

An examination of the relationships of global leadership competency, trust in leader, and team process effectiveness in Thailand

Natcha Niljaeng^{} and Oranuch Pruetipibultham^{**}*

Abstract

This study aims to explore the relationships of global leadership competency, trust in the leader, and team process effectiveness. This study used quantitative research approach in 5 multinational companies in Thailand which consist of both expatriate leaders and local leaders (N = 818). This research explored relationships of the respondents' perceptions toward global leadership competency of their direct superior, trust in leader and team process effectiveness. The research employed and modified 3 standard questionnaires hence all necessary steps for developing questionnaire included confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to ensure content validity of all instruments in this study. This study used descriptive statistics to provide a summary of the research data on the variables. The descriptive statistical techniques included frequency, percentage, means, and standard deviation. For the inferential statistical analysis, this research employed one-way ANOVA and correlation analysis to empirically test the research questions. The findings suggested that there was high correlation between global leadership competency and trust in leader, and also found moderate correlation between global leadership competency and team process effectiveness. Recommendations for practical implication are provided at the end of this paper.

Keywords: Global leadership competency, Trust in leader, Team process effectiveness

*

Affiliation: School of Human Resource Development, National Institute of Development Administration 118 Moo 3, Sereethai Road, Klongchan, Bangkok, Bangkok 10240, Thailand.
Email: leaderyui@gmail.com

**

Affiliation: School of Human Resource Development, National Institute of Development Administration 118 Moo 3, Sereethai Road, Klongchan, Bangkok, Bangkok 10240, Thailand.
Email: juedory@gmail.com

การศึกษาความสัมพันธ์ของสมรรถนะความเป็นผู้นำระดับสากล ความเชื่อมั่นในผู้นำ และประสิทธิผลในกระบวนการทำงานของทีม ในประเทศไทย

ณัชชา นิลแจ้* และ อรุณช พฤตพิบูลธรรม**

บทคัดย่อ

การวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาถึงความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างสมรรถนะความเป็นผู้นำระดับสากล (Global Leadership Competency) ความเชื่อมั่นในผู้นำ (Trust in Leader) และประสิทธิผลในกระบวนการทำงานของทีม (Team Process Effectiveness) โดยการศึกษาครั้งนี้ใช้วิธีการวิจัยเชิงปริมาณใน 5 บริษัทข้ามชาติภายในประเทศไทย (จำนวน 818 คน) งานวิจัยนี้ศึกษาเกี่ยวกับความสัมพันธ์ของการรับรู้ถึงสมรรถนะความเป็นผู้นำระดับสากลของผู้บังคับบัญชาโดยตรงของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม ที่มีต่อความเชื่อมั่นในผู้นำ และประสิทธิผลในกระบวนการทำงานของทีม โดยงานวิจัยนี้ปรับใช้ 3 แบบสอบถามมาตรฐาน ดังนั้น จึงใช้การวิเคราะห์องค์ประกอบเชิงยืนยัน (Confirmatory Factor Analysis) เพื่อสร้างความมั่นใจในความเที่ยงตรงของเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถามทั้งหมดที่ใช้ในการศึกษาครั้งนี้ การศึกษาครั้งนี้ใช้สถิติเชิงบรรยายในการให้ข้อมูลของตัวแปรต่าง ๆ ที่ใช้ในการวิจัย เช่น ความถี่ ร้อยละ ค่ากลาง และค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐาน สำหรับสถิติเชิงอ้างอิงที่ใช้ในการวิจัยนี้คือ การวิเคราะห์ความแปรปรวนทางเดียว (One Way ANOVA) และ การวิเคราะห์ค่าสหสัมพันธ์ (Correlation) ในการทดสอบและตอบคำถามการวิจัย ผลการวิจัยพบว่า มีค่าสหสัมพันธ์ที่สูงระหว่างสมรรถนะความเป็นผู้นำระดับสากลและความเชื่อมั่นในผู้นำ และค่าสหสัมพันธ์ในระดับปานกลางระหว่างสมรรถนะความเป็นผู้นำระดับสากลกับประสิทธิผลในกระบวนการทำงานของทีม

คำสำคัญ: ความเป็นผู้นำระดับสากล ความเชื่อมั่นในผู้นำ ประสิทธิผลในกระบวนการทำงานของทีม

*

หน่วยงานผู้แต่ง: คณะพัฒนาทรัพยากรมนุษย์ สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์ 118 หมู่ 3 ถนนเสรีไทย แขวงคลองจั่น เขตบางกะปิ กรุงเทพมหานคร 10240 อีเมล: leaderyui@gmail.com

**

หน่วยงานผู้แต่ง: คณะพัฒนาทรัพยากรมนุษย์ สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์ 118 หมู่ 3 ถนนเสรีไทย แขวงคลองจั่น เขตบางกะปิ กรุงเทพมหานคร 10240 อีเมล: jueatory@gmail.com

Introduction

The speed of increasing global integration has impacted organizations, and leaders have encountered rapidly changes, such as new technologies, global competition, and cultural diversity (Friedman, 2006; Northouse, 2004; Rosen, Digh, Phillips, & Rosen, 2000). As a result of globalization, organizations are calling for leaders with a global perspective and an ability to integrate different points of view and responses to the global market effectively (Jeannet, 2000).

Most studies on global leadership during the 1990s emphasized global leadership competencies and global mindset (Beechler & Javidan, 2007; Jeannet, 2000; Kedia & Mukherji, 1999; Rhinesmith, 2003). Many of these competencies, however, overlap conceptually and appear not to work well universally (Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou, 2010). Leaders that are working in diverse cultural contexts appear to recognize different leadership styles in each national culture, and therefore various leadership skills are critical for leadership effectiveness (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002). In order to gain more comprehension of the concept of effective leadership in a global context, further study is critical.

Trust has been identified as a significant aspect in leadership theories (such as transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, leader-member exchange) and is also considered a critical dimension of effective leader behavior and leader effectiveness (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2007). The GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) project, which has conducted research in 62 cultures, also supports this idea. It pointed out that “being trustworthy” is one of the universal facilitators of leadership effectiveness (Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, & House, 2006). Miles and Snow (1992) emphasized that trust is critical in new organizational arrangements, which rely on employees’ self-direction and self-control. The challenge for the organization is that the global and virtual contexts constrain, or perhaps even impede, the development of trust (Jarvenpaa, Knoll, &

Leidner, 1998, p.30). As working in a global context may require leaders to work in multicultural environment, lead virtual teams or teams from a distance across the globe, trust appears to be even more critical to move teams forward quickly and effectively.

Based on the above reasons, study of the relationship of global leadership competency on trust in leader and team process effectiveness can enhance the knowledge of leadership effectiveness in the HR field. There has been to date no comprehensive research on this subject matter.

Literature Review

1. Global leadership competency

Global leadership is defined by Beechler and Javidan (2007) as “the process of influencing individuals, groups, and organizations (inside and outside the boundaries of the global organization) representing diverse cultural/ political/institutional systems to contribute towards the achievement of the global organization’s goals” (p.140). Despite the call for global leaders, organizations have been facing the challenge of global leader shortages (Alder & Bartholomew, 1992; Mercer Delta, 2006). Hence, research and studies on the better development of global leaders and the managerial competency are critical for organizations.

What is global leadership competency like? For this, Spencer, McClelland, and Spencer (1994) defined competency as the “motives, traits, self-concepts, attitudes, or values, content knowledge, or cognitive or behavioral skills—any individual characteristics that can be measured or counted reliably and that can be shown to differentiate significantly between superior and average performers, or between effective and in effective performers” (p. 6). According to Intagliata, Ulrich, and Smallwood (2000), competencies are vital for leadership development for at least 5 reasons, which are the following: 1) they can be used as a direction; 2) they are measurable; 3) they can be learned; 4) they can differentiate and distinguish

each organization; and 5) they are useful for management practice integration (p.13). One more advantage of competency is the linkage with organizational goals and strategies (Rodrigueze, D., Patel, R., Bright, A., Gregory, D., & Gowing, M.K., 2002), which is clearly critical for leadership development in order to ensure end results.

In addition, Morrison (2000) stated that “during the 1990s, competency-based leadership (competency) models have swept the human resources community” and organizations invested resources in designing specific leadership competency models that could be applied around the globe (p. 120). The GLOBE project is one of the most well-known researches on global leadership. Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, and House (2012) explained that the GLOBE project studied cross-cultural leadership with more than 200 researchers and more than 1,000 CEOs and 5,000 senior management team participants across 62 nations in the early 1990s. The authors also summarized recent key findings from the GLOBE project, stating the following: “a) national culture indirectly influences leadership behaviors through the leadership expectations of societies; b) some leadership behaviors are universally effective such as charismatic/valued-based leadership; others are much more culturally sensitive such as participative leadership, and c) truly superior CEOs by the degree to which their behaviors exceed their society’s expectations” (p. 504).

Prior to the aforementioned, Goldsmith, Greenberg, Robertson, and Hu-Chan (2003) conducted a multiple-method research plan for global leadership consisting of three phases: 1) thought leader panels; 2) focus/dialogue groups; and 3) interviews. Consequently, 14 characteristics of the global leader of the future inventory emerged and were eventually developed by the authors to be a list of 15 characteristics: 1) Thinking globally, 2) Appreciating diversity, 3) Developing technological savvy, 4) Building partnerships, 5) Sharing leadership, 6) Creating a shared vision, 7) Developing people, 8) Empowering people, 9) Achieving personal mastery, 10) Encouraging constructive dialogue, 11) Demonstrate integrity, 12)

Leading change, 13) Anticipating opportunities, 14) Ensuring customer satisfaction, 15) Maintaining a competitive advantage (p. 314 – p. 318)

As presented above, the global leader of the future inventory appears to focus on global leaders for business organizations and therefore Goldsmith et al. (2003) created survey questionnaires based on their research. This study aims to employ this tool, which is composed of the above items, to explore global leadership competency.

2. Trust in leader

“Trust is the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the action of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party” (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p.712). Mayer et al. (1995) also proposed that trust in leaders consists of three dimensions, which are ability, benevolence, and integrity.

Today’s leader requires the key ability to build and maintain trust (Bennis, 1997). The GLOBE project also found that “being trustworthy” was one of the universal facilitators of leadership effectiveness (Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, & House, 2006). Nevertheless, the findings from Watson Wyatt Worldwide (2002) revealed that only half of 7,500 respondents in all main industries felt trust in their senior leaders while trust was one of the key drivers of employee commitment that can lead to organizational performance. Undoubtedly, this is a call for further exploration to gain better insight into how to create and retain a level of trust in one’s leader in order to enhance organizational effectiveness

Apparently, trust is one of the key components in various leadership theories and studies. For instance, building followers’ trust is one of the key characteristics of charismatic and transformational leaders (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996); trust is also a critical factor of leadership effectiveness (Fleishman & Harris,

1962); and also an essential one in the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999). Some studies have emphasized that trust in leadership has an influence on team and organization effectiveness, and also its affects workplace outcomes, e.g. organizational citizenship behavior, goal acceptance, and task performance (Dirks, 2000).

In line with the aforementioned statement, Ovaice (2001) emphasized that “in the new global environment, the notion of trust is one issue of interpersonal and inter-group dynamic that critical to the success of multinational organizations” (p.160, part 6-4). It should be noted that that MNCs operate in a cross-cultural context, and national cultures that influence an individual’s beliefs and behaviors. It can also impact the trust-building process (Doney, Cannon, & Mullen, 1998), as trust is an organizational phenomenon that is contextually specific (Karmar, 1999).

In addition to the above aspects, studies have revealed strong relationships between trust in the leader, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, satisfaction with the leader, and the perception of leadership effectiveness (Dirk & Ferrin, 2002; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Whitener, 2001). Dirk and Ferrin (2002) explained further that trust in the leader can increase employees’ belief in the leader’s information and support the leader’s decisions. Fulmer and Gelfard (2012) pointed out that most of the studies on the individual’s trust in the leader appear to shed light on work attitudes, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and performance as a major contribution to trust.

According to the key contributions of trust as mentioned above, it is essential for organizations to be able to generate and sustain trust in order to ensure competitiveness and success in the long term.

3. Team-process effectiveness

Kozlowski and Bell (2001) reviewed numerous definitions and summarized them into the fundamental components of work groups and teams: “1) composed

of two or more individuals, 2) that exist to perform organizationally-relevant tasks, 3) share one or more common goals, 4) interact socially, 5) exhibit task interdependencies, 6) maintain and manage boundaries, and 7) that are embedded in an organizational context that sets boundaries, constrains the team, and influences exchanges with other units in the broader entity” (p.6). This study accepts the definition of the team of Baker and Salas (1997) because of its simplicity and its emphasis on the core of the team definitions.

As for team effectiveness, it was defined by Hackman (1987) as an evaluation of team performance and outcomes according to related criteria. Guzzo and Dickson (1996) described team effectiveness based on the work of Hackman (1987) and Sundstrom, De Meuse, and Futrell (1990), which indicated that team effectiveness included the following: “1) group-produced outputs; 2) the consequences a group has for its members; or 3) the enhancement of a team’s capability to perform effectively in the future” (p.309). Campion, Papper, Medsker (1996) proposed that team effectiveness should derive from five characteristics: “1) job design, 2) interdependence, 3) composition, 4) context, 5) process, and three criteria: 1) productivity, 2) satisfaction, 3) manager judgments” (p. 431).

Wageman, Hackman, and Lehman (2005) described team effectiveness under three-dimensional concepts as follows:

- “1. The productive output of the team (that is, its product, service, or decision) meets or exceeds the standard of quantity, quality, and timeliness of the team’s clients – the people who receive, review, and/or use the output. It is clients whose views count, not those of team members, except in those relatively rare cases when the team is the client of its own work.
2. The social processes the team uses in carrying out the work enhance members’ capability to work together interdependently in the future. We

define as effective only teams that are more capable as performing units when a piece of work is finished than they were when it was begun.

3. The group experience contributes positively to the learning and well-being of individual team members rather than frustrating, alienating, or deskilling them.” (p. 376)

Wageman et al. (2005) designed the Team Diagnosis Survey (TDS) to measure team effectiveness based on the second and third dimension because a self-report tool cannot provide reliable data about the acceptability of output for its customers. As Wageman et al. (2005) provided broad and complete concepts, and a framework and measurement instrument, on team effectiveness. The present study established a research model based partially on their work.

4. Linkage between global leadership competency and trust in leader

A great deal of literature has indicated leadership styles as one of the antecedents of trust in the leader, for instance, charismatic leadership (Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000), transformational and transactional leadership (Jung & Avolio, 2000), authentic leadership (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004), and servant leadership (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

Mayer et al. (1995) proposed three leader characteristics as key antecedents of trust in the leader: ability, benevolence, and integrity, while Dirks and Ferrin (2002) supported the notion that the perception of team members of these three characteristics of the leader can influence the level of trust in the leader.

As an organization requires different sets of leadership competency so that leaders can lead effectively in new contexts (Mendenhall et al., 2008; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2001), global leadership competency is undoubtedly critical. For the reason that “ability” is a part of competency and is also one of the components in creating trust in the leader, global leadership competency plays a significant role in the trust in the leader.

5. Linkage between global leadership competency and team effectiveness

Salas, Sims, and Burke (2005) conducted a teamwork studies synthesis and found that leadership was a key factor influencing team development, teamwork, and team effectiveness. Campion et al. (1996) also indicated that increasing team spirit with effective coaching of the leader can lead to team effectiveness, while Day et al. (2004) pointed out that leaders are “extremely influential” on the team, as they can “make or break a team” (p. 864). Northhouse (2004) also added that ineffective leadership is a key constraint for a team.

In addition, Cannon-Bowers, Tannenbaum, Salas, and Volpe (1995) reviewed the teamwork literature and included the leader as one of the core dimensions of teamwork. They explained that leadership can impact the team via: 1) the capacity to direct, plan, assign, and organize tasks; 2) the ability to coordinate and motivate team members and 3) the ability to assess team performance and create a good work atmosphere within the team.

According to Marquardt and Horvath (2001), leadership is more significant for team effectiveness for global leaders that lead and manage team members across cultures and boundaries, as there are more challenges and complexities in managing different perceptions, expectations, and behaviors. For example, a task-oriented culture tends to have higher trust propensity than a relationship-oriented culture, and a masculine culture appears to value the ability of the leader, while a feminine culture places more value in the benevolence of the leader (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). Therefore, global leadership competency to understand and manage team members from different cultures appropriately in order to enhance team effectiveness is critical for global leaders.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship of global leadership competency, trust in the leader, and team process effectiveness in order

to develop a broader knowledge base for HRD. The conceptual framework of this study is displayed in Figure 1.

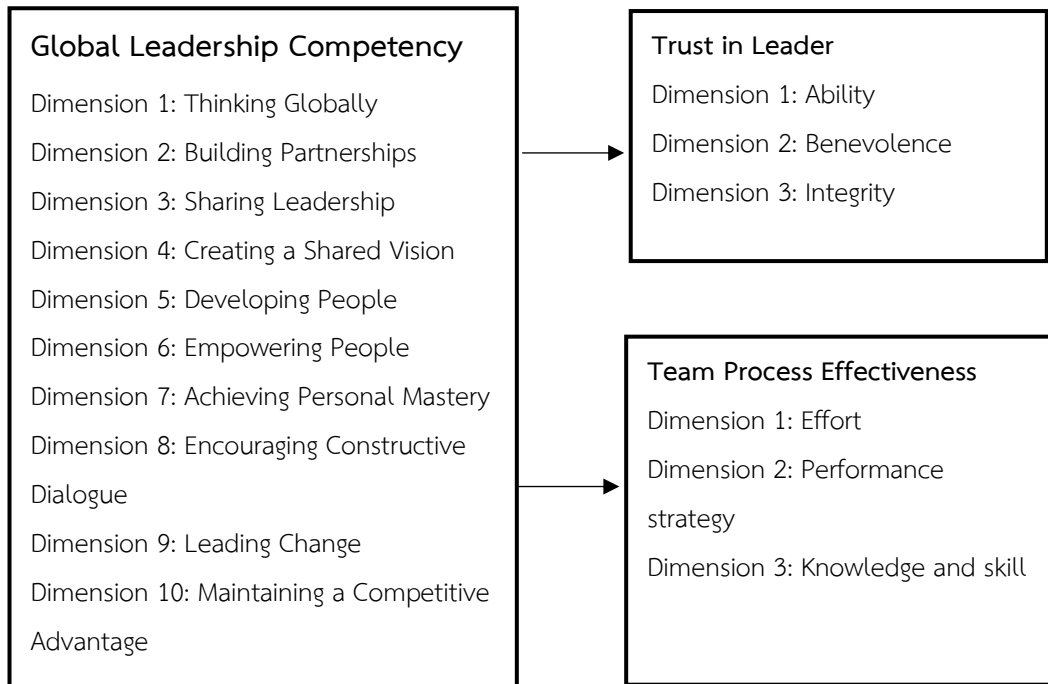


Figure 1 Conceptual framework

The key research questions for this study were:

1. Are there any relationships between global leadership competency and trust in the leader? If there are, how are they related?
2. Are there any relationships between global leadership competency and team effectiveness? If there are, how are they related?

Research Methodology

Allan and Skinner (Allan G. & Skinner C, 1991, p.177) indicated that both quantitative and qualitative research methods are common practices in social science, with different strengths and limitations. However, quantitative approaches appear to be more straightforward and clear regarding the statistical analysis and

interpretation of the results. The researcher employed this approach because it can minimize subjectivity and be more feasible for the present study conducted with a large population in multiple locations.

The target population for this study consisted of 1,941 employees from 5 MNCs in Thailand where there were both local and expatriate leaders in the organization. In order to handle the possibility of a low response rate and missing data, 1,270 questionnaires were delivered by convenience sampling method and 913 respondents replied. There were some missing data (more than 10% of the questionnaires returned) and also some responses impacted on the low multivariate normality of the data; the final samples used for this study came to 818. Table 1 illustrates details of population and sampling in this research.

Table 1 Population and sampling

	Company A	Company B	Company C	Company D	Company E	Total
Total Employees	317	619	525	420	60	1,941
Require Samples	68	134	114	90	14	420
Questionnaires Sent	300	500	250	180	40	1,270
Actual Respondents	212	415	157	111	18	913
Response Rate (%)	71%	83%	63%	62%	45%	72%
Data Missing	4	9	0	3	0	16
Normality Adjustment	37	29	9	3	1	79
Final Sample	171	377	148	105	17	818

The respondents' demographic data included gender, age, nationality, education, overseas experience, nationality, overseas education experience, overseas work experiences, tenure in the organization and position. Table 2 reports on the descriptive statistics involving the respondents' demographic data, which were collected to provide an understanding of the samples.

Table 2 Demographic data of respondents (n = 818)

Demographic	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	334	40.8
Female	484	59.2
Age		
30 years or less	359	43.9
31-40 years	332	40.6
41-50 years	98	12.0
51 or more	27	3.3
Not identified	2	0.2
Education		
Below high school	106	13.0
High school /Vocational	229	28.0
High Vocational	136	16.6
Bachelor's	269	32.9
Master's	76	9.3
Higher than master's	2	0.2
Nationality		
Thai	815	99.6
British	1	0.1
Other	2	0.2
Overseas work experience		
None	734	89.7
Less than 1 year	41	5.0
1-5 year (s)	25	3.1
6-10 years	7	0.9
More than 10 years	8	1.0
Not identified	3	0.4
Tenure in organization		
Less than 1 year	181	22.1
1-5 years	408	49.9
6-10 years	102	12.5
More than 10 years	123	15.0
Not identified	4	0.4

Table 2 Demographic data of respondents (Continued)

Demographic	Frequency	Percentage
Current position		
Higher than senior manager	3	0.4
Senior manager	5	0.6
Manager	51	6.2
Assistant manager	23	2.8
Supervisor	125	15.3
Staff	608	74.3
Not identified	3	0.4
Nationality of current superior		
Thai	736	90.0
British	26	3.2
American	7	0.9
Others	22	2.7
Not identified	27	3.3
Position of current superior		
Higher than senior manager	36	4.4
Senior manager	47	5.7
Manager	237	29.0
Assistant manager	65	7.9
Supervisor	405	49.5
Staff	28	3.4
Not identified	36	4.4

Table 2 reflects the frequency and percentage of the respondents for each demographic item.

In this research, the questionnaire was designed as follows:

Step 1: Related literature was reviewed to select reliable, valid, and accessible instruments.

Step 2: Questionnaire items were adapted to ensure a reasonable length of the questionnaire and to retain key content to meet the research objectives.

Step3: A draft of the questionnaire was developed and refined with feedback from HRD experts to ensure content validity.

Step 4: The English survey items were translated into a Thai version and back-translated from the Thai version into English.

Step 5: A pilot test was conducted at an MNC not included in the target population and internal consistency was analyzed using a coefficient alpha exceeding .70 (Nunnally, 1978).

Step 6: The questionnaire was refined and finalized for the pilot test.

The questionnaire was developed from 3 standard questionnaires that had been shown in the previous research studies to be valid and reliable as follows:

1. Global Leadership Competency Inventory by Marshall Goldsmith (2003)
2. Trust Inventory by Mayer R. C. and David J. H. (1999)
3. Team Diagnosis Survey by Ruth Wageman, J. Richard Hackman and Erin Lehman (2005).

The assessment by HRD experts (Professor Dr. Gary N. McLean, Assistant Professor Dr. Oranuch Pruetibultham, and 5 PhD Students in HROD field at National Institute of Development Administration) was conducted before and after the translation in order to ensure content validity, and the questionnaire was refined and finalized before utilization for the pilot test.

To ensure that the modified tools were valid and reliable, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and pilot test were conducted. Henseler (2009) proposed that acceptable reliability (R^2) with 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 are described as substantial, moderate and weak respectively.

Table 3 CFA of Global Leadership Competency Inventory

Main Factor	Sub-Factor	Factor loading (b)	Standard error (SE_b)	T	Reliability (R^2)
1 $b = .99$ ($t = 19.06$, $SE = .08$, $R^2 = .99$)	Thinking Globally	.84	<-->	<-->	.68
	Building Partnerships	.90	.04	26.57***	.80
	Sharing Leadership	.84	.05	23.53***	.71
	Creating a Shared Vision	.88	.05	22.89***	.77
2 $b = .93$ ($t = 20.39$, $SE = .07$, $R^2 = .87$)	Developing People	.84	<-->	<-->	.70
	Empowering People	.80	.04	23.79***	.65
	Achieving Personal Mastery	.87	.04	25.65***	.76
	Encouraging Constructive Dialogue	.90	.04	29.33***	.81
	Leading Change	.89	.04	26.49***	.79
	Maintaining a Competitive Advantage	.85	.04	25.13***	.72
Chi-square = 29.64, $df = 28$, $p = .38$, RMR = .057, GFI = .981, AGFI = .963					

*** $p < .001$, <--> SE and t were not included due to constrained parameters.

The CFA results in table 3 indicated that the measurement model of the global leadership competency inventory well fit the empirical data (chi-square = 29.64, $df = 28$, $p = .38$), goodness of fit index (GFI) = .981, adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) = .963, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .012.

Table 4 CFA of Trust in Leader Inventory

Factor	Item	Factor loading (b)	Standard error (SE _b)	<i>t</i>	Reliability (R ²)
Ability <i>b</i> = .97 (<i>t</i> = 13.44, <i>SE</i> = .04, <i>R</i> ² = .93)	1	.70	<-->	<-->	.49
	2	.77	.06	18.55***	.59
	3	.75	.08	14.47***	.56
Benevolence <i>b</i> = .97 (<i>t</i> = 18.63, <i>SE</i> = .04, <i>R</i> ² = .95)	4	.83	<-->	<-->	.69
	5	.80	.05	19.55***	.64
	6	.86	.05	21.80***	.74
Integrity <i>b</i> = .96 (<i>t</i> = 18.07, <i>SE</i> = .04, <i>R</i> ² = .93)	7	.79	<-->	<-->	.63
	8	.87	.05	23.32***	.76
	9	.84	.04	23.71***	.70
Chi-square = 22.25, <i>df</i> = 21, <i>p</i> = .39, RMR = .012, GFI = .984, AGFI = .966					

****p* < .001, <--> *SE* and *t* were not included due to constrained parameters.

The CFA results in table 4 indicated that measurement model for the trust in leaders inventory well fit with the empirical data (Chi-square = 22.25, *df* = 21, *p* = .39), the goodness of fit index (GFI) = .984, the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) = .966, and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .012.

Table 5 CFA of Team Process Effectiveness Inventory

Factor	Item	Factor loading (b)	Standard error (SE_b)	t	Reliability (R^2)
Effort $b = .94$ ($t = 17.15$, $SE = .03$, $R^2 = .88$)	1	.72	<-->	<-->	.52
	2	.82	.07	16.97***	.68
	3	.73	.07	17.50***	.54
Performance Strategy $b = .99$ ($t = 18.27$, $SE = .03$, $R^2 = .97$)	4	.77	<-->	<-->	.59
	5	.80	.06	15.94***	.64
	6	.68	.07	14.58***	.46
Knowledge and Skill $b = .96$ ($t = 11.18$, $SE = .04$, $R^2 = .93$)	7	.57	<-->	<-->	.32
	8	.77	.13	10.66***	.59
	9	.65	.10	11.24***	.42
Chi square = 31.457, $df = 19$, $p = .05$, RMR = .021, GFI = .981, AGFI = .955					

*** $p < .001$, <--> SE and t were not included due to constrained parameters.

The CFA results in table 5 indicated that measurement model for the trust in leaders inventory well fit the empirical data (Chi-square = 31.457, $df = 19$, $p = .05$), the goodness of fit index (GFI) = .981, the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) = .955, and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .039. Even reliability of item 7 and 9 in knowledge and skill factor were lower than moderate level (0.5) but still higher than weak level (0.25) and overall reliability of knowledge and skill factor was considered high (0.93) as proposed by Henseler (2009). Moreover, the goodness of fit index (GFI) of team process effectiveness inventory was 0.981 which meet criteria >0.90 proposed by Olobatuyi (2006).

The research design, population and sample characteristics, instrumentation and data collection were described. The results of correlation analysis to answer the research questions are presented in the following section.

Findings

This part reports the findings in order to answer the research questions on the relationships among the three measurements: global leadership competency; trust in leader; and team process effectiveness.

1. Findings and analysis concerning the demographic data

Even though none of demographic data was included in the research framework, there were some interesting findings to be pointed out as follows.

Table 6 Overseas work experience

Variance	DF	SS	MS	F	P
GL					
Between groups	5	4.578	.916	2.956	.012*
Within group	812	251.521	.310		
Total	817	256.099			
TL					
Between groups	5	4.999	1.000	2.439	.033*
Within group	812	332.884	.410		
Total	817	337.883			
TE					
Between groups	5	3.667	.733	2.432	.034*
Within group	812	244.838	.302		
Total	817	248.505			

* Significant at the .05 level

Table 6 reveals the statistics concerning the overseas work experience of the respondents and the mean scores for GL, TL, and TE. The data show that the different mean scores for GL, TL, and TE for the different overseas work experience were significant statistically and hence further analysis was required.

Table 7 Overseas work experience (LSD Analysis of GL)

GL	Mean	Overseas work experience				
		None	< 1	1-5	6-10	>10
None	4.318	-	-	-	-	-
<1	4.458	-.1395	-	-	-	-
1-5	4.705	-.3871*	-.2476	-	-	-
6-10	4.157	.1611	.3006	.5482*	-	-
>10	4.304	.0141	.1536	.4012	-.1470	-

* Significant at the .05 level.

Table 7 reveals that the respondents with 1-5 years of overseas work experience reported higher perception of respondents regarding the GL of their current superior (Mean 4.705) than the respondents with no overseas experience (Mean 4.318) was significant statistically. The respondents with 1-5 years of overseas work experience also reported higher perception of respondents regarding the GL of their current superior than the respondents with 6- 10 years of overseas experience (Mean 4.157) was significant statistically.

Table 8 Overseas work experience (LSD Analysis of TL)

TL	Mean	Oversea work experience				
		None	< 1	1-5	6-10	>10
None	3.922	-	-	-	-	-
<1	4.095	-.1733	-	-	-	-
1-5	4.307	-.3851*	-.2118	-	-	-
6-10	3.889	.0327	.2060	.4178	-	-
>10	4.139	-.2173	-.0440	.1678	-.2500	-

* Significant at the .05 level

Table 8 reveals that the respondents with 1-5 years of overseas work experience reported higher TL scores (Mean 4.307) than the respondents with no overseas experience (Mean 3.922) and this was significant statistically.

Table 9 Overseas work experience (LSD Analysis of TE)

TE	Mean	Overseas work experience				
		None	< 1	1-5	6-10	>10
None	3.878	-	-	-	-	-
<1	3.997	-.1188	-	-	-	-
1-5	3.951	-.0727	.0462	-	-	-
6-10	3.508	.3705	.4894*	.4432	-	-
>10	4.375	-.4966*	-.3777	-.4239	-.8671*	-

* Significant at the .05 level.

Table 9 reveals that the respondents with >10 years of overseas work experience reported higher TE scores (Mean 4.375) than the respondents with 6-10 years of overseas work experience (Mean 3.508) and also higher than the respondents with no overseas work experience (Mean 3.878) and this was significant statistically. The respondents with <1 year of overseas work experience reported higher TE scores (Mean 3.997) than the respondents with 6-10 years of overseas work experience (Mean 3.508) and this was also significant statistically.

2. Correlation between global leadership competency and trust in leader

The details findings of correlation between GL and TL were reported as below:

Table 10 Correlation between Global leadership competency (GL) & Trust in leader (TL)

Variable / Dimensions	Correlation (r)	P
GL	.707**	.000
Thinking Globally	.520**	.000
Building Partnerships	.589**	.000
Sharing Leadership	.575**	.000
Creating a Shared Vision	.588**	.000
Developing People	.609**	.000
Empowering People	.591**	.000
Achieving Personal Mastery	.632**	.000
Encouraging Constructive Dialogue	.617**	.000
Leading Change	.651**	.000
Maintaining a Competitive Advantage	.579**	.000

** Significant at the .01 level

In Table 10, the data revealed a positive correlation between GL and TL ($r = .707$), which was significant statistically (at .01 level). The data also displayed the positive correlation of all dimensions of GL and TL as being significant statistically (at .01 level). The top-three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TL were leading change ($r = .651$), achieving personal mastery ($r = .632$), and encouraging constructive dialogue ($r = .617$) respectively, while the bottom three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TL were thinking globally ($r = .520$), sharing leadership ($r = .575$), and maintaining a competitive advantage ($r = .579$).

3. Correlation between global leadership competency and team process effectiveness

The detail findings of correlation between global leadership competency and trust in leader were reported as below:

Table 11 Correlation between Global leadership competency (GL) & Team process effectiveness (TE)

Variables/Dimensions	Correlation (r)	P
GL	0.606**	.000
Thinking Globally	0.466**	.000
Building Partnerships	0.498**	.000
Sharing Leadership	0.447**	.000
Creating a Shared Vision	0.530**	.000
Developing People	0.534**	.000
Empowering People	0.506**	.000
Achieving Personal Mastery	0.512**	.000
Encouraging Constructive Dialogue	0.521**	.000
Leading Change	0.508**	.000
Maintaining a Competitive Advantage	0.579**	.000

** Significant at the .01 level

In Table 11, it revealed that the moderate correlation between global leadership competency and team process effectiveness ($r = 0.606$) was significant statistically (at .01 level). The data also showed the positive correlation of all dimensions of GL and TE as being significant statistically (at .01 level). The top-three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TE were maintaining a competitive advantage ($r = 0.579$), developing people ($r = 0.534$), and creating shared vision ($r = 0.530$). The bottom-three dimensions of GL with a moderate correlation with TL were sharing leadership ($r = 0.447$), thinking globally ($r = 0.466$), and building partnerships ($r = 0.498$).

Discussion

Discussion of the key findings are as follows.

1. Correlation between global leadership competency and trust in leader

The findings indicated that there was high correlation between global leadership competency and trust in leader. The findings appear to supported previous research studies pointed out that global leadership competency are a significant set of leaders' abilities that impact trust in leaders. According to Mayer et al. (1995), three leader characteristics as key antecedents of trust in the leader are ability, benevolence, and integrity. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) also supported the notion that the perception of team members of these three characteristics of the leader can influence the level of trust in the leader. As an organization requires different sets of leadership competencies in new contexts (Mendenhall, M. E., Osland, J.S., Bird, A., Oddou, G., & Maznevski, M., 2008; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2001), global leadership competency have become a critical ability for leaders that can impact trust in leaders.

The findings also indicated that among the many dimensions of global leadership competency, leading change, achieving personal mastery, and encouraging constructive dialogue were top three dimensions that correlated with trust in leaders. Hence, practitioners can apply these findings to assessment centers as information for hiring decisions or for identifying competency gaps regarding leadership competency development in order to enhance the antecedents of trust in leaders of organizations.

2. Correlation between global leadership competency and team process effectiveness

The results revealed that there was a moderate correlation between global leadership competency and team process effectiveness. The top three dimensions of global leadership competency with a moderate correlation with team process effectiveness were maintaining a competitive advantage, developing people, and creating shared vision. The bottom-three dimensions of global leadership competency with a moderate correlation with team process effectiveness were sharing leadership, thinking globally, and building partnerships. Hence, practitioners can apply these findings to assessment centers as information for hiring decisions, designing leadership training programs, as well as identify competency gaps regarding leadership competency development in order to enhance team process effectiveness.

Numerous studies on teamwork have stated that leadership is critical to team performance and some scholars have pointed out that it appears to be the most important factor for team process effectiveness and achievement (Northhouse, 2004; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001). Marquardt and Horvath (2001) indicated that leadership was even more critical for global leaders that lead and manage team members across cultures as there are more challenges and complexities in managing different perceptions, expectations, and behaviors in that context. As MNCs have played a key role in economic development worldwide and have retained their growth in Thailand, this research provided more knowledge on how leadership relate to team process effectiveness of teams which consist of both local and expatriate members.

The aforementioned literature was important for the present research, as it could critically support the findings concerning the causal relationship between global leadership competency and team process effectiveness.

Recommendations

The findings from this research contribute key implications for practitioners as follows:

1) Global leadership competency appears to be able to enhance trust in leader based on the results of this study. The findings indicated that among the many dimensions of global leadership competency, leading change (challenges the system when change is needed, thrives in ambiguous situations, encourages creativity in others), achieving personal mastery (demonstrates self-confidence as a leader, demonstrates effective emotional responses in a variety of situations, involves people that have strengths that he/she does not possess), and encouraging constructive dialogue (accepts constructive feedback in a positive manner, strives to understand the other person's frame of reference, encourages people to challenge the *status quo*) were top three dimensions that correlated with trust in leaders. Hence, practitioners can apply these findings for hiring decision or identify competency gap for leadership competency development in order to enhance antecedents of trust in leader in organizations.

2) Global leadership competency appears to be able to build up team process effectiveness. The top three dimensions of global leadership competency with moderate correlations with team process effectiveness were maintaining a competitive advantage (holds people accountable for their results, successfully eliminates waste, provides products/services that help the company have a clear competitive advantage), developing others (asks people what they need to do their work better, ensures that people receive the training they need to succeed, provides developmental feedback in a timely manner), and creating a shared vision (inspires people to commit to achieving the vision, develops an effective strategy to achieve the vision, clearly identifies priorities). Hence, practitioners can apply these findings for assessment and training center as essential information for

leadership competency development in order to enhance team process effectiveness in the workplace.

Limitations and Future Research

Even this research was conducted in multinational companies in Thailand which consist of both expatriate leaders and local leaders but portion of expatriate leaders (10%) was quite small comparing to local leader (90%). It would be interesting for future research to manage and ensure similar portion of expatriate and local leaders for comparative study in this area.

It is crucial for future research to explore further the impact of global leadership competency and/or trust in the leader on the completion of team effectiveness, which includes productive output or the performance of the team. As mentioned in first chapter of this research, MNCs have played a key role in economic development worldwide and have retained their growth in Thailand. The impact of global leadership competency and trust in the leader on team process effectiveness could be recognized and useful only in the academic world if there were no empirical proof of the tangible outcomes for practitioners. Hence future studies should focus more on the impact of global leadership competency and trust in the leader on team performance, which can influence organizational results. Future findings could help the HRD field gain more organizational recognition and investment in leadership or HRD.

Conclusion

In summary, the following conclusions of this research were derived. The correlation between global leader competency and trust in leader was high, especially leadership competency for leading change, achieving personal mastery, and encouraging constructive dialogue. This means that enhancing global leadership

competency appears to be able to increase the level of employees' trust in the leader.

The global leadership competency revealed a moderate correlation with team process effectiveness, especially the competency for maintaining a competitive advantage, developing others, and creating a shared vision. This means that the development of global leadership competency appears to be able to enhance to a certain degree the team effectiveness in organizations.

Bibliography

- Adler, N., & Bartholomew, S. (1992). Managing globally competent people. *Academy of Management Executive*, 6(3), 52-65.
- Allan, G., & Skinner, C. (1991). *Handbook for Research Students in the Social Sciences*. London, UK: The Falmer Press.
- Avolio, B., Gardner, W., Walumbwa, F., Luthans, F., & May, D. (2004). Unlocking the mask: A look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15, 801-823.
- Beechler, S., & Javidan, M. (2007). Leading with a global mindset. *Advances in International Management*, 19, 131-169.
- Bennis, W. (1997). Cultivating creative genius. *Industry Week*, 246(15), 84-90.
- Bird, A., Mendenhall, M., Stevens, M. J., & Oddou, G. (2010). Defining the content domain of intercultural competence for global leaders. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25, 810-828.
- Campion, M. A., Papper, E. M., & Medsker, G. J. (1996). Relations between work team characteristics and effectiveness: A replication and extension. *Personnel Psychology*, 49(2), 429-452.

- Cannon-Bowers, J. A., Tannenbaum, S. I., Salas, E., & Volpe, C. E. (1995). Defining competencies and establishing team training requirements. In R.A. Guzzo, & E. Salas (Eds.), *Team effectiveness and decision making in organizations* (pp. 333-380). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Conger, J., Kanungo, R., & Menon, S. (2000). Charismatic leadership and follower effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 747-767
- Day, D. V., Gronn, P., & Salas, E. (2004). Leadership capacity in teams. *Leadership Quarterly*, 15, 857-880.
- Dirks, K.T. (2000). Trust in leadership and team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 1004-1012.
- Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2002). Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 611-628.
- Dirks, K.T., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2007). *Trust and distrust in organizations*, (edited by Kramer, R.M., & Cook, K. S.). New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Doney, P. M., Cannon, J. P., & Mullen, M. R. (1998). Understanding the influence of national culture on the development of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3), 601-620.
- Dorfman, P., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., Dastmalchian, A., & House, R. (2012). GLOBE: A twenty year journey into the intriguing world of culture and leadership. *Journal of World Business*, 47, 504-518.
- Fleishman, E. A., & Harris, E. F. (1962). Patterns of Leadership Behavior Related to Employee Grievances and Turnover. *Personnel Psychology*, 15(1), 43-56.
- Friedman, T. L. (2006). *The world is flat: A brief history of the twenty-first century* (Rev, ed.). New York, NY: Farrar, Straus and Giroux.
- Fuller, E. J. (1996, April). *Conflict or congruence? Faculty, parent, and student trust in the principal*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York.

- Fulmer, C. A., & Gelfand, M. J. (2012). At what level (and in whom) we trust: Trust across multiple organizational level. *Journal of Management*, 38, 1167-1230.
- Gillespie, N., & Mann, L. (2004). Transformational leadership and shared values: The building blocks of trust. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19, 588-607.
- Goldsmith, M., Greenberg, C. L., Robertson, A., & Hu-Chan, M. (2003). *Global Leadership: The next generation*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Gupta, A. K., & Govindarajan, V. (2001). Converting global presence into global competitive advantage, *Academy of Management Review*, 15 (2), 45-58.
- Guzzo, R. A., & Dickson, M. W. (1996). Teams in organizations: Research on performance and effectiveness. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 47, 307-338.
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C., and Sinkovics, R. (2009). The use of partial least squares path modeling in international marketing. *Advances in International Marketing*, 20, 277-320)
- Intagliata, J., Ulrich, D., & Smallwood, N. (2000). Leveraging leadership competencies to produce leadership brand: Creating distinctiveness by focusing on strategy and results. *Human Resource Planning*, 23(4), 12-23.
- Ivancevich, J. M., & Matteson, M. T. (2002). *Organizational behavior and management* (6th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw- Hill.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., Knoll, K., & Leidner, D. E. (1998). Is Anybody Out There? Antecedents of Trust in Global Virtual Teams. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 14(4), 29-64.
- Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., Sully de Luque, M., & House, R. J. (2006). In the eye of the beholder: Cross cultural lessons in leadership from project GLOBE. *Academic of Management Perspectives*, February, 67-90.
- Jeannet, J. (2000). *Managing with a global mindset*. London: Pearson Education.

- Jung, D., & Avolio B. (2000). Opening the black box: An experimental investigation of the mediating effects of trust and value congruence on transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 949-964.
- Karmar, T. (1999). Trust and Distrust in Organizations: Emerging perspectives, enduring questions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50, 569-598.
- Kedia, B. L., & Mukherji, A. (1999). Global managers: Developing a mindset for global competitiveness. *Journal of World Business*, 34(3), 230-251.
- Kirkpatrick, S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1996). Direct and indirect effects of three core charismatic leadership components on performance and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 36-51.
- Kozlowski, S.W.J. & Bell, B.F. (2001). *Work groups and teams in organizations*. Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/articles/389/>
- Marquardt, M. J., & Horvath, L. (2001). *Global teams: How top multinationals span boundaries and cultures with high-speed teamwork*. Palo Alto, CA: Davies-Black.
- Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organization trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 20, 709-734.
- Mendenhall, M. E., Osland, J.S., Bird, A., Oddou, G., & Maznevski, M. (2008). *Global leadership: Research, practice and development. Routledge Global Human Resource Management Series*, 15-17. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.
- Mercer Delta Consulting. (2006). *The global leadership imperative*. Presentation to the Human Resource Planning Society, March 8.
- Miles, R.E., & Snow, C.C. (1992). Causes of failures in network organizations. *California Management Review*, (Summer 1992), 53-72.
- Morrison, A. I. (2000). Developing a global leadership model. *Human Resource Management*, 39(2&3), 117-131.

- Northouse, P. G. (2004). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Olobatuyi, M. E. (2006). *A user's guide to path analysis*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.
- Ovaice, G. (2001, February). *The Importance of Individualism and Collectivism as they relate to Interpersonal Trust*. Academic of Human Resource Development (AHRD): Proceedings of the 2001 AHRD conference, Tulsa, Oklahoma.
- Rhinesmith, S. H. (2003). Basic components of a global mindset. In Goldsmith, M., Govindarajan, B., & Vicere, A. (Eds.), *The many facets of leadership*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Financial Times Prentice Hall.
- Rodrigueze, D., Patel, R., Bright, A., Gregory, D., & Gowing, M.K. (2002). Developing competency models to promote human resource practices. *Human Resource Management*, 41(3), 309-324.
- Rosen, R. H., Digh, P., Phillips, C., & Rosen, R. T. (2000). *Global literacies: Lessons on business leadership and national cultures* (Eds.). New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Salas, E., Sims, D. E., & Burke, C. S. (2005). Is there a "big five" in teamwork? *Small Group Research*, 36(5), 555-599.
- Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R.C., & Davis, J.H. (2007). An Integrative Model of Organization Trust: Past, Present and Future, *Academy of Management Review*, 32(2), 344-354.
- Schriesheim, C., Castro, S., & Cogliser, C. (1999). Leader-member exchange (LMX) research: A comprehensive review of theory, measurement, and data-analytic procedures. *Leadership quarterly*, 10, 63-113.
- Spencer, L. M., McClelland, D. C., & Spencer, S. (1994). *Competency assessment methods: History and state of the art*. Boston: Hay-McBey Research Press.

- Sundstrom E., De Meuse, K. P., & Futrell, D. (1990). Work teams: applications and effectiveness. *Am. Psychol*, 45, 120-33.
- Van Dierendonck, D. (2011). Servant leadership: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Management*, 37, 1228-1261.
- Wageman, R., Hackman, J. R., & Lehman, E. (2005). Team diagnostic survey: Development of an instrument. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 41(4), 373-398.
- Watson Wyatt Worldwide (2000). *Work USA 2000: Employee commitment and the bottom line*. Bethesda, MD: Watson Wyatt Worldwide.
- Whitener, E. M. (2001). Do 'high commitment' human resource practices affect employee commitment? A cross-level analysis using hierarchical linear modeling. *Journal of Management*, 27, 515-535.
- Zaccaro, S. J., Rittman, A. L., & Marks, M. A. (2001). Team leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 12, 451-483.