. E., Scandura, T. A., Schriesheim, C. A., Brannick, M. T., Seers, A., Vandenberg, R. J., & Williams, L. J. (1997). Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis: Guidelines, issues, and alternatives. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18, 667-683. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199711)18:6<667::AID-JOB874>3.0.CO;2-T
- Imai, L., & Gelfand, M. J. (2010). The culturally intelligent negotiator: The impact of cultural

- intelligence (CQ) on negotiation sequences and outcomes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 112, 83-98. doi:10.1016/j.obhdp.2010.02.001
- Janssens, M., & Brett, J. M. (2006). Cultural intelligence in global teams - A fusion model of collaboration. *Group & Organization Management*, 31, 124-153.  
doi:10.1177/1059601105275268
- Kogut, B., & Singh, H. (1988). The effect of national culture on the choice of entry mode. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19, 411-432. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/155133>
- Kohonen, E. (2005). Developing global leaders through international assignments: An identity construction perspective. *Personnel Review*, 34, 22-36. doi: 10.1108/00483480510571860
- Ku, G., Wang, C. S., & Galinsky, A. D. (2010). Perception through a perspective-taking lens: Differential effects on judgment and behavior. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 46, 792-798. doi:10.1016/j.jesp.2010.04.001
- LeBoeuf, R. A., Shafir, E., & Bayuk, J. B. (2010). The conflicting choices of alternating selves. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 111, 48-61. doi: 10.1016/j.obhdp.2009.08.004
- Lee, S., Adair, W. L., & Seo, S. (in press). Cultural Perspective Taking in Cross-Cultural Negotiations. *Group Decision and Negotiation*.
- Leung, A. K., & Chiu, C. (2010). Multicultural experience, idea receptiveness, and creativity. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 41, 723-741. doi:10.1177/0022022110361707
- Leung, K., Bhagat, R. S., Buchan, N. R., Erez, M., & Gibson, C. B. (2005). Culture and international business: recent advances and their implications for future research.

*Journal of International Business Studies*, 36, 357-378.

doi:10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400150

- Lincoln, J. R., Hanada, M., & Olson, J. (1981). Cultural orientations and individual reactions to organizations: A study of employees of Japanese-owned firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 26, 93-115. doi:10.2307/2392603
- Lisak, A., Erez, M., & Schippers, M. (2011, August). *The emergence of leadership in MCTs: the relation to global characteristics*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Conference, Texas, USA.
- Lyons, S., Lun, J., & Gelfand, M. (2011, August). *The interplay of cultural and shared identities in intercultural negotiations*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Conference Texas, USA.
- Maddux, W. W., Adam, H., & Galinsky, A. D. (2010). When in Rome... Learn why the Romans do what they do: How multicultural learning experiences facilitate creativity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 36, 731. doi: 10.1177/0146167210367786
- Maddux, W. W., & Galinsky, A. D. (2009). Cultural borders and mental barriers: The relationship between living abroad and creativity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 96, 1047. doi:10.1037/a0014861
- Miller, K. I., & Monge, P. R. (1986). Participation, satisfaction, and productivity: A meta-analytic review. *Academy of management Journal*, 29, 727-753. doi:10.2307/255942
- Morris, M. W., Carranza, E., & Fox, C. R. (2008). Mistaken identity: activating conservative political identities induces “conservative” financial decisions. *Psychological Science*, , 19, 1154-1160. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9280.2008.02217.x
- Mumford, M. D., & Gustafson, S. B. (1988). Creativity syndrome: Integration, application,

- and innovation. *Psychological bulletin*, 103, 27. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.103.1.27
- Rockstuhl, T., Seiler, S., Ang, S., Van Dyn, L., & Anne, H. (in press). Beyond General Intelligence (IQ) and Emotional Intelligence (EQ): The Role of Cultural Intelligence (CQ) on Cross-Border Leadership Effectiveness in a Globalized World. *Journal of Social Issues*.
- Schroth, H. A., & Ramirez, J. (2002). The Mexico venture. Dispute resolution research center exercises. Dispute resolution research center exercises, Northwestern University.
- Shokef, E., & Erez, M. (2006). Global work culture and global identity, as a platform for a shared understanding in multicultural teams. *National culture and groups*, 9, 325-352. doi:10.1016/S1534-0856(06)09013-X
- Shokef, E. and Erez, M. (2008). Cultural Intelligence and Global Identity in Multicultural Teams, pp. 177-191. In: Soon, Ang and Linn Vandyne (Eds). *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence. Theory, Measurement and Applications*, Armonk:M.E. Sharpe, Inc.
- Singleton Jr, R. A., Straits, B. C., & Straits, M. M. (1993). *Approaches to social research*: New York: Oxford University Press.
- Stasser, G., & Titus, W. (1987). Effects of information load and percentage of shared information on the dissemination of unshared information during group discussion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 53, 81-93. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.53.1.81
- Sussman, N. M. (2000). The dynamic nature of cultural identity throughout cultural transitions: why home is not so sweet. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 4, 355-373. doi:10.1207/S15327957PSPR0404\_5
- Szerszynski, B., & Urry, J. (2002). Cultures of cosmopolitanism. *The Sociological Review*,

50, 461-481. doi:10.1111/1467-954X.00394

Tankard, M., Markus, H. R., & Savani, K. (2011, January). Psychological consequences of globalization in Chilean cultural contexts. Paper presented at Society for Personality and Social Psychology Conference, Texas, USA.

Thompson, C. J., & Tambyah, S. K. (1999). Trying to be cosmopolitan. *Journal of consumer research*, 26, 214-241. doi:10.1086/209560

Torelli, C., & Cheng, S. (2011). Cultural Meanings of Brands and Consumption: A Window into the Cultural Psychology of Globalization. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 5, 251-262. doi:10.1111/j.1751-9004.2011.00349.x

Turner, J. C., Hogg, M. A., Oakes, P. J., Reicher, S., & Wetherell, M. S. (1987).

Rediscovering the social group: A self-categorization theory. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Vertovec, S., & Cohen, R. (2003). *Conceiving cosmopolitanism: theory, context, and practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Table 1

*Study 1 Items and CFA Factor Loading.*

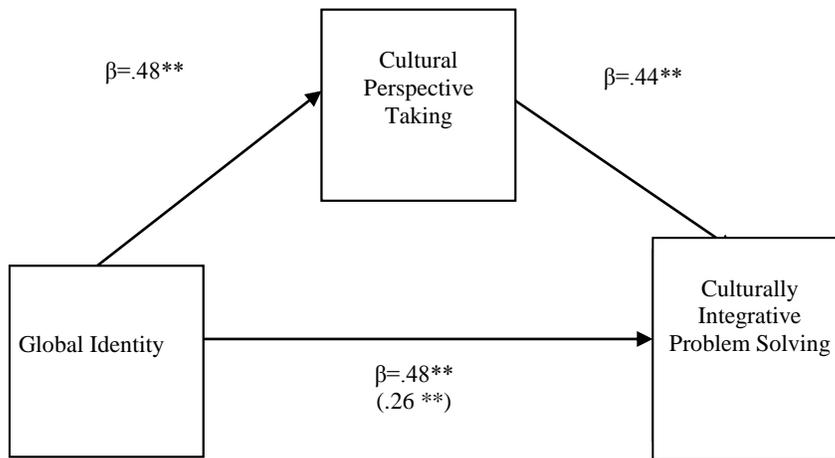
Scale Items	Factor Loading
<b>Global Identity</b>	
1. I feel at home in several countries.	0.75
2. I have more in common with individuals who have multiple cultural backgrounds and experiences.	0.71
3. I see myself as a citizen of the world rather than just of one country.	0.70
4. I act on a set of values acquired from multiple cultures as opposed to just one culture.	0.63
5. I spend as much time following international news as the local news.	0.46
<b>Cultural Perspective Taking</b>	
6. I can look at the world through the eyes of a person from a different culture.	0.72
7. When encountering unexpected business practices abroad, I have figured them out by taking the perspective of the host culture.	0.66
8. I use different criteria for interpreting and evaluating situations across cultures.	0.65
<b>Culturally Integrative Problem Solving</b>	
9. Familiarity with different cultural practices has allowed me to be more flexible in my approach to a problem.	0.90
10. I have applied a solution that I learned in one cultural setting to solve a problem in a different setting.	0.68

Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics and Partial Correlations (Study 1).*

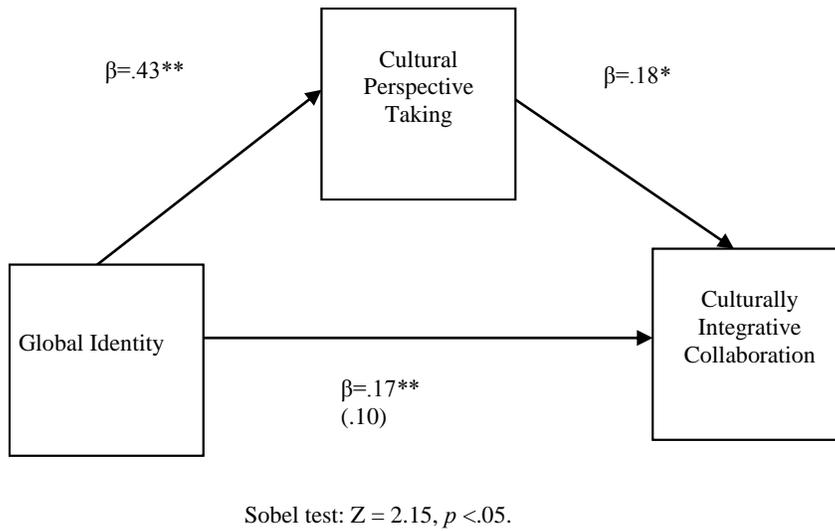
	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Work Abroad (Months)	8.53	17.48					
2. Study Abroad (Months)	9.9	22.08	0.09				
3. Global Identity	3.64	0.79	0.23**	0.20**			
4. Cultural Perspective Taking	4.49	1.01	0.28**	0.09	0.48**		
5. Culturally Integrative Problem Solving	3.73	1.44	0.15*	0.04	0.46**	0.56**	
6. Culturally Integrative Collaboration	5.45	0.72	0.10	0.05	0.16*	0.28**	0.31**

*Note.* The correlations presented controlled for students' cultural regions. \* $p < .05$ ; \*\*,  $p < .01$ .

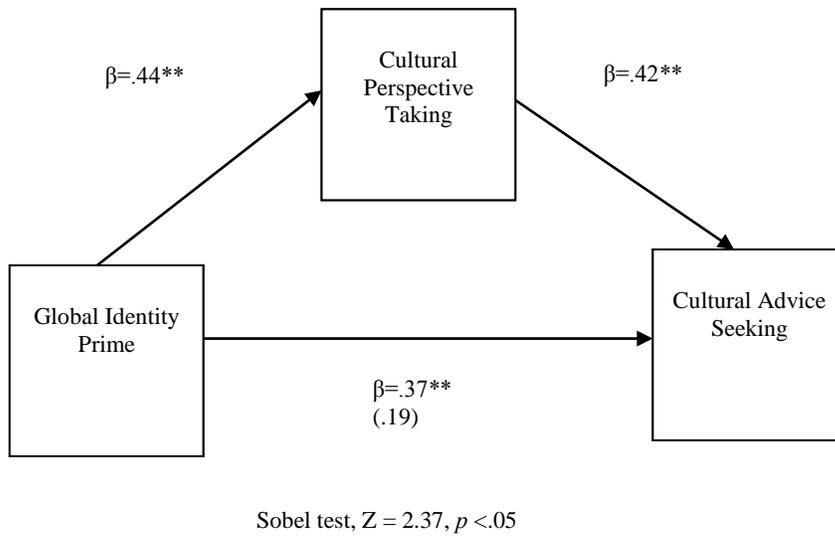


Sobel test:  $Z = 5.00, p < .01$ .

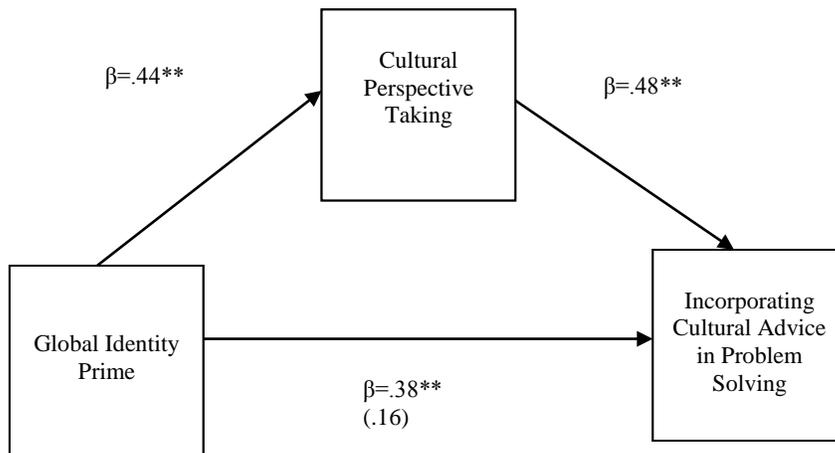
*Figure 1.* Mediation results showing cultural perspective taking mediating the association between global identity and culturally integrative problem solving (Study 1). \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $, p < .01$ .



*Figure 2.* Mediation results showing cultural perspective taking mediates the association between global identity and culturally integrative collaboration (Study 1).  $*p < .05$ ;  $**$ ,  $p < .01$ .



*Figure 3.* Mediation results showing cultural perspective taking mediating the association between global identity prime and cultural advice seeking (Study 2). \* $p < .05$ ; \*\*,  $p < .01$ .



Sobel test,  $Z=2.48$ ,  $p < .05$

*Figure 4.* Mediation results showing cultural perspective taking mediating the association between global identity prime and incorporating cultural advice in problem solving (Study 2).  $*p < .05$ ;  $**$ ,  $p < .01$ .