CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE AND CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT: A PREDICTIVE STUDY OF K-12 INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL PRINCIPAL LONGEVITY

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Lorraine Hoffmeyer-Hirakawa

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Major Professor: Jennifer Coles Hill, Ed.D.

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AUTHORIZATION TO SUBMIT

DISSERTATION

This dissertation of Lorraine Hoffmeyer-Hirakawa, submitted for the degree of Doctor of Education with a major in Educational Leadership and titled "Cultural Intelligence and Cross-cultural Adjustment: A Predictive Study of K-12 International School Principal Longevity," has been reviewed in final form. Permission, as indicated by the signatures and dates given below, is now granted to submit final copies.

Major Professor — DocuSigned by: Dr. Jennifer Coles Hill — 15E6110F84064FF... — Dr. Jennifer Hill — Date 4/4/2024 | 19:47:03 MDT

Committee Members — DocuSigned by: Dr. Brian Lowney — 6A7E43F4AB93443... — Dr. Brian Lowney — Date 4/5/2024 | 09:28:05 PDT

DocuSigned by: — 2BBF91E4C5C44F8... — Dr. George Zickefoose — Date 4/5/2024 | 18:16:20 PDT

Doctoral Program Director — DocuSigned by: Heidi Curtis — 18C507285A124B4... — Dr. Heidi Curtis — Date 4/6/2024 | 21:17:34 MDT

Discipline's College Dean — DocuSigned by: LoriAnn Sanchez — 1F6287564ACC4DC... — Dr. LoriAnn Sanchez — Date 4/8/2024 | 08:36:43 MDT

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mom, Cathy Ostrander, who left the world when she was far too young and would be so proud of her children, and my grandmother, Lorraine Moon, who raised me right, even if she was sometimes wrong. They did the best they could so that I could do better.

ABSTRACT

This dissertation investigates the significant issue of principal turnover in K-12 international schools, focusing on the predictive role of cultural intelligence (CQ) in cross-cultural adjustment (CCA) and principal longevity. The departure of school principals challenges school stability and student achievement. Despite the critical role of principals, high turnover rates persist globally. Drawing upon existing literature, this study examines how CQ influences principal job satisfaction, cross-cultural adjustment, and retention of international school leaders.

This research surveyed 30 K-12 international school leaders through a quantitative approach, collecting data on cultural intelligence, cross-cultural adjustment, job satisfaction, and demographic variables. The findings contribute to a deeper understanding of the relationship between cultural intelligence and K-12 principal retention in international school settings. The study underscores the significance of considering cultural intelligence in recruitment, training, and support programs for K-12 international school leaders.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter I: Introduction

School principals are responsible for hiring adequate staff, creating school schedules, mentoring teachers, implementing district and board policy, ensuring a safe learning environment, and creating a welcoming school culture (Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Fullan, 2011; Marzano et al., 2005; Miller, 2013). Principals are critical to creating school success (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). They play a vital role in retaining highly qualified teachers and can impact student achievement by as much as 25% (Babo & Postma, 2017; Marzano et al., 2005). Stewart-Banks et al. (2015) found that principal leadership positively correlated to improved staff performance and morale. Principals create conditions that support student learning by fostering positive social environments and encouraging academic improvement (Buck, 2019; Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Liu & Bellibas, 2018; Marzano et al., 2005). Over time, effective school principals improve student achievement, instruction, and school climate (Allensworth & Hart, 2018; Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Gordon & Hart, 2022; Kiraz, 2018; Marzano et al., 2005; Perkins, 2019). However, despite principals' significant role, they are leaving their schools and careers (Balyer, 2017; Bartanen et al., 2019; Dos Santos, 2020; Sannon-Brown, 2021).

The departure of school principals is problematic, as principal leadership and consistency matters (Bartanen et al., 2019; Grissom et al., 2021; Miller, 2013). Principal turnover creates turmoil in a school, and frequent turnover forces teachers and students to undergo frequent adjustments to change (Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). Grissom et al. (2021) used longitudinal data from the National Center for Education to thoroughly understand the impact of principal turnover. They reviewed 219 quantitative and qualitative studies to determine that the effect size of having an effective principal is nearly as large as the effect size (.42) of having a similarly effective teacher (Buck, 2019; Grissom et al., 2021). When schools change principals, they have

lower achievement in both math and reading (Bartanen et al., 2019; Buck, 2019). The change in leadership may severely disrupt the growth process of a school because change leads to inconsistency in goals, missions, and improvement efforts (Liu & Bellibas, 2018).

While replacing a low-performing principal with a high-performing principal can add 2.9 months of learning in math and 2.7 months of learning in reading annually for students in the school (Grissom et al., 2021), in a 12-year data review, Miller (2013) found that schools with unstable or rapidly changing leadership were much more likely to have low student achievement as early as four years before a principal leaves a school and through the first two years of a new principal's tenure (Miller, 2013). Studies indicate that it takes up to five years before standardized test scores normalize or return to their previously set baseline (Bartanen et al., 2019; Buck, 2019; Miller, 2013).

Principal turnover also negatively impacts school staff (Grissom et al., 2021). Schools that change principals have higher teacher turnover rates for two or more years following the change (Bartanen et al., 2019), and principal succession can negatively impact the collective morale of school staff (Cieminski, 2018). The impact of a principal matters to the overall goals, achievement, and culture of a school (Bartanen et al., 2019; Cieminski, 2018; Grissom et al., 2021; Liu & Bellibas, 2018; Miller, 2013; Mukhtar & Fook, 2020).

According to a MetLife survey 2018, nearly 75% of principals in the United States indicated that their jobs had become too complicated (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). According to the NASSP (2021), post-COVID, the number has increased; 79% of principals feel they have been working harder, 73% indicate they have been working longer hours, and 45 percent feel overwhelmed and under-supported. The report indicates that:

> The top three factors most likely to cause principals to leave in the next three years are heavy workload (37%), state accountability measures (31%), and the time and effort needed for compliance requirements (30%).

In the United States, post-COVID, a National Association of Secondary School Principals survey (2021) indicates that 38% of school principals plan to leave the profession in the next three years. The principal's job has become overwhelming and complicated, causing high turnover (Liu & Bellibas, 2018; *NASSP Survey signals a looming mas exodus of principals from schools of principals from schools*, 2021).

Job satisfaction for school principals is low, and low job satisfaction rates are not specific to the United States (Beycioglu et al., 2012; Liu & Bellibas, 2018; Thelin, 2020; Whittall, 2002). Principal turnover is a global issue (Liu & Bellibas, 2018; Thelin, 2020; Whittall, 2002). Liu and Bellibas (2018) reviewed 34 countries that participated in the Teaching and Learning International Society (TALIS) in 2013, surveying 200 schools from each participant country (a total of 6,045 principals) to compare job satisfaction and organizational commitment through a global lens. The mean principal job satisfaction was particularly low across South America, North America, Europe, and Asia (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). Principal turnover is costly and time-consuming for school districts; however, there has yet to be a large-scale, international study to address principal retention factors.

Principal turnover has long been a part of the international school model, where principals typically have short-term contracts (Bailey & Gibson, 2019; Kelly, 2021; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Smith, 2021). International schools often face expensive searches for hiring school leaders and risk hiring a poor school leader match who has the potential to destabilize a school community (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015). For international schools, boards

must understand the factors influencing the retention of school leaders (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). If short contracts continue as the norm for international school principals, school owners and boards may benefit from principals who extend their contracts.

Despite the significant impact of a school administrator on the school, little research exists on retention factors (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). There are studies on the administrator's impact on teacher retention and job satisfaction (Beycioglu et al., 2012; Licki & van der Walt, 2021; Toropova et al., 2021). Sannon-Brown (2021) examined the job satisfaction of urban principals. Horwood et al. (2021) examined the connection between passion and principal job satisfaction. Several studies investigated the impact of stress and job demands on school principals (Bedi et al., 2021; Darmody & Smyth, 2016; F. Wang et al., 2018). However, there is a lack of research exploring factors that could increase principal retention worldwide.

Statement of the Problem

Principal retention is a global problem (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). Influential school leaders contribute to the school's influence on student achievement because of their impact on school climate and teacher behavior (Allensworth & Hart, 2018; Babo & Postma, 2017; Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Marzano et al., 2005). In the current educational climate, school leadership longevity is waning (Levin & Bradley, 2022; *NASSP Survey signals a looming mas exodus of principals from schools of Principals from Schools*, 2021). However, the rapid turnover rate for school leaders may create educational stagnation and limit student achievement growth (Balyer, 2017; Gordon & Hart, 2022; Miller, 2013). Examining this problem internationally allows for a global perspective that can be applied in diverse schools, such as international schools.

International school leaders must be prepared to lead and interact with widely diverse populations of teachers, parents, and students (Keung, 2011). Yet, in international schools, the

retention of school principals is of particular concern because of their short tenure (Cieminski, 2018; Liu & Bellibas, 2018). Most principals serve in non-English-speaking countries and are English-speaking citizens, primarily British, Canadian, or American (Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Smith, 2021). It is common for expatriate leaders to feel unskilled in new schools with unfamiliar students (Hayden & Thompson, 2008). Therefore, onboarding programs must include elements of school culture, policies, and procedures, as well as an introduction to the diversity of students, cultural-specific curriculum, and the host country (Setti et al., 2022). Keung and Rockinson-Szapkiw (2013) point to the need for understanding culture as exceptionally important in the international school environment, noting that "intercultural competency may underlie effective leadership in an international school setting" (p. 839). Supporting international administrators in acquiring cultural competency is critical to keeping them on the job (Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013).

One tested leadership characteristic studied as an influence on leader effectiveness and retention in the career fields of manufacturing, banking, and technology in the international setting is cultural intelligence (Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Kim, 2009; Konanahalli et al., 2014; Martinez, 2019; Vann et al., 2017). The literature establishes that cultural intelligence (CQ) is an important factor in making judgments and decisions in a diverse setting (Aldhaheri, 2017; Ashley, 2020), has a mediating effect on cross-cultural adjustment (CCA) (Adler & Aycan, 2018; Keung, 2011; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a), enhances job satisfaction (Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Setti et al., 2022; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a), and may play a role in decreasing expatriate employee turnover (Bruning et al., 2012; Martinez, 2019). Culturally intelligent leaders adapt to multicultural environments and have a more effortless CCA than their peers (Aldhaheri, 2017; Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Setti et al., 2022). However, there are limited studies on CQ's impact on

international educational leaders (Ashley, 2020; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Setti et al., 2022; Smith, 2021), and none address the relationship CQ has with international principal retention.

How CQ influences the CCA and retention of international school principals is unknown. Research in industry settings indicates that cultural intelligence could improve leadership, job satisfaction, and retention (Aldhaheri, 2017; Ashley, 2020; Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Keung, 20ll; Martinez, 2019; Setti et al., 2022). This study aimed to test the theory of CQ as a mediating influence for leader retention by relating cultural intelligence scores to cross-cultural adjustment, retention, job satisfaction, and longevity of international school principals at international schools in various areas of the world.

Background

Globalization and the rise of international organizations have created the necessity for mobile employees, and many of those employees have families (Aldhaheri, 2017; Ashley, 2020; Smith, 2021). These international, military, and embassy families became the first clientele for international schools (Machin, 2014; Wechsler, 2017). Many international schools started with just one or two students whose parents lived and worked in a host country. For example, one of the early schools, Maseru English Medium Preparatory School in Lesotho, Africa, began in 1890 as a school for missionaries and traders from Britain (Hayden & Thompson, 2008). Many of these schools originated and were managed by the parents of the students who attended the schools (Hayden & Thompson, 2008). There has been significant growth in the international school model. Currently there are 13,190 schools in 283 cities, which represents a 52% growth in the last 10 years (ISC Research, 2023). No longer do these schools serve only transient missionaries and diplomats; in many countries, large portions of the student body include

children from wealthy local families (Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Machin, 2014; Smith, 2021).

While there is much diversity in the design of international schools, some distinctive characteristics include the following:

- *Curriculum*: They offer a curriculum other than that of the host country where the school is located.
- *Students*: Their students are frequently non-nationals of the host country (though more recently, increasing numbers of such schools in some countries cater mainly to children of affluent host country families).
- *Teachers and administrators*: They tend to be staffed by many expatriate teachers and administrators.
- *Management, leadership, and governance*: Their status within the local context, the curriculum offered, and the nature of their student and teacher populations raise issues for management, leadership, and governance (Hayden & Thompson, 2008, p. 28).

The curriculum of international schools distinguishes the school's design and culture (Kelly, 2021; Smith, 2021). Many international schools must comply with their host countries' educational requirements and those of their adopted curriculum (Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Kelly, 2021; Smith, 2021). For example, public and private schools in Kuwait must teach Arabic, Islamic Studies, and the Holy Quran as well as their core instructional curriculum (Kelly, 2021). Therefore, an international school in Kuwait may report to the Ministry of Education for accountability for its Arabic program and the College Board for accountability for its Advanced Placement program. International school administrators are uniquely positioned to navigate multiple accountability partners, including host country bureaucracies, accreditation, curriculum

boards, parents, and board directors (Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Kelly, 2021; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Machin, 2014).

Another crucial element of the culture of international schools is the staff (Wechsler, 2017). Like the student body, the staff at international schools are frequently transient and diverse (Adams & Velarde, 2021; Bailey & Gibson, 2019; Hayden & Thompson, 2008). While many come from English-speaking countries, a fraction of staff is typically hired locally (Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Kelly, 2021). Many expatriate teachers seek international positions for adventure and salary. Pay for expatriate teachers is generally higher than that of their local-hire peers, which can cause tension among the staff (Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Kelly, 2021; Smith, 2021). A secondary complication is that expatriate teachers are frequently transient, staying for 2- or 3-year contracts before returning home or continuing to a new post, while local-hire staff may remain in the school for their entire career (Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Kelly, 2021).

Even under the best of circumstances, the duration of an international school principal tenure is short (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Smith, 2021). Consequently, long-term strategic planning is challenging and may contribute to instability within a school (Hayden & Thompson, 2008). Frequent turnover has many detrimental impacts, including teacher attrition and dwindling student achievement (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). For international schools, there is rapid principal turnover (Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Kelly, 2021; Smith, 2021). Most international school principals have short 2- or 3-year contracts (Smith, 2021). Internationally, principal turnover is as high as 30% annually (Balyer, 2017). By comparison, in the United States, while there is no national uniform contract, only 11% of principals remain at their schools for 10 years or more (Levin & Bradley, 2022). Hiring and training a new principal is an investment, and areas such as China, Eastern Europe, the Middle East, and Africa report the most frequent principal turnover in

their public and private school systems (Cieminski, 2018). This study examines factors that may enhance the retention of international school principals.

International schools are uniquely positioned to analyze principal retention because international principals not only cope with the regular issues of managing a school but do so in an unfamiliar country while navigating new bureaucratic systems of regulations and cultural dynamics (Smith, 2021). International schools have become a microcosm of globalization (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015). When determining international principals' success and retention, one must consider the principal's ability to understand the complex cultural context (Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Smith, 2021). Their adaptability and understanding of their assigned country are essential for success in the role of the international school principal (Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013).

Cultural learning for administrators in the international school setting is crucial for improving schools (Kelly, 2021; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Smith, 2021). Cultural intelligence is one tool for measuring an individual's cultural knowledge and skill (Ang et al., 2007). Two primary studies about CQ's impact on international school principals indicate that CQ can be an essential factor in the success of international school principalships (Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Smith, 2021). Keung and Rockinson-Szapkiw (2013) found a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and the CQ of international principals. Smith (2021) noted in his dissertation that the importance of cultural intelligence was a reoccurring theme when interviewing successful international school principals. However, no studies explore the connection between CQ's influence on cross-cultural adjustment and the retention of international school principals.

Theoretical Framework

Cultural intelligence is a recent multidimensional framework of intelligences. It is "an individual's capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings" (Ang et al., 2007, p. 337). There are four dimensions of CQ: metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral (Ang et al., 2007; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Smith, 2021; C. Y. P. Wang et al., 2019). Cultural intelligence has been positively associated with personality traits, task performance, and leadership (Aldhaheri, 2017; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Saini, 2018). Cultural intelligence has been associated with making effective judgments and decisions, specifically in diverse situations (Aldhaheri, 2017; Ashley, 2020; Licki & van der Walt, 2021; Martinez, 2019; Smith, 2021). Additionally, Jyoti and Kour's (2017) study indicates that cultural intelligence mediates CCA, enhancing job performance and satisfaction.

The research demonstrates that expatriate workers in all positions struggle with everyday issues like organizational support, social isolation, and CCA (Bruning et al., 2012; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Vann et al., 2017; Wirawan et al., 2019), and culturally intelligent leaders adapt to multicultural environments and have a more effortless CCA than their peers (Aldhaheri, 2017; Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a). C. Y. P. Wang et al. (2019) noted that individuals with strong motivational and behavioral cultural intelligence are more motivated to engage in activities and with the local environment. Also, culturally intelligent expatriates understand local norms and exhibit behaviors in keeping with those norms (C. Y. P. Wang et al., 2019). Expatriate employees with elevated cultural intelligence who face problems or obstacles are likelier to overcome them and understand the local culture (C. Y. P. Wang et al., 2019).

The literature establishes that CQ plays a role in positive leadership areas (Aldhaheri, 2017; Ashley, 2020; Solomon & Steyn, 2017b), positively correlating to CCA (Jyoti & Kour,

2017; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a) and employee retention (Martinez, 2019). Rockstuhl et al. (2011) demonstrated that CQ is unique to international leadership effectiveness and is a critical competency for international leaders. Although these studies reveal connections between CQ and international leadership CCA, job satisfaction, and retention in business and manufacturing companies, there are limited studies on CQ's impact on international educational leaders. Only Smith (2021) and Keung and Rockinson-Szapkiw (2013) apply this construct to international school principals to understand their success in overseas positions.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

In international education, there is a simple supply and demand issue (Wechsler, 2017). The demand for international schools meeting the need of expatriate families engaged in international work, as well as wealthy native families, is rising, leading to rapid growth (Wechsler, 2017). This means there is also a demand for experienced and highly qualified principals to manage these schools and improve teaching and learning (Perkins, 2019). Understanding how cultural intelligence influences cross-cultural adjustment and the job satisfaction of international principals could be crucial to training and retaining high-quality international school principals. The following research questions guided this quantitative study:

RQ 1. Is there a significant relationship between cultural intelligence and an international school principal's job satisfaction?

RQ 2. Is there a significant relationship between an international school principal's cultural intelligence and their ability to experience successful cross-cultural adjustment?

RQ 3. Is there a significant relationship between cultural intelligence and an international school principal's longevity in an international school leadership position?

H1: There is no significant relationship between cultural intelligence and job satisfaction for principals in international schools.

H2: There is no significant relationship between cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment for principals in international schools.

H3: There is no significant relationship between cultural intelligence and international school principals' service length.

Description of Terms

Understanding the standard terms within the literature around cultural intelligence, cultural adaptation, and job satisfaction is essential to discern how these concepts may triangulate to inform the recruitment, job descriptions, duties, and training for international school principals.

Therefore, the following terms are offered to clarify the use and meaning within this research study:

Advanced Placement (AP): A curricular program that provides course descriptions and tests to offer college-level studies and college credit for high school students (Collins, n.d.).

Cross-cultural Adjustment (CCA). Feeling comfortable working and living in a culture other than one's own (Giorgi et al., 2020). Also called cross-cultural adaptation.

Cultural Intelligence (CQ). One's ability to navigate a culturally diverse setting successfully (Ang et al., 2007).

International Baccalaureate (IB). An educational program designed to provide a standard continuum of study worldwide (International Baccalaureate Organization, n.d.).

International School. A school that delivers a curriculum of any level (pre-school to secondary) in English in a non-English-speaking country (ISC Research, 2022). While there may be other languages in international schools, this study refers specifically to English-medium international schools.

Job Satisfaction. One's ability to enjoy and appreciate one's work (Suleman & Hussain, 2018).

Principal. The person(s) overseeing instructional, administrative, and managerial tasks and day-to-day school management (Darmody & Smyth, 2016). The synonyms building principal, head of school, and administrator may also be used.

Retention: Returning to work, or the same position, at an organization (Cieminski, 2018).

Turnover. When an employee quits, is laid off, or separates from their job, someone else is hired to replace the employee (Martinez, 2019).

Significance of the Study

Due to the rapid growth of international schools, they may face severe staffing shortages, including principals (Wechsler, 2017). Fewer teachers are entering school administration, and current administrators are retiring or leaving the profession (Levin & Bradley, 2022; Wechsler, 2017). High turnover of school leaders can negatively impact a school's stability and long-term planning (Levin & Bradley, 2022; Miller, 2013; Sannon-Brown, 2021; Thelin, 2020). Additionally, hiring and training new principals is an expensive and time-consuming process, and boards of international schools could benefit from understanding factors that increase good hiring practices and retention of international school principals (Hayden & Thompson, 2008).

This study built on the research of Smith (2021), who explored cultural intelligence and international leadership, and Keung and Rockinson-Szapkiw (2013), who explored cultural intelligence and transformational leadership in education, by adding to the understanding of the relationship among CQ, CCA, and principal retention and job satisfaction. The study connects research on CCA and expatriate leadership in foreign operations to the international school setting (Adler & Aycan, 2018; Kim, 2009; Setti et al., 2022). It expands the work of Martinez (2019), who explored employee turnover and cultural intelligence, to the field of international education and leadership. Being informed by the studies of cultural intelligence in job satisfaction and success (Kim, 2009; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Saini, 2018), this study narrows the focus to international school principals.

Overview of Research Methods

This quantitative study included 30 principals at various international schools. After the principals read and gave their informed consent, they completed a 48-question electronic survey from Qualtrics. The researcher also used ten demographic questions to collect data about the length of service, gender, age, and international experience. The survey contained the 20-question Cultural Intelligence Survey (CQS) (Ang et al., 2007). The CQS measures all 4 domains of cultural intelligence. The survey contained four questions on metacognitive CQ, six on cognitive CQ, five on motivational CQ, and five on behavioral CQ (Ang et al., 2007). The CCA portion of the survey contained eight questions about acculturation orientation and nine about psychological adaptation using the Brief Psychological Adaptation Scale (BPAS), as well as sociocultural adaptation using the Brief Acculturation Scale (BAS) (Demes & Geeraert, 2014). The last two questions of the survey collect data regarding the principals' job satisfaction.

Through a combination of convenience and snowball sampling, participants completed the survey posted on the Council of International School's (CIS) LinkedIn page and the international school leaders Facebook page. The researcher collected, coded, and assigned confidential participant numbers for the survey data. The original raw data was secured on a password-protected and encrypted hard drive.

This study seeks to further the understanding of CQ in international education. Chapter II reviews current research on the importance of the school principal, international school leadership, cultural intelligence, cross-cultural adjustment, and job satisfaction. Chapter III describes this investigation's methodology, research design, and procedures. Chapter IV details how the data was analyzed and provides a written and graphic summary of the results. Finally, Chapter V contains an interpretation and discussion of the results related to the existing body of research on cultural intelligence and principal retention at international schools.

Chapter II: Review of the Literature

Introduction

School principals significantly impact student achievement, school performance, and organizational growth (Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Gordon & Hart, 2022; Marzano et al., 2005; Miller, 2013). While the most fundamental impact on student achievement is the quality of classroom instruction delivered by teachers, every school needs an effective school leader (Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Gordon & Hart, 2022; Marzano et al., 2005; Miller, 2013). Principal turnover interrupts school progress and consistency in goals, mission, and vision (Gordon & Hart, 2022; Liu & Bellibas, 2018; Miller, 2013). However, currently, there is rapid turnover in school leadership. Approximately 25% of principals leave their jobs annually (Swen, 2020).

This literature review presents an overview of research on the role of school administrators, closely focusing on international school principals and the factors impacting their desire to remain in their position. While attrition in specific regional contexts has been studied from several perspectives, understanding the motivation for school leaders to stay in their posts has not been adequately explored in a domestic or international context (Babo & Postma, 2017; Bauer & Silver, 2018; Bedi et al., 2021; Horwood et al., 2021; Skaalvik, 2020; Thelin, 2020). Sections in this chapter include a presentation of facts about the international administrator's responsibility, the impact of school leadership turnover on an educational setting, administrator job satisfaction, and influencing factors of job satisfaction. The chapter also explores cross-cultural adjustment as part of the expatriate worker experience. Particular attention is given to defining facets of intelligence and explaining the distinction between general, emotional, social, and cultural intelligence.

School administrators establish school culture, impact student achievement, and encourage teacher retention (Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Liu & Bellibas, 2018; Thelin, 2020). Maintaining consistency in the principalship may increase the satisfaction of parents, students, teachers, and other stakeholders while improving overall school performance. This study aims to determine the impact of CQ on an international school principal's CCA and job satisfaction, as they may be good indicators of a principal's desire to stay in their leadership position.

International Schools

Globalization integrates aspects of diverse regions and steadily affects the world of business, technology, and education (Martinez, 2019; Smith, 2021). The impacts of globalization include countries combining to produce regional goods, e-commerce, economic development, human welfare, and education (Juharyanto, 2020). Many organizations, including educational organizations, operate internationally (Ahmad & Saidalavi, 2019; Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Juharyanto, 2020; Vanderpal, 2014; Wechsler, 2017). The globalization of education is evident in the rise of the international school model, where more than 13,000 international schools serve about 5.9 million K-12 students (ISC Research, 2022).

International schools have become a microcosm of globalization (Keung, 2011; Machin, 2014). Many international schools are private, and enrollment is highly competitive (Machin, 2014; Wechsler, 2017). International schools exist in more than 236 cities worldwide (*International Schools Database*, 2022). When international schools first began, the student body was diverse, made up of many nationalities; however, currently, though still diverse, many students originate from the school's host country (Keung, 2011; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Smith, 2021; Wechsler, 2017). The elite class in host countries looks to international schools to give their students English development skills, build global connections, and gain the

skills to compete at a high academic level in post-secondary schools (Keung, 2011; Machin, 2014; Smith, 2021; Wechsler, 2017). For example, South Korean families expect their students to be accepted at top-tier universities (Dos Santos, 2020). ISC Research (2022) indicates that there are currently 13,180 international schools serving 5.89 million students; the number of international schools has increased by 60% in the last 10 years. International schools' growth reflects globalization's growth (Dos Santos, 2020; ISC Research, 2022; Keung, 2011; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Smith, 2021; Wechsler, 2017).

International schools are frequently forced to negotiate multiple oversight demands (Kelly, 2021; Smith, 2021), with increasing pressure and involvement of overseeing boards, accrediting organizations, host country educational departments, and parent groups (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Kelly, 2021; Smith, 2021). Additionally, many of these schools have at least two distinct curriculum streams, following the local government curriculum guidelines and implementing the curriculum, such as International Baccalaureate or Advanced Placement (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Kelly, 2021; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Smith, 2021). International schools have the unique position of answering to multiple accountability partners, all with high expectations of the school leader and staff members (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Kelly, 2021; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Machin, 2014; Smith, 2021).

Retaining highly qualified and effective school leaders is a problem in international education (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Bedi et al., 2021; Benson, 2011; Thelin, 2020). There is a growing need for leadership, but turnover is heavy due to increased stress, job demands, contractual structures, and other factors (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Benson, 2011). With the increasing demand for the international school model, the role of the international school

administrator has become not only an in-demand position but also a position with many demands (Benson, 2011). Therefore, understanding the factors that can influence the decision of an effective administrator to remain in their school may strengthen a school's academic achievement and climate (Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Marzano et al., 2005).

International School Students and Staff

International student populations are mobile, global, and diverse (Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Smith, 2021). Historically, the student body included children whose parents work in multinational companies or embassies and students whose parents serve in the military or work as missionaries (Hayden & Thompson, 2008; ISC Research, 2022). However, today, the student body is increasingly composed of this expatriate community and wealthy local families seeking opportunities beyond their borders for their students (Bailey & Gibson, 2019; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Smith, 2021). Some countries have established regulations requiring the admission of host country students (ISC Research, 2022). For example, in 2012, Vietnam established a 20% threshold for local Vietnamese student admissions to foreign-owned international schools (ISC Research, 2022). Many parents believe attending these schools ensures access to higher education in the United States or the United Kingdom and opens doors of opportunity for their children (ISC Research, 2022).

Not only does the international school student body's makeup create a challenge, but the composition and demand for staff members offer unique obstacles (Kelly, 2021; Smith, 2021). Education is a high-stress profession, and it is even higher stress in international education (Dos Santos, 2020; Hirsch, 2016; Khun-inkeeree et al., 2021). Stress is frequently a significant reason teachers and education professionals leave their positions (Dos Santos, 2020; Hirsch, 2016; Khun-inkeeree et al., 2021). According to international school data, 30% of new teachers and

counselors leave their jobs after their first year, and many others leave only a few years after beginning their careers (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Dos Santos, 2020). International school staff members also come from diverse cultural backgrounds, and there is a highly transient nature of staffing due to turnover. Staff members are frequently hired on short-term (2- to 3-year) contracts (Kelly, 2021; Smith, 2021). Therefore, international school leaders regularly recruit and acculturate new staff members (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015). According to a 2016 United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) report, there will be a need for 17.8 million primary teachers and 33.5 million secondary teachers worldwide by 2025 in both public and private schools. As a result, hiring highly qualified staff in the international market becomes highly competitive (ISC Research, 2022).

Working with locally and internationally hired staff presents its own complications (Kelly, 2021). Teaching contracts often pay different rates for local and internationally hired teachers (Smith, 2021). This salary differential may create tension between international and local staff members (Kelly, 2021; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013). Yet, a school leader must be able to hold all staff members in high regard and build relationships with both staff and students (Kriemeen & Hajaia, 2017; Licki & van der Walt, 2021). Educational leadership relies on building interpersonal relationships to retain and recruit highly qualified teachers (Kriemeen & Hajaia, 2017).

School Leadership

School leaders are crucial in improving student learning and strengthening teaching practice (Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Gordon & Hart, 2022; Marzano et al., 2005; Miller, 2013). They set the school's vision, shaping academic success for students, promoting high standards, and creating a positive school climate that establishes safety and academic progress (Allensworth

& Hart, 2018; Bedi et al., 2021; Debes, 2021). Administrators are expected to raise teaching and learning outcomes, provide guidance, and support students in academic challenges; they must also be accountable to stakeholders and build a professional community among the staff members (Chan et al., 2019). These complex demands cause leaders to burn out at unprecedented rates due to the high level of stress (Bedi et al., 2021; Chan et al., 2019; Cieminski, 2018; Skaalvik, 2020; Thelin, 2020).

The time a school leader serves in their school context impacts student performance (Babo & Postma, 2017; Gordon & Hart, 2022; Miller, 2013). In the United States and international schools, the turnover of principals is significant (Bailey & Gibson, 2019; Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Levin & Bradley, 2022). The Learning Policy Institute reported that 35 percent of principals in the United States were at their schools for less than two years, and only 11% remained for 10 years or more. In international schools, school leaders average 3.7 years in each school (Bailey & Gibson, 2019; Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015). While attrition in specific regional contexts has been written about from several perspectives, understanding the motivation for school leaders to remain in their posts has not been adequately explored in a domestic or international context (Babo & Postma, 2017; Bauer & Silver, 2018; Bedi et al., 2021; Horwood et al., 2021; Skaalvik, 2020; Thelin, 2020).

International School Leadership

Leadership in international schools is unique in how leaders rise to their roles (Bailey & Gibson, 2019; Bedi et al., 2021; Johnston & Shipway, 2020; Smith, 2021). There is a lack of development for international school leaders (Bailey & Gibson, 2019; Bedi et al., 2021). Some international school leaders stumble into their roles, rising from the teaching ranks based on potential leadership abilities without a plan for mentoring or training (Bailey & Gibson, 2019;

Smith, 2021). School leaders from many countries have no clear certification requirement, which means no precise training or qualifications (Johnston & Shipway, 2020). There may be little regard for accreditation or certification (Johnston & Shipway, 2020).

In Australia, no qualifications are specific to becoming a school principal (Johnston & Shipway, 2020). In their Australian study, Johnston and Shipway (2020) sought to establish a readiness to lead measurement for precisely this reason. They discovered that two key measures were necessary for determining principal readiness to lead: the leader's ability to have a realistic appraisal of the school and their ability to be conscious of the staff members they lead. The study noted that unprepared leaders hoped their staff members would respond to their leadership (Johnston & Shipway, 2020). In contrast, prepared leaders trusted that their staff members would respond and were much more likely to be ready for leadership (Johnston & Shipway, 2020).

Incoming international school principals have a challenging transition when taking on a new role (Bailey & Gibson, 2019). For example, international leaders hired from the United States or Canada may begin their transition process up to 15 months before arriving at their new school (Bailey & Gibson, 2019). They may work remotely, building relationships with the board of directors and other stakeholders and finding housing, medical care, schools for accompanying children, and other essential services (Babo & Postma, 2017). Understanding how to support and prepare leaders for the complex demand of international schools may enhance their ability to work with and lead staff (Bailey & Gibson, 2019; Johnston & Shipway, 2020).

Rising from the ranks of the classroom—especially in an unfamiliar country with a limited understanding of administrative duties like overseeing budgets, evaluating staff, creating professional development, establishing a vision, and making a change in a school building—can be challenging without training, mentoring, and support (Bailey & Gibson, 2019; Bedi et al.,

2021; Johnston & Shipway, 2020). In Malaysia, Bailey and Gibson (2019) interviewed 12 international school principals and found that only three had previous experience as school leaders in their home countries. Most leaders expressed that they had "fallen" into a leadership position. Leaders in the study noted that while colleagues or school leaders encouraged them to become leaders, they received no formal training or mentoring to achieve and maintain their jobs (Bailey & Gibson, 2019). When discussing transition assistance, most international school leaders indicated that they received minimal support during any phase of their transition process and felt burdened to transition alone (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015).

International School Leader Responsibilities

School leaders oversee everything happening within a school. The role of the school administrator includes everything from an instructional leader to an accountability manager to a business manager (Chan et al., 2019; Cieminski, 2018; Machin, 2014; F. Wang et al., 2018). Internationally those responsibilities vary. Chan et al. (2019) studied 544 principals from six countries and found a significant variation in the priority and scope of the principalship. The school has become the center of community life for expatriate families who rely on the school as a recreational center for students and families (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015). All of these factors combine to create various social, emotional, educational, and management concerns (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Chan et al., 2019; Cieminski, 2018).

How personnel management is handled—the ability to hire and fire staff—is different worldwide (Balyer, 2017; Bedi et al., 2021; Chan et al., 2019). For example, principals in Turkey rank managing personnel high in importance and priority, but principals in Poland rank it as a low priority (Chan et al., 2019). This ranking can be attributed to principals not directly acquiring their staff members in Poland, where staff members are hired regionally and allocated

to schools (Chan et al., 2019). There are many ways that principal responsibilities and appointments vary based on cultural context (Chan et al., 2019). The regional differences extend to how school leaders are selected and prepared. In Ghana, for example, school leaders are appointed (Bedi et al., 2021). In Hungary, city councils choose school leaders regardless of years of experience (Chan et al., 2019), and in Turkey, principals are appointed by the Ministry of Education (Balyer, 2017). International schools must manage these external regulations while remaining answerable to their management group and communities (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Bedi et al., 2021).

In their comparative study of international and United States school leaders, Barbaro and Rock Kane (2015) concluded that the most significant challenge international leaders faced was transitioning to new political and national cultures. Many countries heavily oversee private school practices, and international schools may face expedited structural changes (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015). Also, in their qualitative study of international principals in Turkey, Kiraz (2018) determined that the centralization of school administration, both public and private, within the country prevented school administrators from exercising autonomy and dampened their ability to make decisions with families and community stakeholders. While they acknowledged they had a key role in creating organizational culture, many administrators did not internalize their role, and they attributed social events as sufficient to ensure their staff job satisfaction (Kiraz, 2018). Few international school administrators in the study made significant moves to improve their staff members' job satisfaction, and even fewer felt motivated to seek additional professional development due to imposed governmental regulations and minimal opportunities to develop principal leaders (Kiraz, 2018).

Developing an effective leadership style is essential in international schools (Adams & Velarde, 2021; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013). In a study of Malaysian international schools, Adams and Velarde (2021) found that common themes and priorities for school leaders included:

> Communicating the school's mission and vision, [modeling] leadership values, inclusivity programs and policies, integrating international mindedness in the curriculum, and ensuring a safe learning environment were common priorities in their schools (p. 327).

Adams and Velarde (2021) found that transformational leadership correlated with success in the Malaysian international school setting. The correlation of transformational leadership is also supported by Keung and Rockinson-Szapkiw (2013) in their study of 193 international school leaders. Transformational leaders influence their schools through goal setting, curriculum development, and modeling. In addition, they concluded that there is a high ethical standard for leading internationally because leaders must model values that appreciate diversity and not alienate minorities (Adams & Velarde, 2021; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013). Most leadership styles preferred for international leaders include instructional and transformational leadership, emphasize cultural perspectives (Adams & Velarde, 2021).

Although the challenges they face can be imposing, most international school leaders agree that the most important and fulfilling parts of their job are working with professional faculties, gaining community support, and improving student achievement (Chan et al., 2019). Working with faculty and gaining community support is key to the fulfilling work of being a school leader (Chan et al., 2019). Licki and van der Walt (2021) noted that the leader's cultural intelligence could build trust and impact the retention of high-quality teachers. Nevertheless,

there is little research on how a principal may establish those relationships in an international school context, especially when the leader is orienting themselves in a new country and attempting to establish themselves in a new organization as a new leader.

Organizational Change

When any organization changes, there are various responses concerning employee attitudes (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). Change can trigger emotional responses (Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). Even though the impact of change is to improve an organization, employees may negatively respond due to the pressure and uncertainty change brings (Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). This negative attitude has been found in research to cause improvements to fail (Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). Factors that support successful change include transformational behavior, employee attitudes, and emotional consequences (Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). Change can be an opportunity that encourages positive emotions like happiness, desire, and creativity, or it can be viewed as a threat that leads to hostility, anxiety, and apprehension (Martinez, 2019; Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). A leader's support can help employees accept organizational change (Martinez, 2019; Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). Therefore, understanding the nature of change is an essential leadership skill (Martinez, 2019; Mukhtar & Fook, 2020).

Research indicates that organizational change provokes cognitive, affective, and behavioral reactions (Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). The mental reaction is a set of ideas regarding change. Affective responses concern pleasant or unpleasant feelings about the change (Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). Behavioral change comprises the employee's actions, whether supporting or rejecting change (Mukhtar & Fook, 2020); behavioral change can be more easily influenced (Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). All three (cognitive, affective, and behavioral) must be understood and addressed to effect change (Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). For a new leader, navigating employee

reactions to change is the first step in creating a lasting impact on the organizational journey (Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). The impacts of organizational change apply to educational settings because newly hired principals face the challenges of managing all aspects of the change (Benson, 2011; Thelin, 2020).

Organizational Change Due to Principal Turnover

Turnover in building administration happens regularly, sometimes in just a few years (Benson, 2011; Levin & Bradley, 2022; Thelin, 2020). In the case of principalship, frequent turnover means frequent organizational change (Balyer, 2017; Benson, 2011; Thelin, 2020). The same problems previously examined for organizational change exist within the school, and principal turnover has many detrimental impacts, including teacher attrition and dwindling student achievement (Gordon & Hart, 2022; Levin & Bradley, 2022; Liu & Bellibas, 2018; Thelin, 2020). Levin and Bradley (2022) comprehensively reviewed student achievement data in the United States. They determined that an effective principal could impact .13 standard deviations in growth in math, 2.9 months of learning, and .09 standard deviations, 2.7 of learning growth, in reading for their school student performance each year. Principal turnover also leads to teacher attrition, with approximately 20% of teachers (on average) leaving when a principalship turns over (Miller, 2013). Principal turnover impacts student achievement indirectly through instructional leadership and directly through teacher attrition (Gordon & Hart, 2022; Levin & Bradley, 2022; Miller, 2013).

Principals are hired to implement their vision based on their educational beliefs; however, this takes time to do successfully (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). It takes principals at least five years to stabilize and improve teaching, policies, and practices that improve school performance (Balyer, 2017; Gordon & Hart, 2022; Miller, 2013; Thelin, 2020). Influential leaders contribute as much

as 25% of the school's influence on student achievement because of their impact on school climate and teacher behavior (Babo & Postma, 2017). However, many principals leave their posts within five years, disrupting school culture and student achievement (Balyer, 2017; Benson, 2011; Gordon & Hart, 2022; Miller, 2013). Therefore, if there is regular principal turnover, teachers and students constantly undergo the organizational change process (Miller, 2013). The resulting principal succession is disruptive and can have a dysfunctional impact on the collective morale of school staff members (Cieminski, 2018; Thelin, 2020).

Regardless of the time and financial investment in hiring and training new principals, over a dozen countries report frequent principal turnover (Cieminski, 2018; Thelin, 2020). Thelin (2020) indicated that 18% of Sweden's principals left their current positions from 2007 to 2008 alone. This rapid rate of change is especially true for schools with high poverty, large populations of ethnic minorities, and low achievement scores, particularly in the United States (Gordon & Hart, 2022; Miller, 2013; Thelin, 2020). The rewards for principals have not outweighed the impacts of accountability pressure, perceived lack of support, long work hours, or lack of job security (Cieminski, 2018). The exodus of principals makes it difficult for schools to meet government mandates and initiate or maintain comprehensive school improvements (Babo & Postma, 2017; Balyer, 2017;). While rapid turnover is a problem in most public schools in many countries, rapid turnover is built into the international school principalship, where contracts are typically shorter than in the United States (Benson, 2011; Smith, 2021).

There is rapid turnover and a shortage of qualified principals in the United States and internationally (Benson, 2011; Levin & Bradley, 2022; Thelin, 2020). Researchers have found that some principals are disappointed in their roles (possibly due to the complexity of the role), and there is higher turnover and fewer candidates for replacement (Cieminski, 2018). Principals

must carry out two important and complex roles: as managers of an organization (establishing schedules, staffing, etc.), and as instructional leaders held accountable to high expectations of legislating bodies and stakeholders (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). The shortage is also complicated because, although teachers may complete administrative certification, those teachers do not choose to step into the administrator role (Benson, 2011). Many see that the challenges outweigh the benefits due to stress, limited contact with students, poor funding, fear of failure, public accountability, and hours of duty time (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). Internationally, principals are responsible to country educational departments, accrediting agencies, independent organizational boards, and parents (Benson, 2011; Liu & Bellibas, 2018; Thelin, 2020).

Liu and Bellibas (2018) completed a comprehensive study of 32 countries to understand principal job satisfaction—what would keep principals on the job and prevent turnover? Staff mutual respect was the most crucial factor in principal job satisfaction (Beycioglu et al., 2012; Licki & van der Walt, 2021; Liu & Bellibas, 2018). Mutual respect was positive and notable in all 32 countries (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). Establishing a mutually respectful and collaborative relationship is also vital to teachers (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). The research confirmed that a respectful, cooperative relationship with administrators was critical to teacher job satisfaction (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). Cieminski (2018) noted that "one of the most important actions that superintendents can take to improve schools is to hire principals who know how to provide supportive, collaborative working environments for teachers" (p. 24). Principals agree and emphasize the importance of the principal caring about staff and students as a key to principal success (Cieminski, 2018). However, none of these studies considered how to create that relationship between international principals and staff members. Understanding how international principals can build strong relationships with their staff members, particularly with

a diverse staff population, may significantly impact both principal and teacher job satisfaction. Intelligences, particularly social and emotional intelligence, have been the subject of much leadership research regarding developing relation-building skills (Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Vann et al., 2017; Wirawan et al., 2019).

Cross-Cultural Adjustment

Research indicates that cross-cultural adjustment, CCA, is crucial for job satisfaction and expatriate success (Adler & Aycan, 2018; Bruning et al., 2012; Demes & Geeraert, 2014; Konanahalli et al., 2014; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). Cross-cultural adjustment is one's ability to adapt to living in a different culture and deal with culture shock (Adler & Aycan, 2018; Giorgi et al., 2020; Setti et al., 2022; Shaffer & Miller, 2015; Stoermer et al., 2018). There is an increase in expatriate managers taking on international assignments, and failure in these positions comes at an enormous cost (C. Y. P. Wang et al., 2019). Expatriate employees who "lack … cultural knowledge, or [experience] conflict [with] officials or colleagues from the host country … can inhibit successful knowledge transfer" (C. Y. P. Wang et al., 2019, p. 2). The cost of replacing unsuccessful workers in this context could damage a business (Salgado & Bastida, 2017). Shaffer and Miller (2015) noted that the failure rate of expatriates is 40%, with that number increasing to 70% in underdeveloped countries. Therefore, many international companies realize that understanding and prioritizing expatriate job satisfaction and cultural adjustment is critical for organizations because it reduces turnover and increases organizational commitment (Setti et al., 2022; Stoermer et al., 2018; F. Wang et al., 2019).

Cross-Cultural Adjustment and Theory

Since the 1980s, cross-cultural scholarship has focused on understanding the organizational behaviors of varied cultures, comparing countries to understand how colleagues

and managers interact (Adler & Aycan, 2018; Giorgi et al., 2020). This field of research seeks to understand four critical questions about managing cultural differences (Adler & Aycan, 2018). In their review of cross-cultural theoretical frameworks, Adler and Aycan (2018) explored how expatriates remain open-minded to reshaping their own stereotypes of different cultures, how mutual learning can support the successful development of cross-cultural relationships, how learnings can be generalized to other cross-cultural environments, and how new insights become permanent in one's thinking and behavior fostering global connections. While some theories present a static view of culture, Adler and Aycan (2018) argue that cognitive science research has provided a dynamic understanding of theories supporting a more complete understanding of cross-cultural relationships and interactions.

Constructivist Perspectives of Cross-Cultural Adaptation. Current research on understanding cultural dynamics has shifted from a static view confined by geographic borders to a varied and sometimes conflicting system of knowledge and values (Adler & Aycan, 2018). The Cultural Frame Shifting paradigm proposes that one may integrate or dissociate from elements of their culture freely and that individuals possess a complex system to make meaning of culture based on context to shift and access varied cultural value structures (Adler & Aycan, 2018). Multicultural individuals are clear examples when navigating dual cultural identities, which is more easily achieved if those cultures are compatible (Adler & Aycan, 2018). The Situated Dynamics framework builds on this understanding by situationally relevant norms (Adler & Aycan, 2018). Some aspects of culture are consistent over time, but norms may adjust to support cultural stability and create an understanding of culturally inconsistent behavior as an outlier (Adler & Aycan, 2018).

The Integration of Multiple Theoretical Perspectives. Konanahalli et al. (2014) explain the three facets of Black, Mendenhall, and Oddou's framework: work adjustment, interaction adjustment, and general adjustment. Work adjustment is considered the easiest because there are similarities in the job role, regardless of the county (Konanahalli et al., 2014; Lee, 2006). However, the study notes it may be more challenging for females who assume jobs in a host country where few females work (Konanahalli et al., 2014). Interaction adjustment is the psychological adjustment one may have when building relationships with host country nationals, which may be the most challenging adjustment (Konanahalli et al., 2014; Lee, 2006). General adjustment is the overall adjustment to living in a new country (Konanahalli et al., 2014). It includes caring for personal needs such as housing, shopping, and transportation ((Konanahalli et al., 2014; Lee, 2006)).

Adler and Aycan (2018) point out that expatriate adjustment has been much more studied than the organizational effectiveness or impact of host country nationals on expatriate effectiveness. Examining the establishment of trust and learning is critical for expatriate success (Adler & Aycan, 2018; Giorgi et al., 2020; Setti et al., 2022). Expatriates benefit from varied local interactions, which help them adjust to the norms of a host country and enhance their success. Adler and Aycan (2018) point out that dissatisfaction with compensation gaps decreases as host country nationals' job satisfaction and satisfaction with expatriates increase. They also indicate that salary gaps become less of a problem with expatriate managers whose behavior creates an inclusive and trustworthy climate (Adler & Aycan, 2018).

Cross-Cultural Adjustment and Personality

Much of the research on CCA has been conducted in business settings (Bücker et al., 2015; Konanahalli et al., 2014; Salgado & Bastida, 2017; Setti et al., 2022). The research

demonstrates that personality traits play a factor in improving cross-cultural adjustment. In their study of Spanish managers, Salgado and Bastida (2017) found that friendliness personality traits had the most significant correlation to cross-cultural adjustment. Good social skills and fitting into new social situations indicate good cross-cultural adaptation (Salgado & Bastida, 2017). F. Wang et al. (2019) determined that personality traits of being open to experience, extraversion, and conscientiousness help expatriates build good relationships with the local community for Chinese and Taiwanese businesses. However, the research indicates that while some personality traits, especially those of extroversion, are beneficial for cross-cultural adjustment, they are not the only factors that help establish oneself in a new culture (Saini, 2018; Salgado & Bastida, 2017; C. Y. P. Wang et al., 2019).

Cross-Cultural Adjustment and Organizational Support

While some studies indicate that the failures of expatriate employees are specifically attributed to an inability to adjust to the country, organizational support can play a mediating role (Adler & Aycan, 2018; Bruning et al., 2012; Giorgi et al., 2020; Salgado & Bastida, 2017; Stoermer et al., 2018). Setti et al. (2022) point to specific onboarding strategies, including early training and mentoring to help expatriates adjust. Administrative support has also affected international employee job satisfaction and success (Bruning et al., 2012; Giorgi et al., 2020; Salgado & Bastida, 2017; Stoermer et al., 2018). Stoermer et al. (2018) found that expatriates working in South Korea experienced higher levels of job satisfaction if they perceived organizational support was higher than their need for organizational information. Giorgi et al. (2020) studied electrical workers in Italy, and their data indicated a high correlation between organizational support and CCA. Their study revealed that CCA is an antecedent of perceived organizational support, and support can make the perception of organizational behavior more

positive (Giorgi et al., 2020). Organizational support's crucial role mediates CCA and work-related stress (Giorgi et al., 2020). For example, Dos Santos (2020) explained the increased stress involved for Black educators in navigating the Korean governmental systems. Most had experienced bias from governmental organizations, like those issuing identification cards (Dos Santos, 2020). Organizational support in navigating foreign government systems could reduce employee stress (Dos Santos, 2020; Giorgi et al., 2020).

When expatriate employees face CCA issues and experience economic, emotional, and social support, they feel less stress and uncertainty (Giorgi et al., 2020). These learnings may relate to international education, and the research indicates a need for school organizations to provide adequate organizational support to aid in a leader's cross-cultural adjustment (Adler & Aycan, 2018; Dos Santos, 2020; Giorgi et al., 2020; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). Organizations can support international school administrators through professional development for working in a diverse setting with diverse staff members and students (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015). Yet, organizational support is only one piece of the puzzle.

Cross-Cultural Adjustment and Isolation

In international work, there has been research to examine the role social exclusion may have in employee job satisfaction, success, and retention (Bauer & Silver, 2018; Bayar, 2020). International business workers were more successful when not excluded; social exclusion may be a significant stressor and a reason for leaving the position (Stoermer et al., 2018). However, expatriates who understand local norms and exhibit behaviors keeping with those norms have a strong cross-cultural adjustment (C. Y. P. Wang et al., 2019). They are more likely to overcome obstacles and understand the local culture (C. Y. P. Wang et al., 2019).

School leadership also discusses isolation as a significant problem (Thelin, 2020). Bayar (2020) explored the isolation and social loneliness of school administrators. In their study, they noted that isolation affects the psychological well-being of administrators, the way administrators interact with their teams, and administrator burnout and success (Bayar, 2020). While conducting semi-structured interviews, the study revealed that themes of social isolation and loneliness were reoccurring. Participants noted that disconnection from supervisors, struggles with teachers, and pressures from stakeholder groups created their loneliness (Bayar, 2020).

Social isolation is especially troublesome in the role of an international school administrator. International school leaders who feel isolated may suffer loneliness affecting their work-life, effectiveness, and perseverance (Bauer & Silver, 2018; Liu & Bellibas, 2018). The relationship between international school administrators and their teachers plays an essential role in the effectiveness of a school (Bauer & Silver, 2018; Bayar, 2020). If they feel isolated, it may hamper their abilities as instructional leaders and impact the quality of their work, effectiveness, perseverance, and intention to stay in a principalship (Bauer & Silver, 2018; Bayar, 2020). Research demonstrates that the isolation of international school leaders predicts burnout, and the degree of that isolation depends on job duties (Bauer & Silver, 2018). International school leaders face challenges including loneliness, transience, coping with cultural differences, managing budgets, working with school governance, and managing the school (Bailey & Gibson, 2019; F. Wang et al., 2018). Since many international school administrators are members of small teams or even the only administrator at their school, they are much more likely to do their work alone. They may feel more isolated (Bailey & Gibson, 2019).

The research demonstrates that expatriate workers in all sections struggle with common issues like organizational support and social isolation (Bauer & Silver, 2018; Salgado & Bastida, 2017; Stoermer et al., 2018). Cross-cultural adjustment is a factor in job satisfaction for expatriate workers (Adler & Aycan, 2018; Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Konanahalli et al., 2014). The research of business and industrial managers may help create an understanding of why some international school administrators overcome obstacles like isolation or limited organizational support, adjust better to new cultural environments, and are more satisfied with their job (Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Vann et al., 2017; Wirawan et al., 2019).

Measuring Cross-Cultural Adjustment

Cultural adaptation, acculturation orientation, and cultural distance are all areas studied by psychologists and sociologists (Adler & Aycan, 2018; Demes & Geeraert, 2014; Jyoti & Kour, 2017). While different researchers have developed several measures to measure cultural adaptation, they are often long and too culturally specific (Demes & Geeraert, 2014). Demes and Geeraert (2014) reviewed a wide collection of CCA data-gathering instruments and developed four new tools to measure sociocultural adaptation, psychological adaptation, perceived cultural distance, and acculturation orientation. They point out that cross-cultural adaptation includes both sociocultural (practical behaviors) and psychological (happiness) domains. The authors indicate that these two adaptive domains do not always correlate with current measurement tools (Demes & Geeraert, 2014).

Demes and Geeraert's (2014) CCA scales were assessed among two independent opportunity samples, including international students at the University of Essex and migrant faculty members (Demes & Geeraert, 2014). The scales were found to have good reliability, using Cronbach's alpha, the Brief Psychological Adaptation Scale (BPAS) $\alpha = .72$ and the Brief

Sociocultural Adaptation Scale (BSAS) $\alpha = .85$ (Demes & Geeraert, 2014). These scales are not only easy to translate, but the validity was assessed by comparing correlations between the new scales and other constructs. The scales also offer the advantage of conceptual clarity and scale length (Demes & Geeraert, 2014).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is key to longevity in a profession (F. Wang et al., 2018). Job satisfaction is the pleasure or positive feelings from a job experience (Bedi et al., 2021; Suleman & Hussain, 2018). Situational or contextual factors can influence job satisfaction (Licki & van der Walt, 2021). For example, being paid well, having good working conditions, and having an organized, functional culture can increase job satisfaction (Licki & van der Walt, 2021). Employees who are well compensated and have good relationships with their colleagues experience more job satisfaction (Khanna, 2017). Both intrinsic (such as relationships) and extrinsic (such as salary) factors may be satisfied if employees feel supported and build trust with their supervisors (Licki & van der Walt, 2021). These concepts apply to the educational setting.

The responsibilities of school administrators are critical to a school's success because administrators ensure a favorable climate, allocate resources, build strong relationships with students and staff, and help raise students' academic performance (Allensworth & Hart, 2018; Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Marzano et al., 2005). Both administrators and teachers shape future heads of society (Suleman & Hussain, 2018). Understanding job satisfaction in education, particularly for administrators, may increase principal longevity, decrease rapid organizational change, and benefit the school culture leading to higher academic achievement. Research has shown that teacher satisfaction strongly aligns with principal practices, including establishing school culture (Cieminski, 2018). However, job dissatisfaction grows when the conditions

include long hours, low pay, few opportunities for promotion, poor working conditions, or a negative culture (Martinez, 2019; Suleman & Hussain, 2018).

Although job satisfaction is necessary for educators, stress and dissatisfaction levels are high (Bedi et al., 2021; Levin & Bradley, 2022; *NASSP Survey signals a looming mas exodus of principals from schools of Principals from Schools*, 2021). In a study by Bedi et al. (2021), 70% of principals report being stressed or moderately stressed. High-stress levels were attributed to preparing and monitoring teaching, monitoring student attendance and assessment, providing guidance, supervising school events, and disciplining students, which consumed the bulk of the days for school administrators (Bedi et al., 2021). That stress is even higher among administrators who oversee boarding schools (Bedi et al., 2021).

Herzberg's Theory of Job Satisfaction

In 1974, Frederick Herzberg proposed a theory that job satisfaction lay along a continuum from job satisfaction to job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1974; Khanna, 2017). In his theory, hygiene factors and motivators propelled employees to either end of the continuum (Khanna, 2017; Matei & Abrudan, 2016). Motivators like growth opportunities, recognition, and achievement promoted job satisfaction (higher on the continuum), or hygiene factors such as interpersonal relationships, working conditions, and pay propelled employees into job dissatisfaction (lower on the continuum) (Herzberg, 1974; Khanna, 2017; Matei & Abrudan, 2016; Suleman & Hussain, 2018). In his theory, good motivators increased satisfaction; poor hygiene factors increased dissatisfaction (Khanna, 2017; Suleman & Hussain, 2018). Hygiene factors are considered basic needs that must be satisfied by an organization to prevent dissatisfaction (Khanna, 2017). In Herzberg's motivational-hygiene theory, there is a balance between intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Herzberg, 1974; Khanna, 2017; Suleman & Hussain,

2018). However, according to this theory, job dissatisfaction does not default to being satisfied, and the opposite of satisfaction does not mean dissatisfaction (Khanna, 2017; Suleman & Hussain, 2018). Therefore, one could feasibly be neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their position.

Locke's Theory of Job Satisfaction

Locke's theory directly conflicts with Herzberg's (Locke, 1970). According to Locke, job features and their determining weight in job satisfaction or dissatisfaction are proportional to the employee's value of the element (Locke, 1970; McFarlin & Rice, 1991). For example, McFarlin and Rice (1991) surveyed bank employees and found that salary and promotion opportunities were valued and ranked as extremely important or highly desired. Therefore, salary and promotion were two job features correlated with high job satisfaction (McFarlin & Rice, 1991). If the desired amount of an essential element was too low, job satisfaction decreased, but job satisfaction increased if the component was near the desired amount (McFarlin & Rice, 1991). For example, if employees wanted a $50,000 USD per year salary and were paid $40,000, they were less satisfied than if they were paid $45,000. Locke's theory has gained more favor with researchers as a more accurate gauge for job satisfaction and is currently the most used by researchers (Locke, 1970; McFarlin & Rice, 1991).

Maslow's Theory of Job Satisfaction

A third theory for understanding job satisfaction is Maslow's Hierarchy (Bouzenita & Boulanouar, 2016; Maslow, 1971; Raymond et al., 2003; Suleman & Hussain, 2018). As a psychologist, Maslow believed that people operated to meet their desires and needs and that humans only attain fulfillment when their needs are met (Bouzenita & Boulanouar, 2016; Suleman & Hussain, 2018). In his theory, a human need was constant, and only when a need was

satisfied did an individual move to the next level of need (Bouzenita & Boulanouar, 2016; Maslow, 1971; Suleman & Hussain, 2018). To understand the implication of the hierarchy model regarding job satisfaction, one should consider the factors affecting job satisfaction (Suleman & Hussain, 2018). The five levels of Maslow: biological need, security need, social need, esteem need, and actualization need, can all be seen in one's work (Maslow, 1971; Suleman & Hussain, 2018). When a primary need, such as paying for basic needs, is fulfilled, the following need is to make friends and coworkers, fulfilling the social need. Supervisors can impact and guarantee job satisfaction by fulfilling those individual needs (Suleman & Hussain, 2018). For example, a workplace might satisfy security needs by providing retirement and insurance benefits (Suleman & Hussain, 2018). In this way, the hierarchical model of Maslow can be used to understand job satisfaction.

Cultural Critiques of Job Satisfaction Theories

Maslow's and Herzberg's theories have been critiqued as strictly American theories because they rely on American subjects for their research (Bouzenita & Boulanouar, 2016; Raymond et al., 2003). Bouzenita and Boulanouar (2016) critique Maslow as ethnocentric in the self-actualization stage, pointing out that even Maslow later found fault with his theory. They point out that the model was not based on empirical study and ignores more collectivist societies, such as the Far East and Middle Eastern Societies. Both Herzberg's and Maslow's models lack cross-cultural validity (Bouzenita & Boulanouar, 2016; Raymond et al., 2003). Raymond et al.'s (2003) study noted that Maslow's Hierarchy did not fit Korean values. In studying Korean blue-collar workers, the researchers noted that belonging was a much more significant need among Koreans (Raymond et al., 2003). The study suggested that values are culturally specific. While Maslow's needs may be universal, the rank order of the hierarchy is much more likely to shift in

collectivist societies (Raymond et al., 2003). The study points to the idea that universal measures are much more challenging when measuring job satisfaction and needs (Raymond et al., 2003).

Similarly, Matei and Abrudan (2016) found that work satisfaction hygiene and motivation factors did not hold in Romania, where the salary was not only a hygiene factor but also a motivational factor, and working conditions also had a high motivational quality. Therefore, categorizing factors as isolated compartmental units must be adjusted to cultural context (Matei & Abrudan, 2016). Both Maslow's theory and Herzberg's theory for job satisfaction may be challenging to apply in a cross-cultural study.

Job Satisfaction and Principals

In looking at the role of principals and job satisfaction, "there is a significant difference between [perceived] job satisfaction … across countries" (Liu & Bellibas, 2018, p. 8). Factors that influence job satisfaction for principals include staff culture, student achievement, safety, and autonomy in staffing (Liu & Bellibas, 2018). In their study of Irish administrators and schools, Darmody and Smyth (2016) point out the circular nature of school culture's role in administrative satisfaction. School culture plays a role in principal satisfaction, but principals also play a key role in establishing that culture (Marzano et al., 2005; Miller, 2013). Complex duties may result in depressive stress and impact the performance levels of principals (Bedi et al., 2021). Sodoma and Else's 2009 study of Iowa principals notes that management tasks and activities beyond the school day detract from principal job satisfaction. Principals' youth (under 30 years of age) and lack of educational background negatively impacted principal satisfaction (Sodoma & Else, 2009; F. Wang et al., 2018). Principals with lower levels of education and those under 35 years old tended to have greater dissatisfaction (F. Wang et al., 2018). Sodoma and Else (2009) supported this finding and noted that principal job satisfaction rates were lower

for female principals as well as principals with less experience. Job satisfaction for school principals in public and private education impacts principals in many countries' education (Bauer & Silver, 2018; Suleman & Hussain, 2018; F. Wang et al., 2018).

F. Wang et al. (2018) concluded that the role of the principal is becoming less desirable, and recruitment and retention continues to be challenging. Insufficient professional development, poor relationships with colleagues, parents, and students, and lack of decision-making authority have decreased principal satisfaction, making the role less attractive to teachers seeking administrative credentials (Levin & Bradley, 2022). Those who manage principals can impact some factors, such as recognition, support in dealing with challenging teachers, autonomy, and time demands (F. Wang et al., 2018). The research indicates that the most significant factor of principal job satisfaction remains embedded in the school climate, which relies on a well-established relationship with staff members (Darmody & Smyth, 2016; Duran & Yildirim, 2017; Liu & Bellibas, 2018; Perkins, 2019; Swen, 2020). Job satisfaction increased with principal professional development, professional autonomy (especially when making difficult decisions), time spent on instructional leadership tasks (classroom walkthrough and curriculum and instructional development), and increased recognition (Sodoma & Else, 2009; F. Wang et al., 2018).

School principals' job satisfaction revolves around teacher satisfaction and student achievement (Horwood et al., 2021). Studies in Australia and Canada have analyzed high-stress levels in school leaders (Horwood et al., 2021; F. Wang et al., 2018). In these studies, role expectations, interpersonal relationships, interpersonal conflict, and legislative reform have combined to raise stress levels for school principals (Bedi et al., 2021; Horwood et al., 2021). Factors that increase job satisfaction include staff mutual respect, trust, and safety; however, a

lack of human resources and autonomy in staffing negatively influenced job satisfaction (Fessler, 2017; Liu & Bellibas, 2018). Job satisfaction increases if the principal is passionate but not obsessive and has a high self-efficacy belief (Bauer & Silver, 2018; Horwood et al., 2021). Though school principals have high job satisfaction, they also have high burnout (Horwood et al., 2021).

Passion and Burnout

Horwood et al. (2021) examined administrators' passion for their roles. They used the Dualistic Model of Passion (DMP) framework to look at three dimensions of passion (general, harmonious, and obsessive). They studied how passion can motivate but can also lead to negative emotions and sadness. General passion is a love for work. It is generally positive for a person's affect and work behaviors. Harmonious passion is engaging in an activity that is self-determined and willingly incorporated into one's life. The harmoniously passionate individual controls the activity and can choose when to engage or disengage, creating their own boundaries. Obsessive passion can become integral to one's identity and lead a person to pursue an activity for rewards like social acceptance or self-esteem (Horwood et al., 2021). This kind of passion can have a damaging impact on the individual and other aspects of their life. Harmonious passion protects against burnout and positively impacts job satisfaction (Horwood et al., 2021). However, too much passion can lead to burnout, no matter the type (Horwood et al., 2021).

Because the principal's level of job satisfaction is contingent on the satisfaction of their staff members, understanding the relationship between teacher satisfaction and principal actions is essential (Darmody & Smyth, 2016; Licki & van der Walt, 2021). If staff members feel supported by their superiors, they are more likely to experience job satisfaction and are also likely to trust their supervisors (Chan et al., 2019). It is also possible that if employees trust their

supervisors, they will experience more job satisfaction (Licki & van der Walt, 2021). Licki and van der Walt (2021) noted that perceived cultural intelligence in a principal strengthened the trust relationship between principals and their staff in South Africa. The study results indicate that principals' perceived level of cultural intelligence has a positive and statistically significant association with intrinsic and extrinsic teacher job satisfaction (Licki & van der Walt, 2021). Accordingly, Licki and van der Walt's (2021) study indicates that principals perceived to have high levels of cultural intelligence function more effectively in a diverse setting, creating higher levels of teacher job satisfaction. The implications may indicate that if principals can produce high levels of teacher satisfaction, they can improve their own.

Principal Self-Efficacy

Leaders are most effective if they believe themselves capable of accomplishing challenging tasks (Skaalvik, 2020). Cobanoglu and Yurek (2018) established a correlation between self-efficacy and the leadership styles of administrators. Perceived self-efficacy is associated with organizational performance and managers' success (Cobanoglu & Yurek, 2018), as those with self-efficacy are more motivated to perform in the workplace (Cobanoglu & Yurek, 2018). Using Bandura's Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), Duran and Yildirim (2017) defined self-efficacy as an internal judgment that one has the knowledge and skills for their level. It is the inner belief that they can find answers in their mind and experience to complete the task (Duran & Yildirim, 2017). They studied three areas of principal self-efficacy development, including instructional self-efficacy. According to their study of Turkish school leaders, the most significant predictor of administrator happiness was the score in instructional leadership competence (Duran & Yildirim, 2017). In a study of Norwegian administrators, Skaalvik (2020) found that instructional leadership self-efficacy improved administrators' rate of emotional

exhaustion. They were less likely to leave a position if they effectively motivated teachers (Skaalvik, 2020). Skaalvik (2020) and Duran and Yildirim (2017) demonstrated that school administrators' ability to be effective instructional leaders directly impacted their job satisfaction.

Principals with high self-efficacy are more likely to persist than those with a low sense of self-efficacy. Those with lower self-efficacy are more likely to give up, particularly when faced with a clash of values (Cobanoglu & Yurek, 2018; Debes, 2021; Skaalvik, 2020). Researchers have indicated that school administrators with high levels of self-efficacy can pursue their goals, adopt new strategies in a changing environment, have a more advanced social intelligence, and be undaunted in the face of problems (Cobanoglu & Yurek, 2018; Debes, 2021). Because cultural values and practices may impact leader decisions, ideals, expectations, and style, Da'as (2017) sought to distinguish which principal features were most significant across the varied cultures—which principal moves created the perception of self-efficacy? In this case, they studied Israel, where Arabic and Jewish schools exist. They discovered that cultural dimensions played a role in shaping teachers' perceptions of their administrators' skills (Da'as, 2017). Self-efficacy enhances a principal's consistency when faced with struggles like value clashes (Da'as, 2017).

Based on the review of the research, principals who develop instructional self-efficacy also build relationships that motivate diverse staff members to create a collective culture in the school, which combats emotional fatigue and may increase the likelihood that a principal stay in the position (Cobanoglu & Yurek, 2018; Da'as, 2017; Debes, 2021). However, little is written about how a principal develops the ability to increase principal self-efficacy, which hinges on their ability to motivate and lead (particularly in instruction) their staff members.

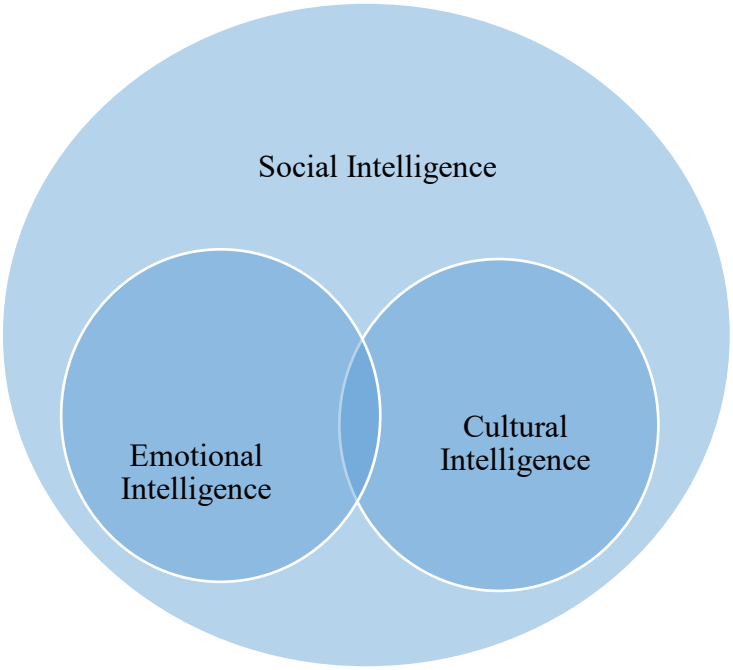
Intelligence

Intelligence is more than the ability to understand concepts and solve problems (Crowne, 2009). The growing consensus is that intelligence is multidimensional (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015; Crowne, 2009; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). While general intelligence is one's ability to learn (Bücker et al., 2015; Rockstuhl et al., 2011), emotional intelligence, social intelligence, and cultural intelligence are types of intelligence that focus on specific domains of intelligence (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015; Crowne, 2009). Emotional intelligence (EQ) is a person's ability to possess self-awareness, self-management, and relationship-management skills (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). Emotional intelligence promotes understanding one's own emotions and feelings, as well as the emotions and feelings of others (Debes, 2021; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). Social intelligence (SQ) concerns a person's ability to handle relationships and practice empathy (Williams, 2008). Cultural intelligence (CQ) is a person's ability to manage diverse cultural situations effectively (Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Saini, 2018). Emotional, social, and cultural intelligences deserve to be individually measured and understood (Crowne, 2009; Jyoti & Kour, 2017).

Crowne (2009) proposed a model of these three intelligences that analyzed the areas of convergence and their unique characteristics. As Figure 1 illustrates, Crowne proposed that social intelligence (SQ) encompassed both emotional intelligence (EQ) and cultural intelligence (CQ). Crowne's theoretical model suggests that EQ and CQ are specific aspects of social skills. Effective leadership has been positively linked to all three areas of intelligence. However, Crowne (2009) also pointed out that the growing understanding of CQ could overtake SQ due to globalization and interaction with other cultures. Thus, this model could shift with CQ becoming the larger construct and SQ and EQ being the subset of intelligence (Crowne, 2009).

Figure 1

Conceptualization of Social Intelligence, Emotional Intelligence, and Cultural Intelligence



Note: Crowne (2009, p. 155). Copyright 2009 by K. Crowne.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is an effective measurement for dealing with emotions within oneself and others (Debes, 2021; Elenkov & Pimentel, 2015; Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Vann et al., 2017), and it enhances one's ability to manage oneself (Vann et al., 2017; Williams, 2008). Emotional intelligence enables a person to understand and evaluate their emotions and the emotions of others, which allows one to cope successfully with demands and pressure (Williams, 2008). Because emotionally intelligent individuals have an established sense of self, they can understand others, maintain focus, and understand essential goals (Jyoti & Kour, 2017).

Emotional intelligence is a factor in how one deals with change and relationships. High-EQ people manage to change more effectively than those with lower EQ (Debes, 2021; Elenkov & Pimentel, 2015; Mukhtar & Fook, 2020). In Israel, Da'as (2017) found that Jewish and Arabic

teachers prioritized interpersonal leadership skills from highly developed EQ. In a study of Swiss military leaders, Rockstuhl et al. (2011) found that EQ is precious for leaders within their domestic context. Emotional intelligence allows leaders to lead change, maintain, or build relationships.

Emotional intelligence is a more critical driver for success in leadership than intellect because it plays an essential role in the leadership practices of enthusiasm, confidence, encouragement, and empowerment (Debes, 2021; Vann et al., 2017). Debes (2021) points out that the most influential leaders stand out from others because of their high emotional intelligence. The success of leaders with EQ is evident in education (Debes, 2021; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). According to Williams (2008), outstanding school leaders demonstrated significantly high emotional intelligence competencies, specifically self-confidence, self-control, conscientiousness, achievement orientation, and initiative. Additionally, there is a significant connection between a leader's perceived EQ and the ability to establish a good workplace climate (Debes, 2021).

Social Intelligence

Social intelligence is distinct from IQ and EQ; it is considered general intelligence in social situations. It has been an area of particular interest to researchers in how one makes judgments about themselves and others (Elenkov & Pimentel, 2015). It is the ability to understand and get along with others, the ability to understand social information, and the ability to adapt to social conditions (Elenkov & Pimentel, 2015). It typically reveals itself in seven areas: motivation, self-efficacy, social skills, performance, cognitive, affective, and behavioral reactions (Kriemeen & Hajaia, 2017).

Studies have shown that individuals with high SQ exceed in leadership and motivation. They have a capacity for problem-solving and effective communication (Elenkov & Pimentel, 2015). They may be able to quickly assess essential aspects of a situation and implications at multiple levels as well as respond with an array of appropriate responses (Elenkov & Pimentel, 2015). For example, a study of bank managers in India showed that socially intelligent managers can better manage diverse groups (Jyoti & Kour, 2017). Socially intelligent principals have been determined to be creative problem solvers (Kriemeen & Hajaia, 2017). Additionally, socially savvy educational leaders build relationships by being fair, providing autonomy, and encouraging the development of their staff members (Pope, 2019). Evidence shows that SQ is an asset for educational leaders (Kriemeen & Hajaia, 2017; Pope, 2019).

Cultural Intelligence

The ability to be effective in various cultural contexts is known as cultural intelligence (Aldhaheri, 2017; Licki & van der Walt, 2021; Smith, 2021; Solomon & Steyn, 2017b). The CQ framework has four dimensions: motivational, cognitive, metacognitive, and behavioral (Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Licki & van der Walt, 2021; Smith, 2021; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a). A person with high CQ is perceived as attentive, sensitive to cultural mores, and motivated to learn about different cultures (Licki & van der Walt, 2021).

The motivational dimension of CQ is the motivation to gain knowledge and understand cultures (Smith, 2021). It concerns the drive to function in a new cultural setting (Ang et al., 2007) and operating in culturally diverse situations (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). If one has high motivational cultural intelligence, they have an intrinsic desire and confidence to succeed in cross-cultural environments (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). Motivationally intelligent expatriate workers may spend more energy learning role expectations and overcoming challenges,

including effective communication and conflict resolution (Setti et al., 2022). For example, learning and practicing the language of culture with native speakers would indicate motivational cultural intelligence.

The cognitive dimension of CQ represents the understanding of cultural norms and practices gained through educational experiences (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015; Setti et al., 2022). For example, one might take a Spanish language class and learn about Spanish customs and culture. High cognitive CQ people possess "mental maps" of culture that allow them to find similarities and differences among cultures (Setti et al., 2022). One might learn aspects of any given society without being immersed in the society (Setti et al., 2022). They excel in intercultural negotiations, decision-making, and sharing foundational knowledge (Setti et al., 2022). Therefore, cognitive CQ is created through classroom and experiential-based knowledge (Ang et al., 2007; Smith, 2021).

The metacognitive dimension of CQ concerns an individual's conscious level of cultural awareness during diverse interactions (Smith, 2021). Those with high metacognitive cultural intelligence know their cultural assumptions and beliefs in diverse settings (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). They reflect on interactions with others and use those interactions to adjust their cultural knowledge (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). They are adept at adjusting their understanding to meet the demands of their environment and may excel at collaboration, decision-making, and task performance (Setti et al., 2022). For example, a group of Middle Eastern colleagues might conversationally and socially address and interact with one another to measure behavior before speaking up in a collective meeting.

The behavioral dimension of CQ is one's ability to use the appropriate verbal and nonverbal behaviors (Setti et al., 2022; Smith, 2021). Many cultural cues are nonverbal. This

aspect of behavioral CQ refers to appropriate actions given a diverse context (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). Cultures vary in the range of proper nonverbal behaviors, their display, and their meanings (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). This special attention to nonverbal aspects of culture is critical to one's ability to thrive in diverse settings (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). Nonverbal cues may covertly communicate volumes (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). Their flexibility positively aids task performance, negotiations among cultures, and conflict management (Setti et al., 2022). For example, eye contact has a wide range of cultural appropriateness. Some cultures prefer direct eye contact, while others avoid it. Behavioral cultural intelligence plays a role in interpreting meaning beyond the words and language of a culture (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015).

Culturally intelligent people can be highly effective when interacting with others from varied backgrounds (Jyoti & Kour, 2017). Cultural intelligence has been positively associated with task performance and leadership. In Abu Dhabi, data showed that school leaders with work experience in regions other than their home countries had developed their CQ to adjust quicker and more easily to diverse settings (Aldhaheri, 2017). Cultural intelligence has been linked to positive personality traits. Saini (2018) found that subjects with high CQ had high curiosity and agreeableness, which can enhance leadership and effectiveness. Cultural intelligence has been found to mediate CCA and work performance (Setti et al., 2022). Multiple studies have indicated that CQ improves leadership in highly diverse contexts (Aldhaheri, 2017; Ashley, 2020; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Kim, 2009; Naughton, 2010; Smith, 2021; Solomon & Steyn, 2017b). The literature points explicitly to cultural intelligence as an essential factor in making judgments and decisions regardless of the diversity of the setting (Adams & Velarde, 2021; Aldhaheri, 2017; Ashley, 2020; Cieminski, 2018; Crowne, 2009; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Kim, 2009).

Cultural intelligence has been linked with cultural adaptability (Crowne, 2009; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a). Cognitive, motivational, and behavioral CQ have been associated with the ability of expatriates to assess their international experience and then choose appropriate actions and reactions (Shaffer & Miller, 2015). Cognitive CQ helps expatriates develop a repertoire of behaviors to lean on during cross-cultural interactions. Those with high motivational factors believe they can adapt to new situations (Shaffer & Miller, 2015). The research shows expatriates with strong motivational and behavioral CQ are motivated to engage in activities and engage with the environment of the locality in which they are placed (Aldhaheri, 2017; Ashley, 2020; Licki & van der Walt, 2021; Martinez, 2019; Smith, 2021).

Solomon and Steyn (2017a) analyzed six empirically proven truths about cultural intelligence in their literature review. In their review of 13 years of research on cultural intelligence, they analyzed 76 studies from peer-reviewed journals testing 590 hypotheses. Out of the 590 hypotheses, 352 were confirmed. Sixty percent of these hypotheses were determined to be factual statements based on empirical investigations. As noted in Table 1, thirteen themes were determined significant. The top six reoccurring themes comprised 64% of the studies included in this review (Solomon & Steyn, 2017a).

Table 1

Cultural Intelligence Hypotheses and Truth Statements per Identified Themes

Number	Theme	Hypotheses	TS: (Hypotheses supported)	
		(a) NO.	(b) NO	(c) TS Percentage (b/a)
1	CQ and cross-cultural adjustment relate positively	126	68	54
2	Cross-cultural training and experiential learning stimulate CQ	74	44	59
3	CQ improves cross-cultural job performance, satisfaction, involvement, and adaptation	71	40	56
4	International experience, and exposure progress CQ	54	40	74
5	CQ advances cross-cultural team knowledge sharing, performance, and development of shared values whilst team trust enhances CQ	28	21	75
6	CQ predicts international leadership potential, effectiveness and styles	23	11	48
7	CQ increases cross-cultural communication effectiveness	23	10	44
8	CQ correlates with personality	21	15	71
9	CQ promotes organizational agility, adaptive capability, and commitment	16	15	94
10	CQ exists as a discrete intelligence type	14	10	88
11	CQ cultivates cross-cultural collaborative dealings	8	7	50
12	CQ and self-efficacy share a positive relationship	6	3	75
13	CQ and psychological capital are positively related	4	3	53

Note: CQ, Cultural intelligence; TS, Truth statements. Adapted from Solomon and Steyn (2017b). Exploring cultural intelligence truths: A systematic review. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *15*.

The top six themes were:

1. CQ and cross-cultural adjustment relate positively;

2. Cross-cultural training and experiential learning stimulate CQ;

3. CQ improves job performance, satisfaction, involvement, and adaptation;

4. International experience and exposure progress CQ;

5. CQ advances team knowledge sharing, performance, and development of shared values whilst team trust enhances CQ;

6. CQ predicts leadership potential and styles and advances effectiveness (Solomon & Steyn, 2017a, p. 5).

Based on this literature review, Solomon and Steyn (2017a) determined that CQ research indicates that possessing CQ has a variety of positive implications and truths. Cultural intelligence positively impacts a person's ability to navigate and adapt to varied cultures (Ang et al., 2007; Konanahalli et al., 2014; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Shaffer & Miller, 2015; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a). This includes their ability to manage living conditions and daily interactions with the host culture. This positive impact on CCA has been noted in many cultures, countries, and people (Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Setti et al., 2022; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a; C.Y.P. Wang, 2019). Cultural intelligence and its four domains play a role in advancing cross-cultural job performance. Experiencing foreign cultures positively impacts the development of CQ, regardless of whether those experiences are work-related or leisure (Ang et al., 2007; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Saini, 2018; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a; Solomon & Steyn, 2017b; C. Y. P. Wang et al., 2019). Cognitive, metacognitive, and motivational CQ enhances collaboration and effective team building (Solomon & Steyn, 2017b). While individuals can improve their CQ through training, experiential learning is the most effective. Finally, leadership potential and effectiveness positively correlate with CQ (Solomon & Steyn, 2017b).

Intelligence and Leadership

General intelligence is the ability to learn academic skills (Bücker et al., 2015; Smith, 2021). Many academic studies point to general intelligence as necessary to achieve excellent leadership (Vanderpal, 2014), and there is a significant link between general intelligence and effective leadership (Aldhaheri, 2017; Ashley, 2020; Keung, 2011; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). However, leaders need more than general intelligence to succeed in stressful situations (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). General intelligence is important in human resources—hiring and evaluating employees—but it is insufficient to solve complex managerial issues (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). A combination of general, social, and emotional intelligence has been determined to be the best predictors of leadership success (Vanderpal, 2014). While general intelligence may improve one's ability to recognize cultural patterns and differences, personal motivation, general intelligence, and behaviors are necessary to develop cultural intelligence (Vanderpal, 2014). The person's incentive to persevere when facing difficulties, especially cultural problems, is the foundation of cultural intelligence development (Vanderpal, 2014).

Jyoti and Kour (2017) found that India's multilingual, multi-ethnic country was an excellent environment to study the impact of various intelligences on management and leadership. Emotional intelligence and social intelligence work together to help managers understand emotions and build relationships with others in diverse settings (Jyoti & Kour, 2017). Additionally, both EQ and SQ positively impact the development of CQ, which is vital for working in diverse cultures (Jyoti & Kour, 2017). Individuals with high CQ tended to have higher emotional and social intelligence (Jyoti & Kour, 2017). Jyoti and Kour (2017) demonstrate that emotional, social, and cultural intelligence is the nexus for effective leadership within diverse cultural contexts.

Cultural intelligence is positively correlated with effective leadership, and Jyoti and Kour's (2017) results indicated that CCA is mediated by cultural intelligence, enhancing job performance. Cultural intelligence reduces the stress and anxiety of living and working in a new culture. Jyoti and Kour (2017) concluded that developing multiple intelligences, specifically CQ, is valuable for companies serving diverse populations. However, the study was limited to bank employees within India, and the implications of this research on the educational setting have yet to be explored.

In the post-COVID era, researchers, Azevedo and Jugdev (2022) determined that cultural intelligence enhances adaptive leadership. Because culturally intelligent leaders have developed resilience, they can constantly adjust their thinking and behavior. Adaptive leaders can negotiate, manage, and adapt to stress and trauma. Azevedo and Jugdev (2022) demonstrate through an extensive literature review that high CQ leaders have enhanced adaptive skills. The highly adaptive behavior of high CQ leaders can reduce burnout and enhance resilience. High CQ leaders can respond to environmental demands and an ability to operate "from a state of perpetual accommodation and assimilation" (p. 61). These leaders are open to and capable of personal change and make adaptive changes while motivating others to do the same (Azevedo & Jugdev, 2022). High CQ increases qualities of adaptive leadership including one's ability to adjust, augment decision-making, and self-regulate.

Cultural Intelligence in Educational Leadership

There is a link between effective leadership styles and school leaders' CQ level (Aldhaheri, 2017; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Smith, 2021). Cultural intelligence can significantly enhance leaders' effectiveness in ethnically diverse educational institutions, such as international schools (Aldhaheri, 2017). School leaders with a

high cultural intelligence display a high transformational leadership style, can self-regulate, and adjust quicker, and can lead and manage more effectively in multicultural environments (Adams & Velarde, 2021; Aldhaheri, 2017; Azevedo & Jugdev, 2022; Cobanoglu & Yurek, 2018; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013). Successful school principals in Mersin, Turkey reported that high levels of cultural intelligence improved their leadership by providing school organizational advantages and improved personnel well-being (Gokalp, 2021). They also noted that high cultural intelligence increased job satisfaction of staff members, students, and parents (Gokalp, 2021). Ashley (2020) found a correlation between CQ, leadership styles, and effectiveness. Specifically, the study demonstrated that metacognitive cultural intelligence scores positively correlated to how teachers perceived their principals as positive leaders (Ashley, 2020), as global leaders with cultural intelligence can navigate unique international environments (Vanderpal, 2014).

The research demonstrates that positive and effective leadership styles correlate with high CQ (Ashley, 2020; Azevedo & Jugdev, 2022; Keung, 2011; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Smith, 2021). The research demonstrated a significant positive relationship between cultural intelligence and both transformational and adaptive leadership (Azevedo & Jugdev, 2022; Keung, 2011). Solomon and Steyn (2017b) studied leaders at 19 South African organizations and found significant positive relationships between CQ and empowering and directive leadership; however, the relationship between CQ and empowering leadership was 1.37 standard deviations above the mean. According to Solomon and Steyn (2017b), “the implication is that when leader CQ or its dimensions increase or decrease, empowering and directive leadership levels would, similarly, record an escalation or reduction” (Solomon & Steyn, 2017b, p. 8). The study demonstrates that CQ dimensions, motivational CQ, and metacognitive CQ are predictors of

leadership, regardless of style (Solomon & Steyn, 2017b). Additionally, motivational and behavioral CQ were related to empowering leadership (Ashley, 2020). This kind of leadership can be important in schools because it builds relationships with staff to create shared leadership (Ashley, 2020).

Cultural intelligence is a construct that can be freely applied across cultures (Ashley, 2020; Azevedo & Jugdev, 2022). Within specific cultural settings such as Abu Dhabi and India, culturally intelligent leaders adapt to multicultural environments and have a more effortless cross-cultural adjustment than their peers, which enhances their job performance (Aldhaheri, 2017; Jyoti & Kour, 2017). Educational leaders with high cultural intelligence can lead diverse staff members and better adjust to multicultural environments with less stress and loneliness (Aldhaheri, 2017). Ashley's (2020) study of perceived educational leadership demonstrated a correlation between perceived CQ, leadership styles, and effectiveness. Licki and van der Walt (2021) also revealed that the teachers' perceived level of their school leaders' CQ statistically significantly impacts the teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and disclosure-based and reliance-based trust. In other words, teachers felt they could trust their principals and were satisfied in the working environment when they perceived their principals as having high cultural intelligence. Teachers report strong relational support from culturally intelligent principals (Ashley, 2020).

Johnston and Shipway (2020) indicated trust is essential in developing leader readiness. The study points to a critical indicator as leaders trust that their staff is ready to respond to challenges. This development of trust can help principals make positive contributions and be perceived as more competent, which reduces stress and anxiety for both the leader and the staff (Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Licki & van der Walt, 2021). These studies demonstrate that a culturally

intelligent principal can impact school culture by decreasing job dissatisfaction among staff and developing trusting relationships with staff. While some research explores a culturally intelligent principal's impact on their staff members (Ashley, 2020; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Licki & van der Walt, 2021), there is less research on highly developed cultural intelligence effects on the leader. A leader's cultural intelligence level may increase staff members' job satisfaction, but there is little research into the impact on their job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction, Cultural Intelligence, and Retention

Shaffer and Miller (2015) noted that although retention of expatriate employees is a primary concern for countries, retention of school leaders has not been researched. The study closest to discussing the role cultural intelligence and job satisfaction play in employee retention is Martinez's 2019 study on the four facets of cultural intelligence in employee turnover in the United States' non-farm profession and business sector. Martinez (2019) found that while all four factors of cultural intelligence played a role, job satisfaction made up a much more significant percentage of an employee's decision to leave their role. However, this study was limited to the United States, and most participants were in high-tech positions (Martinez, 2019). There were no international or educational implications.

Shaffer and Miller (2015) proposed a model in which CQ has moderating and mediating implications for expatriate cultural adjustment, execution, retention, and success. The study points out that work performance and retention for expatriate employees rely heavily on relationships with host country nationals; therefore, highly culturally intelligent expatriates are more effective in creating and maintaining those relationships (Shaffer & Miller, 2015). This model has substantial implications for international school leaders who rely heavily on strong relationships to develop and maintain positive school culture—a significant factor in principal

retention and job satisfaction (Bauer & Silver, 2018; Licki & van der Walt, 2021; Liu & Bellibas, 2018).

Konanahalli et al. (2014) explored the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence in 23 British companies with expatriated workers in Sub-Saharan Africa, the Middle East, China, and India. The study included 191 respondents who had worked in overseas locations. They determined there was a strong correlation between CQ and cross-cultural adjustment. Specifically, they found that cognitive CQ decreases miscommunication, and motivational CQ developed expatriate self-efficacy in coping in unfamiliar environments. The results support that high levels of CQ positively enhance an individual's ability to adjust to an international assignment (Konanahalli et al., 2014).

Conclusion

The research indicates that there is a problem with principal retention both in the United States and in international schools (Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Levin & Bradley, 2022). Internationally, principals leave their positions within three to five years (Balyer, 2017; Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Benson, 2011). In the United States, the average length of tenure is four years, with 35 percent of principals staying at their schools for fewer than two years (Levin & Bradley, 2022). Reasons for this departure include principal isolation, the scope of the responsibilities, accountability, and recognition (Benson, 2011; Dos Santos, 2020; Levin & Bradley, 2022; Thelin, 2020; F. Wang et al., 2018). There is a clear connection between educational leadership and principal job satisfaction (Bauer & Silver, 2018; Darmody & Smyth, 2016; Suleman & Hussain, 2018). What is unclear is how principals build educational leadership efficacy when working with diverse instructional staff and students.

Cultural intelligence has been a promising body of research in determining expatriate leadership success (Adams & Velarde, 2021; Crowne, 2009; Keung, 2011; Salgado & Bastida, 2017; Solomon & Steyn, 2017b). Cultural intelligence research in the area of international leaders indicates that they have better cross-cultural adjustment and less loneliness and that they build better relationships with staff members (Aldhaheri, 2017; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Licki & van der Walt, 2021; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Smith, 2021). However, there is insufficient research to determine whether cultural intelligence may play a role in principal job satisfaction and retention in the international school setting.

Smith (2021) discusses the role of cultural intelligence in international school leadership; the study concluded that cultural intelligence is a skill worthy of development for success in international school principalship. Martinez (2019) analyzed how cultural intelligence impacted employee job satisfaction and retention in non-farm-related industries. However, neither addresses how cultural intelligence affects international principal retention.

Konanahalli et al.'s (2014) research pointed out that cross-cultural training involving knowledge of the host country's culture and systems is recommended for expatriate success in industrial experience because of the strong correlation between CQ and CCA. Also, Solomon and Steyn (2017a) positively correlate CQ with CCA, finding that it improves job performance, job satisfaction, team performance, and the development of trust. Konanahalli et al. (2014) suggests that teaching metacognitive CQ strategies can help expatriates develop rules for social interactions, especially governmental systems that may seem unethical for expatriates, which enhances their ability to adjust to the host country's systems. They also encourage the development of verbal and nonverbal communication skills (Konanahalli et al., 2014). However,

Konanahalli et al. (2014) do not consider the leadership roles of the industrial employees studied and focus solely on those who worked in industries such as building and not in education.

Chapter III: Design and Methodology

Introduction

The field of school administration faces a retention problem in the United States and many other countries (Levin & Bradley, 2022; Liu & Bellibas, 2018). Annual turnover rates for school principals in the United States are between 15 to 30% (Sannon-Brown, 2021). International schools are particularly poised for problematic turnover due to most principals remaining in their positions for only a short time (Smith, 2021). International schools are marked by leadership transience; the average leader turns over after 3.7 years (Bailey & Gibson, 2019; Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015), and in the United States, it is about four years (Levin & Bradley, 2022). This turnover of principals impacts student achievement and school performance (Gordon & Hart, 2022; Marzano et al., 2005; Miller, 2013). Keeping school administrators in their roles improves learning and continuity (Dufour & Marzano, 2011).

Current research on the attrition of international workers focuses on the impacts of cultural intelligence. Cultural intelligence is the ability to be effective in various cultural contexts (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). The four dimensions—cultural intelligence, cognitive, metacognitive, behavioral, and motivational—each increase one's ability to live independently and successfully in culturally diverse settings (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015; Setti et al., 2022). Cultural intelligence has been shown to relate positively to CCA and improve job performance and satisfaction (Konanahalli et al., 2014; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a). Studies have linked cultural intelligence to employee retention and job satisfaction (Martinez, 2019; Shaffer & Miller, 2015). Cultural intelligence has been demonstrated to have a positive impact on employee retention and satisfaction (Konanahalli et al., 2014; Martinez, 2019; Shaffer & Miller, 2015; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a)

However, little research has highlighted the role cultural intelligence may play in retaining international school leaders. Cultural intelligence can enhance school leaders' effectiveness in ethnically diverse schools (Aldhaheri, 2017). Also, there has been a positive correlation noted between developed cultural intelligence and successful leadership (Adams & Velarde, 2021; Aldhaheri, 2017; Ashley, 2020; Cobanoglu & Yurek, 2018; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013). However, the relationship between cultural intelligence and international school principal job satisfaction and retention has not been explicitly addressed.

This quantitative study investigated the impact that cultural intelligence has on international school principals' job satisfaction, cross-cultural adjustment, and K-12 international school leadership longevity. With the cooperation of the Council of International Schools, a worldwide accrediting body, and the international school principals' Facebook group, 30 international school principals from Western Europe, Eastern Europe, Asia, the Middle East, Africa, and South America completed an electronic survey that measured their cultural intelligence, cultural adaptation, and job satisfaction. The survey also included demographic information, which provided detailed information about the length of service for participants. The following research questions and hypotheses guided this study:

RQ 1. Is there a significant relationship between cultural intelligence and an international school principal's job satisfaction?

H1: There is no significant relationship between cultural intelligence and job satisfaction for principals in international schools.

RQ 2. Is there a significant relationship between an international school principal's cultural intelligence and their ability to successfully adjust cross-culturally?

H2: There is no significant relationship between cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment for principals in international schools.

RQ 3. Is there a significant relationship between cultural intelligence and an international school principal's longevity in an international school leadership position?

H3: There is no relationship between cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment for principals in international schools.

Research Design

This correlational-predictive quantitative study analyzed data from two variables, CQ and CCA, to determine the relationship to the longevity of international school principals' tenure and job satisfaction. A correlation is a test for tendency, investigating whether two variables covary (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). A correlational design was used to investigate the relationships between two or more variables (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Correlational designs may demonstrate positive, negative, or no relationship among variables (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). The study has limited control, and variables are observed and not manipulated (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Participants were recruited through social media on LinkedIn and Facebook, as well as through snowball sampling by international school leaders.

The researcher used the prediction design to determine whether CQ and CCA could predict the longevity of international school principals. Predictive research aims to identify variables that predict an outcome (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). The predictor variables, CQ and CCA, are used to forecast the longevity of an international school principal's tenure. As a

predictive study, this research can potentially influence the hiring, onboarding, and retention practices of school principals in international education.

The researcher used an electronic survey tool administered by Qualtrics to collect data from participants about each participant's level of CQ and CCA and relevant demographic data. Survey research is a method in which the researcher poses a predetermined set of questions to a group (Blackstone, 2012). Surveys tend to be a reliable way of collecting data because they are standardized, and the questions are phrased similarly (Blackstone, 2012). The survey used a 7-point Likert scale, a rating scale with equal intervals (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). The demographic information contained binary (yes/no) questions, nominal questions for categorical values, and an interval scale to measure specific values. The collection of CQ, CCA, and demographic data was then analyzed for correlation and predictive forecasting.

Using a quantitative survey that combined measurements of CQ and CCA, the researcher sought to determine the predictive nature of CQ and CCA on international principal longevity. The survey included three components. First, demographic information was collected about the participants, including their location, experience, gender, ethnicity, and school level. Second, the Cultural Intelligence Scale collected participant's self-perceived CQ data (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). The third portion of the survey collected data on participants' psychological and orientation facets of CCA (Demes & Geeraert, 2014). Using the survey data, the researcher completed correlational statistical assessments and parametric tests to determine the relationships between CQ and CCA and their predictive qualities for principal longevity groups. Also, by completing a factor analysis, the researcher narrowed the independent dimensions of CQ and CCA into fewer distinct factors that influenced the co-variation of CQ and CCA to determine retention factors (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019).

Participants and Setting

The population of this study are international school leaders working in administrative positions away from their home country. Participants were recruited using nonprobability sampling on social media sites, Facebook and LinkedIn and through snowball sampling. There was no incentive offered except a copy of the final report of findings. The 30 school principals selected for this study needed to meet three criteria:

(1) currently working in a leadership position regardless of their certification;

(2) served at least three years at an English-language international school;

(3) currently working at a school outside of their home country.

Using a combination of nonprobability and snowball sampling allowed for greater convenience but also assured that subjects were members of the target population (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). It was the most flexible way for full-time school leaders to participate in the study.

Instrumentation

Cultural Intelligence Scale

The first part of the survey contained the *Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) Self-Report* (Ang et al., 2007). The questions address four facets of cultural intelligence using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Four questions measured metacognitive cultural intelligence and included, questions such as "I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture unfamiliar to me." Six questions measured cognitive cultural intelligence, including, "I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures." Five questions measured motivational cultural intelligence and contained questions like, "I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures." Five questions measured behavioral cultural intelligence with questions like, "I change my nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation

requires it" (*Cultural Intelligence Center,* 2005). When tested in an Italian validation study, the CQS was determined to be valid with a test-retest correlation between .80 and .84 (Gozzoli & Gazzaroli, 2018). Permission for using the CQS was granted to academic researchers for research purposes only (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015).

Cross Cultural Adjustment Survey

The second part of the survey contained 18 questions from the *Psychological and Acculturation Orientation Facets* (Demes & Geeraert, 2014) to measure cultural adaptation. The survey measured two facets of CCA, psychological adaptation using the Brief Psychological Adaptation Scale (BPAS) and sociocultural adaptation using the Brief Acculturation Scale (BAS) (Demes & Geeraert, 2014). This scale's reliability was tested with international college students and migrant staff members. Both scales showed good reliability with some international teachers and students. The Brief Psychological Adaptation (BPAS) scale had α=.72 with international college students and α=.73 with migrant staff at the University of Essex. Cronbach's alpha requires validity to be close to 1.0 $\alpha = .6$ and is considered statistically reliable (Tanner, 2012). The 10-question BPAS scale was measured on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = never and 7 = always and included questions exploring both positive and negative feelings about being in their host country (Demes & Geeraert, 2014). Study participants answered questions such as, "In the last two weeks, how often have you felt excited about being in [host country]?" and "In the past two weeks, how often have you felt out of place like you don't fit into [host country] culture?" The Brief Acculturation Orientation (BAS) scale had α=.85 with students and α=.84 with migrant staff members at the University of Essex (Demes & Geeraert, 2014). The 8-question BAS was measured on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 = very difficult to 7 = very easy. This scale included questions such as "Have [home country] friends"

and “Have [host country] friends” (Demes & Geeraert, 2014). Permission to use the BAS and BPAS is granted under creative commons by agreement.

Data Collection

Because this study combined two validated instruments, additional validity measures were taken. A panel of five experienced international educational leaders rated the of the survey questions. To establish content validity, five-person expert panels must consider items over .83 CV to be considered above the .05 level of significance (Lynn, 1986; Yusoff, 2019); $p > .05$ is commonly considered significant in educational and social science fields (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). The panel provided feedback on the 48-question survey, which included the 20-question Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS), 17 questions measuring psychological and social-cultural orientation, 2 questions measuring leader job satisfaction, and nine demographic questions, including years of experience, school level, gender, and ethnicity. The results indicated that 47 of the 48 questions scored a .85 CV/I or higher. Thirty-five items scored 1.00 in UA and only one item was rejected at a .81 CV/I. The 47-question survey used in the study is presented in appendix B. The 47-question survey was then piloted by 21 international school leaders working in the Middle East.

Analytical Methods

The researcher used SPSS to first conduct a Principal Component Analysis component analysis (PCA). PCA is used to represent multivariate data into smaller subsets of variables. The PCA process determines which items in the survey are most closely correlated and then groups them together (Urdan, 2016; Watkins, 2021). The analysis allowed for extracting factors meaningful to the study. Correlations exceeding .30 were considered statistically significant factors to include as influential (Beavers et al., 2013). A correlation of .30 indicates a moderate

correlation between variables (Tanner, 2012; Watkins, 2021). Using component analysis, the researcher reduced the dimensions of CQ and CCA to determine the most impactful dimensions correlated to international principal longevity. Component analysis allows the accurate reporting of fewer components, reduces the data, and summarizes many variables (Beavers et al., 2013). Using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to extract the most representative number of components (Beavers et al., 2013; Watkins, 2021) allowed for the determination of which cultural intelligence and cultural adjustment dimensions most impacted the longevity of an international principal's tenure.

Second, using a multivariate correlation, the study examined the correlation between overall CQ and overall CCA. Pearson's *r* determined the relationship between the four cultural intelligence dimensions and two dimensions of cultural adaptation. An α of .05, which is commonly used in educational research to demonstrate significant correlation, determining the significance of the data (Tanner, 2012).

Limitations

This study is limited in scope. Looking only at international school principals does not imply that cultural intelligence is a factor in monocultural or diverse societies. Further studies on specific countries and educational systems may add to the conversation about the relationship between cultural intelligence and principal job satisfaction.

A common limitation of factor analysis is its subjectivity, sample size, and sample representation. Subjectivity occurs based on methodological decisions from the researcher (Beavers et al., 2013). To control decision-making, the researcher implemented oblique factor rotation as the most appropriate for social science research when the factors are related (Beavers et al., 2013). Oblique factor rotation allows factors to be easily correlated in large data sets

(Beavers et al., 2013). Additionally, the inadequate sample size in quantitative research can hamper the factor analytic process and produce non-valid results (Beavers et al., 2013). The sample may not represent diverse races or genders. To address the sample size issue, the researcher included a diverse representation and strengthened the correlational outcomes to be discussed in the study, relying on the most significant PCA components as the most impactful.

The correlational design also limits the depth of the study and its meaning. Because this quantitative study is correlational, it does not determine causation. The study reveals relationships, but it does not advance any answer to why the variables are related fields (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). It does not provide a conclusive reason for the relationship. There may also be extraneous variables at play. For example, family plays an essential role in international principals' decisions to renew their contracts, and this study does not explore that factor.

Chapter IV: Results

There is a need for reliable principal leadership in schools. School principals establish the culture of a school and ensure effectiveness through hiring practices, establishing a safe learning environment, mentoring teachers, monitoring instruction, and implementing school leadership policies and procedures (Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Fullan, 2011; Marzano et al., 2005; Miller, 2013). Consistency in school leadership impacts math and reading achievement and enhances a school's growth process (Bartanen et al., 2019; Buck, 2019; Liu & Bellibas, 2018). However, principals are leaving their schools and careers (Balyer, 2017; Bartanen et al., 2019; Dos Santos, 2020; Sannon-Brown, 2021). The need for consistent school leadership is especially applicable in international schools because of consistent turnover. International school leaders average less than five years in a single school and as much as 30% turnover annually (Balyer, 2017; Barbaro & Rock Kane, 2015; Hayden & Thompson, 2008)

International school leaders are uniquely positioned because they work with very diverse parents, students, and staff members (Keung, 2011). Most international school principals are from English-dominant countries and serve in non-English-speaking countries (Hayden & Thompson, 2008; Smith, 2021). Therefore, intercultural competency is vital for keeping international school principals in the role of school leader (Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013). Cultural intelligence (CQ) has been researched and recognized as a multidimensional intelligence framework that enhances the success of expatriated workers, including their cross-cultural adjustment (CCA) (Aldhaheri, 2017; Bruning et al., 2012; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a; Vann et al., 2017). Additionally, research recognizes that cultural intelligence has played a role in the success of international school principals (Keung &

Rockinson-Szapkiw; Smith, 2021). However, there was limited research on the impact cultural intelligence might have on increasing the longevity of school leaders.

This quantitative study used a correlational-predictive design. Correlational design determines the association between variables, while prediction design research determines variables that predict an outcome (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Using a quantitative survey, the researcher collected demographic data, CQ scores, CCA scores, and job satisfaction ratings. This data was analyzed to determine the relationship between CQ and CCA and their relationship to job satisfaction and principal longevity.

Chapter IV aims to provide the results from the quantitative survey data that may impact the longevity of international school leaders. School leaders were separated into two groups: those who served 1-3 years and those who served more than four years, indicating that they had renewed their contract at least once. The results will be reviewed question by question to determine the study's outcomes. Additional context about the study's methodology and design is also included in this chapter.

Data Collection Instrument

The researcher created a survey instrument to measure CQ, CCA, and job satisfaction among international school principals. Combining the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) Self-Report (Ang et al., 2007), the Brief Acculturation Scale (BAS), and the Brief Psychological Adaptation Scale (BPAS) (Demes & Geeraert, 2014) to measure both CQ and CCA respectively, the survey contained 48 questions. The first nine questions collected demographic data such as gender, ethnicity, leadership role, and experience level, while the remaining 39 questions collected Likert-scale quantitative data about participants' cultural intelligence, cross-cultural adjustment, and job satisfaction. The questions used a 7-point Likert scale classification with

varying descriptors. CQ was assessed using 1- strongly disagree, 2 - disagree, 3 - somewhat disagree, 4 - neither agree nor disagree, 5 - somewhat agree, 6 - agree, and 7 - strongly agree. Acculturation was assessed with seven questions from the BAS on a 7-point Likert scale with classifications of 1 - extremely difficult, 2 - moderately difficult, 3 - slightly difficult, 4 - neither easy nor difficult, 5 - slightly easy, 6 - moderately easy, 7 - extremely easy. Psychological adaptation was assessed with ten questions from the BPAS using a 7-point Likert scale with classifications 1 - always, 2 - usually, 3 - frequently, 4 - sometimes, 5 - infrequently, 6 - rarely, and 7 -never. On the BPAS, questions 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, and 18 were reverse-coded as directed by Demes and Geeraert (2014) because the questions measured negative feelings.

Survey Validity and Reliability

All research relies on the validity and reliability of data to be considered (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Muijs, 2022). Reliability is necessary to reduce the extent of errors in collected data (Muijs, 2022). For this study, a five-person panel of international school leaders previewed questions and provided feedback to assure content validity about the combined instrument and relevance of the questions (see Appendix B; Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Muijs, 2022).

Experts were provided with a copy of the survey questions through Qualtrics and were asked to provide a rating of 4 through 1 on the relevance of the question for the survey. A rating of 4 meant that the question was relevant and needed no modification; a rating of 1 meant that it was irrelevant even with modification. Content validity (CVI) was calculated for each item on the survey instrument. Questions scoring above .85 CVI were retained for the study (Yusoff, 2019). The expert panel eliminated only one question from the BAS, “36. Develop my [host country] characteristics” (see Appendix B) All other questions were retained for the study.

Survey Pilot

Piloting provides the researcher with important information about instrumentation and data collection (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Using demographics like the target study population, the researcher can determine if the study is suitable (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). The participants in this study pilot were all leaders at international schools in Kuwait. Table 2 represents the demographic information of the pilot participants.

Table 2

Survey Pilot Participant Demographics

Participants			Longevity		
Role	Age	Gender	1-3 years	4-10 years	11-15 years
Principal/Head of School	25 - 35	Male	1	0	0
		Female	0	0	0
	36 - 45	Male	1	0	0
	46 - 60	Male	0	0	0
		Female	1	0	1
Assistant Principal	25 - 35	Male	0	0	0
		Female	1	0	0
	36 - 45	Male	2	0	0
		Female	0	1	0
	46 - 60	Male	0	0	0
		Female	1	1	0
School Director	25 - 35	Male	0	0	0
		Female	0	0	0
	36 - 45	Male	0	1	0
		Female	0	0	0
Other	25 - 35	Male	0	0	0
		Female	1	0	0
Total			8	3	1

Note: The names of the participants have been omitted to protect their anonymity.

The researcher administered the pilot online using *Qualtrics*. Participants served as school leaders in Kuwait and provided feedback on how long it took to complete the survey

instrument. This information was used to instruct study participants (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019).

Cronbach's of Pilot

The internal consistency of the pilot instrument was assessed for internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha is widely recognized to determine the consistency of all variables measuring the same thing (Muijs, 2022). The *Cultural Intelligence Scale Self-Report* (CQS) had a Cronbach alpha level of .754, a good level for proceeding with the study (see Appendix C). However, removing question 16. "I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it" (*Cultural Intelligence Center*, 2005) raised $a = .802$, bringing the scale to a "very good" *a* level (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Sabrina et al., 2019). *The Brief Acculturation Scale* (BAS) had good internal consistency, $a = .814$. There were no changes to this scale as a result of the pilot. *The Brief Psychological Adaptation Scale* (BPAS) had a poor internal consistency score, $a = .690$. However, removing question number 31, "A sense of freedom being away from [home country] (Demes & Geeraert, 2014), raises $a = .797$, a more acceptable level (see Appendix C).

Participant Profile

In the fall of 2023, thirty school leaders responded to the survey posted to International Principal social media forums, Linked In and Facebook. As noted in Table 3, the participants represented Western Europe, Eastern Europe, the Middle East, Africa, and South America. Respondents were 63% male and 37% female.

Table 3
Participant Countries and Genders

		Region							
Role	Gender	Western Europe	Eastern Europe	Asia	Middle East	Africa	South America	Other	Total
Principal	Male	0	0	0	2	2	1	0	5
	Female	1	0	0	3	3	1	3	11
Asst Principal	Male	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Female	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	4
Director	Male	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
Other	Male	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
	Female	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	4
Total		4	1	4	7	8	3	3	30

Note: Participants from study survey included.

As shown in Table 4, additional demographics of participants included their age and their time in international schools. Most participants were between 46-60 years old (70%). Only one participant was between 25 and 35; six were between 36 and 45, and two were over 60. Sixteen participants were in their current position between 1-3 years; however, 33% (20) spent 4-10 years in their most extended international leadership position. Based on research conducted, 20 participants have served longer in an international post than the average international school leader. As only one leader served over 11 years, this user's data was included in assessing the components but not in assessing longevity impacts.

Table 4
Participant Ages and Experience Levels

	Age				Current Post			Longest Post		
Leadership Role	25 - 35	36 - 45	46 - 60	over 60	1-3 years	4-10 years	11-15 years	1-3 years	4-10 years	11-15 years
Principal/Head of School	0	2	13	1	10	4	2	4	11	1
Assistant Principal	1	2	3	0	2	4	0	3	3	0
School Director	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	2	0
Other	0	2	4	0	3	3	0	2	4	0
Total	1	6	21	2	16	12	2	9	20	1

Cronbach's Final Survey

Scales on the survey instrument were assessed separately for internal consistency. *The Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) Self-Report* had a high level of internal consistency, as determined by Cronbach's alpha of .876. *The Brief Acculturation Orientation Scale* (BAS) had good internal consistency, $a = .827$. *The Brief Psychological Adaptation Scale* (BPAS) had a poor internal consistency score, $a = .678$. Therefore, question number 41, "Nervous about how to behave in certain situations" (Demes & Geeraert, 2014), was removed to reach an acceptable Cronbach's alpha of .710 (Arof et al., 2018; Konting et al., 2009).

Normality of Data

The normality of data is an essential aspect of generalizing data (Field, 2018). The normality of participant data was assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p>.05$). As the data in Table 5 demonstrates, those participants with less experience, between 1-3 years, were not normally distributed in Cognitive CQ, and Behavioral CQ for those with more experience (4-10 years) were not normally distributed.

Table 5

CQ Factors: Normality Results

Longevity		Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
1-3 years	MC_TOT	0.907	9	0.298
	COG_TOT	**0.824**	**9**	**0.038**
	MOT_TOT	0.833	9	0.048
	BEH_TOT	0.919	9	0.380
4-10 years	MC_TOT	0.911	20	0.067
	COG_TOT	0.963	20	0.610
	MOT_TOT	0.948	20	0.336
	BEH_TOT	**0.879**	**20**	**0.017**

Note: Bolded numbers indicate data that is not normally distributed

However, when assessing total CQ using Shapiro-Wilks test ($p > .05$) the normality of the data did not violate normality (see Table 6). Therefore, in the analysis of results, CQ was treated as a single variable.

Table 6

Total CQ: Normality Results

		Shapiro-Wilk		
	Longevity	Statistic	df	**Sig.**
Total_CQ	1-3 years	0.968	9	**0.877**
	4-10 years	0.974	20	**0.838**

Note: Bolded numbers indicate normality results ($p > .05$).

Using Shapiro-test ($p > .05$), all cross-cultural adjustment factors and total cross-cultural adjustment (CCA) data, shown in Table 7, met the normality assumption.

Table 7

CCA: Normality Results

		Shapiro-Wilk		
	Longevity	Statistic	df	**Sig.**
CCA_TOT	1-3 years	0.873	9	**0.132**
	4-10 years	0.905	20	**0.051**
AO_TOT	1-3 years	0.958	9	**0.778**
	4-10 years	0.918	20	**0.091**

	Longevity	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	**Sig.**
PA_TOT	1-3 years	0.969	9	**0.885**
	4-10 years	0.961	20	**0.562**

Note: Bolded numbers indicate normality results ($p > .05$).

Principal Component Analysis

Because there are many facets to CQ and CCA, the researcher used principal component analysis to reduce the data to a more manageable size while retaining as much information as possible. It is important to note that while few studies have addressed using PCA in studies that have a relatively small sample size, those that have used small sample sizes have concluded that under conditions of high communality and a small number of factors, factor analysis (including PCA) can provide reliable data (De Winter et al., 2009; Jung & Lee, 2011; MacCallum et al., 1999; Watkins, 2021). By analyzing factor loading through PCA, the researcher was able to communicate how much a variable may contribute to a factor. PCA is a valuable tool to generate future hypotheses, and using PCA promotes future research to apply this process to entire populations because PCA establishes which linear components exist in the data (Field, 2018; Watkins, 2021). The researcher extracted components with the highest eigenvalues during this process, explaining the most significant variance percentage (Field, 2018). PCA was conducted first on CQ and then on CCA before correlating the two variables to principal longevity and job satisfaction.

Principal Component Analysis of CQ

Table 8

CQ Principal Component Analysis: Eigenvalues, Percentages, & Total Variance

	Initial Eigenvalues		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.960	34.798	34.798
2	2.579	12.893	47.691
3	2.076	10.378	58.069
4	1.550	7.748	65.817
5	1.144	5.720	71.537
6	1.063	5.316	76.853
7	1.016	5.080	81.933
8	0.668	3.338	85.271
9	0.594	2.970	88.241
10	0.526	2.630	90.871
11	0.357	1.785	92.656
12	0.343	1.716	94.372
13	0.317	1.586	95.958
14	0.202	1.011	96.968
16	0.138	0.689	98.592
17	0.121	0.603	99.195
18	0.106	0.530	99.725
19	0.033	0.167	99.893
20	0.021	0.107	100.000

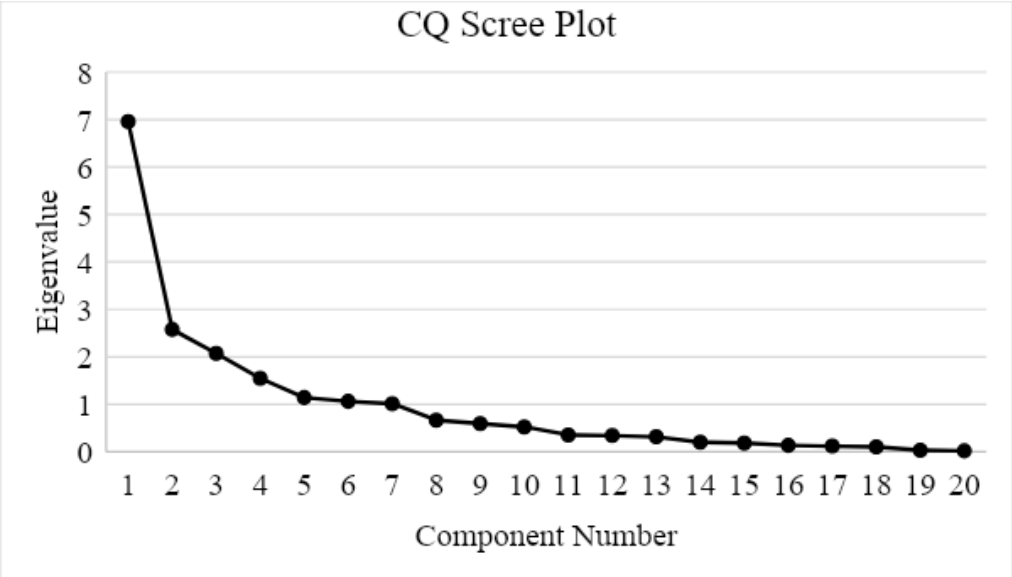
Note: The extraction method used was Principal Component Analysis using Direct Oblimin Rotation

Kaiser's criterion recommends retaining factors more significant than 1.0 and is accurate when the number of variables is less than 30 (Field, 2018). As indicated by the data in Table 8, there were seven total factors with an eigenvalue over one for the 20 question CQS, but component one explained the most significant percentage of the variance, 34.79%, with an eigenvalue of 6.960. Stevens (2002) recommends interpreting factor loadings that explain around 16% of the variance with an eigenvalue of .4. Figure 2 shows the Scree Plot demonstration of the eigenvalue drop off and prioritization of component 1. Due to the weight of the eigenvalue and

reported correlations, the researcher focused analysis of the PCA to this singular extracted component.

Figure 2

CQ Scree Plot of Extracted PCA Components



A Direct Oblimin rotation was used to produce loading for extracted components. The retained component had several significant factors, loading greater than .6. With all commonalities about .6, small sample sizes do not detract from their importance (Field, 2018). Communalities with .6 to .7 are considered high; those between .2 and .8 are considered wide. The components in factor one is wide, ranging from .862 to .319 (Jung & Lee, 2011). As indicated in the data in Table 9 the first four factors in component one fall nicely above .6; therefore, all factors in component one were retained.

Table 9

CQ Principal Component Analysis: Matrix of Extracted Components

	Component						
Survey Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q 28	**0.862**						
Q 26	**0.820**						
Q 29	**0.789**						0.389
Q 27	**0.714**				0.399		
Q 14		**0.874**					
Q 15		**0.788**				-0.318	
Q 16		**0.648**					0.381
Q 23			**0.891**				
Q 13			**0.775**				
Q 20	0.307		**0.701**				
Q 22			**0.597**				-0.306
Q 21	0.319		0.582		-0.474		
Q 11				**-0.865**			
Q 10				**-0.848**			
Q 12		0.451		-0.536	-0.436		
Q 18				-0.350	**0.610**		
Q 24						**0.912**	
Q 17							**0.921**

Note: Survey item number is based on Qualtrics combined survey; refer to Appendix B for reference. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis – Rotation Method, Direct Oblimin. Bold for indicates the significance of .60 or greater.

It is best practice to use item sum scores to determine the new variable for analyzing cases (Field, 2018). Therefore, questions within component one were combined to create the CQ analysis score for participants moving forward in answering the research questions.

Principal Component Analysis of CCA

The process for determining the principal components of cross-cultural adjustment (CCA) was identical to the above-mentioned process for cultural intelligence. The researcher completed a PCA analysis of acculturation factors. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value, .579, was close to the .60 standard to fall in the mediocre range for using a PCA (Field, 2018). As the

data in Table 10 indicates, while two components met the Kaiser criterion, being over 1.0, the PCA revealed that one component made up 50% of the variance with a 3.511 eigenvalue.

Table 10

Acculturation (BAS) Principal Component Analysis

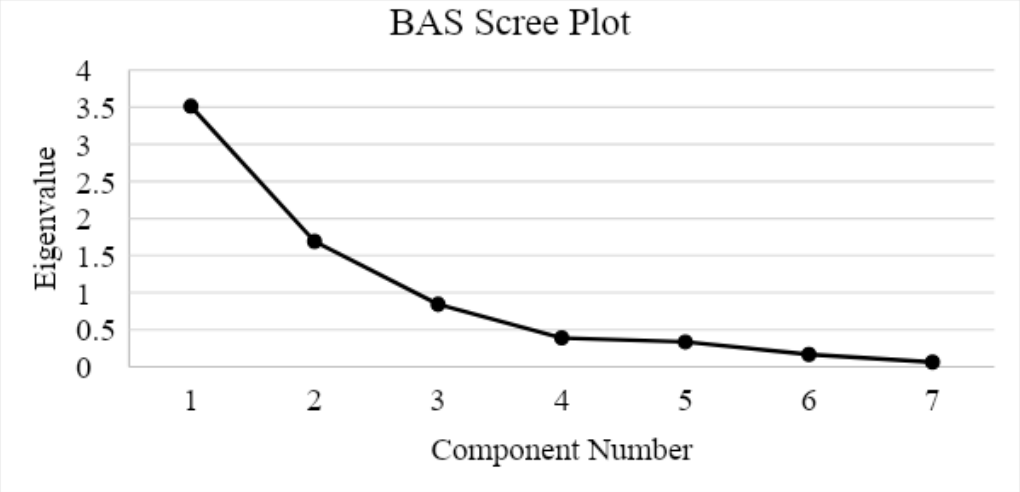
	Initial Eigenvalues		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	**3.511**	**50.157**	**50.157**
2	**1.690**	**24.148**	**74.305**
3	0.842	12.034	86.339
4	0.390	5.569	91.907
5	0.336	4.797	96.704
6	0.167	2.387	99.091
7	0.064	0.909	100.000

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Bolded numbers indicate components that meet the Kaiser criterion.

Examination of the scree plot (Figure 3) shows a marked drop-off between component one and component two; therefore, only component one was used in the later analysis of the acculturation factor for cross-cultural adjustment.

Figure 3

BAS Scree Plot for Extracted Components



The oblimin factor rotation results shown in Table 11 revealed factors that had a significant loading for the small sample size of this study, above .6 (Field, 2018).

Table 11

BAS Acculturation Factors Component Analysis: Matrix of Extracted Components

	Component	
	1	2
Q 30	**0.906**	
Q 32	**0.889**	
Q 33	**0.858**	
Q 31	**0.699**	
Q 35		**0.905**
Q 36		**0.860**
Q 34		**0.849**

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Direct Oblimin rotation. Bolded numbers indicate components that meet factor loading minimums.

Despite 25 rotational iterations, PCA could not reduce the number of psychological factors for cross-cultural adjustment. Therefore, the researcher used the sum of all ten items to determine the correlational data to answer the research questions.

Results for Research Question 1

RQ 1. Is there a significant relationship between cultural intelligence and an international school principal's job satisfaction?

Table 12 provides the scale scores from the PCA analysis component one questions. There was strong agreement among participants on these questions, which reflects an overall high self-perception of international school leaders and cultural intelligence. Regardless of their experience, international school leaders perceive their cultural intelligence as high, scores ranged from 51.7% to 79.3% agreement, indicating that over half of the participants agree or strongly

agree that they perceive their own cultural intelligence competency favorably. The lowest agreement and greatest dissonance between more veteran administrators and those with less experience can be seen in questions 29 and 26. While more novice administrators report using silence in different cultural situations, the more experienced administrators report altering their facial expressions more. Overall, the agreement, regardless of longevity, falls above 60% in most cases.

Table 12

Participant CQS Agreement Percentages on Retained Questions from PCA

Survey Question (CQS)	Longevity	Agreement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree
28. I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	1-3 Yrs	**77.8**	22.2	55.6	11.1	11.1	
	4-10 Yrs	**80**	10	70	15	5	
26. I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.	1-3 Yrs	**77.8**	11.1	66.7		11.1	11.1
	4-10 Yrs	**55**	10	45	35	5	5
27. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.	1-3 Yrs	**77.7**	33.3	44.4	22.2		
	4-10 Yrs	**75**	20	55	20	5	
21. I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	1-3 Yrs	**77.8**	22.2	55.6	22.2		
	4-10 Yrs	**75**	25	50	25		
20. I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	1-3 Yrs	**100**	62	38			
	4-10 Yrs	**91**	55	36	9		

Note: Bolded and highlighted scores indicate the total percentage of agreement, strongly agree and agree.

Over 60% of participants, regardless of their longevity, reported high job satisfaction.

Based on the results of data summarized in Table 13, there is a high percentage of participants who have worked longer internationally; 80% strongly agree or agree that they are satisfied with working conditions, and 60% are satisfied with their work-life balance. The mean score for school leaders with between 4-10 years of longevity was firmly in the agree scoring range. School leaders with 1-3 years of longevity also reported strong satisfaction with their work-life balance (66.7%), but less satisfaction with working conditions (33.3%).

Table 13

Participant Job Satisfaction Rating

Job Satisfaction	Longevity	Agreement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
47. How satisfied are you with your working conditions?	1-3 Yrs	**33.3**	0	33.3	11.1	22.2	11.1	22.2	0
	4-10 Yrs	**80**	15	65	0	15	5		0
48. How satisfied are you with your work-life balance?	1-3 Yrs	**66.7**	0	66.7	22.2	0	0	11.1	0
	4-10 Yrs	**60**	10	50	2	0	15	10	5

Note: Bolded numbers indicate the total percent of strongly agree and agree.

Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 14) of the relationship between job satisfaction and cultural intelligence revealed that CQ has a stronger correlation for international school leaders who have more longevity in their roles. For school leaders within their first three years of longevity, there was no significant correlation between participants' cultural intelligence and job satisfaction, $r = .4$; however, there was a slight positive correlation for those school leaders who have served between 4-10 years, $r = .16$. CQ scores statistically explained 3% of the variability in job satisfaction for those leaders who had more experience in their role. Therefore we can

partially reject the null hypothesis H2, there is no significant relationship between cultural intelligence and job satisfaction for principals in international schools.

Table 14

Job Satisfaction and Cultural Intelligence Correlations

Longevity			Job Satisfaction
	CQ	Pearson Correlation	0.044
1- 3 years		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.910
		N	9
4-10 years	CQ	Pearson Correlation	**0.163**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.493
		N	20

Note: Bolded numbers indicate significant correlations.

Results for Research Question 2

RQ 2. Is there a significant relationship between an international school principal's cultural intelligence and their ability to successfully adjust cross-culturally?

The data summarized in Table 12 indicated that participants, regardless of longevity, rated their cultural intelligence highly. Most participants (55% - 80%) evaluated their proficiency in the high range (agree or strongly agree) in most areas of cultural intelligence. The only significant area with a low agreement score was for leaders with 1-3 years of longevity and their habit of altering facial expectations (22.2% agree or strongly agree). The self-perception of their own cultural intelligence for participants was overall very strong.

Based on the data summarized in Table 15, most participants found it easy to adjust across cultures. The biggest discrepancy based on longevity was contained in question 32. Only 44.4% of participants with less than four years of longevity found it easy to hold on to their

home country characteristics. Seventy percent of participants with 4-10 years found it slightly to extremely easy to maintain their home characteristics. Participants with less longevity also found it more difficult to participate in home country traditions; there was a 14.5% gap between participants with 1-3 years of experience and those with 4-10 years of experience. The most significant acculturation struggle for participants with 4-10 years of experience was "doing things the way my [home country] people do." Therefore, we can partially reject the null hypothesis H2, there is no significant relationship between cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment for principals in international schools.

Table 15

Participant Scale Data on PCA Component One for Brief Acculturation Scale (BAS)

CCA Acculturation Factors	Longevity	Agreement	Ext. Easy	Mod. Easy	Slightly Easy	Neither Easy nor Difficult	Slightly Difficult	Mod. Difficult
30. Have [home country] friends	1-3 Yrs	**77.7**	33.3	33.3	11.1	22.2		
	4-10 Yrs	**65**	25	30	10	20	15	
32. Hold on to my [home country] characteristics.	1-3 Yrs	**44.4**	11.1	11.1	22.2	22.2	33.3	
	4-10 Yrs	**75**	5	45	25	15	10	
33. Do things the way my [home country] people do	1-3 Yrs	**77.7**	11.1	44.4	22.2	11.1	11.1	
	4-10 Yrs	**55**		45	10	20	20	5
31. Take part in [home country] traditions	1-3 Yrs	**55.5**		44.4	11.1	11.1	22.2	11.1
	4-10 Yrs	**70**	20	35	15	15	5	

Note: Bolded numbers indicate the total easiness of the CCA Acculturation factor

All ten questions were retained in the BPAS. Principal Component Analysis could not reduce the factors to specific components of psychological adaptation. The data summarized in Table 16 shows that although international school leaders are overwhelmingly happy with their day-to-day life in their host country (77.8% of those in years 1-3 are usually happy, and 75% of those in years 4-10 are always or usually happy), participants in their first three years appear to

have more psychological discomfort. Participants in their first three years had the most varied scoring rates. However, they are more likely to be frustrated by the difficulties of adapting to their host country, with 88.9% rating that they are only sometimes frustrated. They are more likely to be sad about being away from home (55.6%) and sometimes lonely (55.6%); however, they are also more likely to be curious (66.7%) about their host country.

Table 16

Participant Scale Data: Brief Psychological Adaptation Scale (BPAS)

CCA Psychological Factors	Longevity	Always	Usually	Frequently	Sometimes	Infrequently	Rarely
37. Excited about being in [host country]	1-3 Yrs	22.2	33.3	22.2	11.1		11.1
	4-10 Yrs	25	40	35			
38. Out of place, like you don't fit into [host country] culture	1-3 Yrs		11.1	11.1	44.4	33.3	
	4-10 Yrs	20	10	60	5	5	
40. Sad to be away from [home country]	1-3 Yrs		**55.6**	11.1	33.3		
	4-10 Yrs	5	10	45	25	10	5
41. Nervous about how to behave in certain situations	1-3 Yrs		11.1	11.1	**66.7**	11.1	
	4-10 Yrs		10	40	40	5	5
42. Lonely without your [home country] family and friends around you	1-3 Yrs		33.3	11.1	**55.6**		
	4-10 Yrs	10	10	45	30	5	
43. Curious about things that are different in your [host country]	1-3 Yrs	11.1	**66.7**	22.2			
	4-10 Yrs	10	45	40	5		
44. Homesick when you think of your [home country]	1-3 Yrs	11.1	22.2	22.2	44.4		
	4-10 Yrs	10	10	55	20	5	
45. Frustrated by difficulties adapting to [host country]	1-3 Yrs			11.1	**88.9**		
	4-10 Yrs		20	35	45	10	
46. Happy with your day-to-day life in [host country]	1-3 Yrs		**77.8**	11.1	11.1		
	4-10 Yrs	5	**70**	25			

Note: Bolded numbers indicate high agreement among participants.

The data in Table 17 shows moderately positive correlations between participant CQ and their ability to acculturate (r =.39) and psychologically adapt (r = .30) to their new country for participants within their first three years. Within their first three years, CQ statistically explained nearly 10% of the variability in cross-cultural adjustment.

However, that may not hold over time. The data indicates that survey participants who have served between 4-7 years demonstrate a negative correlation between both factors of cross-cultural adjustment. A moderately negative correlation exists, r = -.35, between CQ and psychological adaptation.

Table 17

Pearson's Correlation between CQ and CCA Factors

Longevity			Acculturation	Psychological Adaptation
1-3 years	CQ	Pearson Correlation	**0.396**	**0.306**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.292	0.423
		N	9	9
4-7 years	CQ	Pearson Correlation	-0.054	**-0.348**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.820	0.132
		N	20	20

Note: Bolded numbers indicate correlations in the moderate range

Results for Research Question 3

RQ 3. Is there a significant relationship between cultural intelligence and an international school principal's longevity in an international school leadership position?

In addition to determining the impact of total CQ on longevity, the data in Table 18 summarizes the mean and standard deviation of both groups in the separated CQ factors.

Table 18

CQ: Group Statistics by Factor and Total

Longevity		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Metacognitive CQ	1-3 years	9	23.8889	2.20479	0.73493
	4-10 years	20	**24.3000**	2.53606	0.56708
Cognitive CQ	1-3 years	9	29.3333	5.00000	1.66667
	4-10 years	20	**31.0500**	4.57079	1.02206
Motivational CQ	1-3 years	9	**31.8889**	1.83333	0.61111
	4-10 years	20	30.9500	2.66508	0.59593
Behavioral CQ	1-3 years	9	**28.6667**	3.93700	1.31233
	4-10 years	20	28.5500	3.60519	0.80614
Total CQ	1-3 years	9	113.779	6.99603	2.33201
	4-10 years	20	**114.8500**	10.75701	2.40534

Note: Bolded numbers indicate groups with the higher mean.

There were nine participants with 1-3 years of experience and twenty 4-10 years of experience participants. Participants who had more experience, 4-10 years, had higher average CQ scores in Metacognitive CQ (M=24.3; SD = 2.53) and Cognitive CQ (M= 31.0; SD = 4.57). Participants with 1-3 years of experience had higher average scores in Motivational CQ (M=31.88; SD = 1.83). There was very little difference between Behavioral CQ averages for the two groups, 1-3 years of experience (M28.66; SD = 3.93) and 4-10 years of experience (M=28.55; SD = 3.60). There was also very little difference between the overall CQ of the two

groups, 1-3 years of experience (M = 113.77; SD = 2.33) and 4-10 years of experience (M = 114.85; SD = 2.40).

Table 19

Independent Samples Test: CQ Factor Comparison

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
					Significance	Mean	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Two-Sided p	Difference	Std. Error Difference
Metacognitive CQ	0.333	***0.569***	-0.419	27	**0.678**	-0.41111	0.98042
Cognitive CQ	0.390	***0.538***	-0.910	27	**0.371**	-1.71667	1.88734
Motivational CQ	1.509	***0.230***	0.955	27	**0.348**	0.93889	0.98270
Behavioral CQ	0.159	***0.694***	0.078	27	**0.938**	0.11667	1.48778
Total CQ	1.191	***.285***	-.273	27	**0.752**	-1.0722	3.93133

Note: Bolded and italicized numbers represent variance significance. Bolded numbers represent significance levels.

The data summarized in Table 19 represents a summary of an independent samples t-test. There was homogeneity of variances as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances for all CQ scores, regardless of years of experience, all scores were all above the significance level ($p > .05$). The mean Cognitive CQ score was .41, (SE = .98) lower for leaders with 1-3 years of experience than those with 4-10 years of experience. The 1-3 years of experience Cognitive CQ score was 1.71 (SE 1.88) lower than the 4-10 years of experience score. In motivational CQ the 1-3 years of experience group had a .93 higher (SE = .98) mean score than those with 4-10 years of experience. In behavioral CQ, the 1-3 years of experience score was .11 (SE = 1.48) higher mean score than those with 4-10 years of experience. Although mean score data indicates that there are areas of strength for both experience level groups, these differences do not rise to

statistically significant rates ($p > .05$). Therefore, we can accept the null hypothesis H3: there is no significant relationship between cultural intelligence and international school principals' service length.

Conclusion

Chapter IV provides information on this research study's data collection methods, participants, and quantitative findings. Using a correlational predictive design, this study collected data on four different facets to discuss international school leadership longevity. The researcher collected quantitative survey data from 30 international school leaders regarding their cultural intelligence, cross-cultural adjustment, job satisfaction, and longevity. A Principal Component Analysis was conducted to reduce cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment. The PCA revealed that cultural intelligence and cross-cultural acculturation are significant factors (Field, 2018). However, the psychological adjustment factor of cross-cultural adjustment was unsuitable for reduction. The relationship between cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment appears more significant through correlational analysis in the first three years. Additionally, while cultural intelligence does not directly correlate with longevity or job satisfaction, cultural intelligence is present in the profile of the international school leaders who participated in the study.

Chapter V: Discussion

Introduction

Despite school administrators' crucial role in school improvement, school leaders are leaving their positions (Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Fullan, 2011; Marzano et al., 2005; Miller, 2013). Effective school administrators retain qualified and effective teachers, improve achievement in reading and math, and create a school culture that promotes academic growth (Babo & Postma, 2017; Buck, 2019; Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Liu & Bellibas, 2018). However, as many as 38% of K-12 school principals in the United States planned to leave the profession between 2021 and 2024 (NASSP Survey signals a looming mas exodus of principals from schools, 2021). K-12 principal turnover is a problem that is exacerbated among international schools where administrative turnover suffers from short-term (two or three-year) contracts that increase the turnover rate (Bailey & Gibson, 2019; Kelly, 2021; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Smith, 2021).

Current studies on the success of expatriated workers may influence understanding and support for leaders in the complex role of international school administrators. Current cultural intelligence (CQ) research on expatriate leaders in the fields of banking, manufacturing, and technology demonstrates that CQ can play a role in their success and longevity (Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Kim, 2009; Konanahalli et al., 2014; Martinez, 2019; Vann et al., 2017). Research has connected CQ to effective decision-making in diverse settings, effective cross-cultural adjustment (CCA), job satisfaction, and decreasing turnover (Adler & Aycan, 2018; Aldhaheri, 2017; Ashley, 2020; Bruning et al., 2012; Keung, 2011; Martinez, 2019; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a). However, there are limited studies on cultural intelligence’s impact on international

educational leaders (Ashley, 2020; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Setti et al., 2022; Smith, 2021). None of these studies address principal longevity or retention.

The questions explored in this study include the following:

1. Is there a significant relationship between cultural intelligence and an international school principal's job satisfaction?
2. Is there a significant relationship between an international school principal's cultural intelligence and their ability to successfully adjust cross-culturally?
3. Is there a significant relationship between cultural intelligence and an international school principal's longevity in a leadership position?

Chapter V interprets the study's results, including relationships to the literature. In addition, the implications of the study's results and recommendations for future research will be discussed.

Summary of Results

This correlational-predictive quantitative study aimed to examine the relationship between the longevity of an international school principal's tenure and their CQ and CCA. The correlational design was used to investigate the relationship between the variables and assess whether those relationships were positive, negative, or nonexistent (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). The researcher used the prediction design to determine whether CQ and CCA could forecast the longevity of an international school principal (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). As a predictive study, the research could be used in hiring and retention practices for K-12 international schools.

As a quantitative design, this study used an electronic survey tool, approved by the Northwest Nazarene University Institutional Review Board and the researcher's doctoral committee chair, administered by Qualtrics to collect participant data. Survey research uses

predetermined questions and is a reliable way of collecting data because questions are standardized and phrased similarly (Blackstone, 2012). The survey collected data on participant CQ using the *Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) Self-Report* (Ang et al., 2007) and CCA data using Demes and Geeraert's (2014) *Brief Psychological Adaptation Scale* (BPAS) and *Brief Acculturation Scale* (BAS). In addition, the researcher collected demographic data on longevity in the international school setting, gender, education level, and location of their international school workplace.

Quantitative analysis of survey data was conducted using IBM SPSS, Version 29. Data analysis included conducting a principal component analysis (PCA) to determine the most closely correlated survey items (Urdan, 2016). A PCA identifies correlated factors within a large set of variables (Field, 2018). Because there are many facets of CQ and CCA, PCA allows for a more manageable size of data while retaining as much information as possible, even when using a relatively small sample size (De Winter et al., 2009; Jung & Lee, 2011; MacCallum et al., 1999). Using both eigenvalues and scree plot analysis, the initial output extracted one component of CQ with one component of the recommended factor loading standard above 16% (Field, 2018; Stevens, 2002). With an eigenvalue of 6.960, component one of the CQ PCA was retained for analysis. Communities above .6 are considered high and reasonable even with a small sample size (Field, 2018; Jung & Lee, 2011). Questions in the component retained center around behavioral cultural intelligence. The PCA of cross-cultural adjustment reduced the data for acculturation to one component. The component questions fell neatly into a high range of commonality; all four questions were above .6 when a Direct Oblimin rotation was completed (Field, 2018; Stevens, 2002). All four questions center around maintaining aspects of participant home culture in a diverse setting. All ten questions concerning psychological adjustment from

the BPAS were retained as a PCA could not reduce the factors of psychological adjustment to components.

Research Question 1: Summary of Results and Discussion

Studies have correlated positive relationships between cultural intelligence and job satisfaction in various industries worldwide (Ashley, 2020; Juharyanto, 2020; Licki & van der Walt, 2021; Martinez, 2019). Cultural intelligence has been linked to decreased social isolation and turnover (Bauer & Silver, 2018; Bücker et al., 2015; Martinez, 2019). However, the correlation between CQ and job satisfaction has not been applied to school leadership, except in the case of Licki and van der Walt (2021), in which perceived CQ of white principals in South Africa had a positive relationship with increasing black teacher job satisfaction. Therefore, the first research question guiding was: "Is there a significant relationship between cultural intelligence and an international school principal's job satisfaction?"

Analysis of the survey data demonstrated strong agreement among participants in regard to their perceived CQ. Regardless of their experience, there was high agreement about using CQ skills such as changing non-verbal behavior, pauses, varying the speaking rate, altering facial expression, and confidence when socializing with local populations. Additionally, over 60% of the participants reported high job satisfaction rates, regardless of longevity. Table 14 shows the correlation between job satisfaction and cultural intelligence for the two groups. For those participants with 1-3 years of longevity, there was a weak positive correlation ($r = .044$, $p = .910$), indicating a slight tendency for those leaders with higher CQ to be more satisfied with their jobs. For those participants with 4-10 years of longevity, there is a slightly stronger correlation between CQ and job satisfaction ($r = .163$, $p = .493$). However, neither of these correlations meets the threshold for statistical significance, $p > .05$ (Tanner, 2012). Therefore,

while the results suggest there may be a positive correlation, more research is needed to confirm this result.

Research Question 2: Summary of Results and Discussion

Cross-cultural adjustment is critical to expatriate success, regardless of industry. As an international school administrator, one's ability to work closely with diverse families, students, and staff makes up most of the role. Studies demonstrate that cultural intelligence levels of expatriate workers motivate them to engage in local activities and thrive in diverse environments (C. Y. P. Wang et al., 2019). Cultural intelligence increases self-efficacy, coping with stress in unfamiliar environments, and decreases anxiety and isolation (Adler & Aycan, 2018; Salgado & Bastida, 2017). Considering how crucial it is for international school leaders to adjust to their diverse population, establishing a candidate's cultural intelligence level could ensure their successful cross-cultural adjustment.

The second question guiding this research was, "Is there a significant relationship between an international school principal's cultural intelligence and their ability to successfully adjust cross-culturally?" Based on Pearson's correlation, for participants with 1-3 years of longevity, there was a moderate positive correlation between CQ and the acculturation facet of CCA (r = .396) and the psychological adaptation facet of CCA (r = .306); however, the correlations are not statistically significant (p > .05). In contrast, for those with 4-7 years of longevity, the correlations demonstrate weaker or negative relationships. The correlation between CQ and the acculturation facet of CCA (r = -0.054) and the psychological adaptation facet (-0.348) are weaker and not statistically significant. While the correlations vary between the groups, the relationships between CQ and the adaptation factors may not be substantially different for the two groups.

Research Question 3: Summary of Results and Discussion

School leadership turnover is inevitable at schools, but it is also impactful. Principal turnover impacts student achievement and school climate. Research indicates that principals significantly impact establishing a healthy school climate, affecting student achievement (Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Fullan, 2011; Marzano et al., 2005; Miller, 2013; O'Toole, 2020). Most international school principals have short two or three-year contracts (Smith, 2021). Internationally, principal turnover is as high as 30% annually (Balyer, 2017). Hiring and training a new principal is an investment, and areas such as China, Eastern Europe, the Middle East, and Africa report the most frequent principal turnover in their public and private school systems (Cieminski, 2018).

Research indicates that cross-cultural adjustment is crucial for job satisfaction and expatriate success. Expatriates with significant cultural skills may be less impacted by the social exclusion inherent in taking a position away from one's home culture. Job satisfaction increases if cultural skills exceed perceived social exclusion (Stoermer et al., 2018). The research demonstrates that CQ skills can help expatriate workers manage challenging social life differences, including governmental systems, social life, and religious beliefs (Konanahalli et al., 2014). Studies in expatriate CQ have demonstrated an impact on the retention and success of employees in diverse cultures (Kim, 2009; Martinez, 2019; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Saini, 2018).

The third question guiding this study was, "Is there a significant relationship between cultural intelligence and an international school principal's longevity in an international school leadership position?" For this question, the researcher analyzed the different facets of CQ: metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, behavioral, and total CQ. The data in Table 18 demonstrates that the mean for Metacognitive (M = 24.3; SD = 2.53) and Cognitive CQ (M =

31.0; SD = 4.57) was slightly higher for those participants with more experience. However, Motivational CQ (M = 31.8; SD 1.83) and Behavioral CQ (M = 28.66; SD = 3.93) were slightly higher for those participants with less experience. This could indicate that those newer to an expatriate position are more motivated to fit in and adjust their behavior to their diverse situation. At the same time, those with more experience are more reflective and know more about the culture through study. The data from Table 19 demonstrates through paired T-test analysis that although the mean score data indicates areas of strength for both experience-level groups, the differences do not rise to statistical significance ($p > .05$).

Conclusions

The importance of school leadership in improving schools has been widely acknowledged (Bartanen et al., 2019; Gordon & Hart, 2022; Grissom et al., 2021; Juharyanto, 2020; Miller, 2013; Naughton, 2010; O'Toole, 2020). Effective school administrators improve academic achievement, retain highly qualified teachers, and improve school climate (Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Fullan, 2011; Marzano et al., 2005; Miller, 2013). However, retention of school principals is an increasing problem (Bartanen et al., 2019; Miller, 2013; O'Toole, 2020; Sannon-Brown, 2021). Regular turnover of school administrators in international schools is expected, and hiring school administrators who are more likely to re-sign contracts can help improve the quality of international schools (Benson, 2011; Kelly, 2021; Machin, 2014).

Studies on CQ have indicated that strong CQ skills can enhance the success of expatriate employees (Setti et al., 2022; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a). CQ has a mediating impact on feelings of isolation, improves cross-cultural adjustment, improves motivation to explore and interact with diverse groups, and improves the ability to communicate effectively across cultures (Konanahalli et al., 2014; Setti et al., 2022; Stoermer et al., 2018; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a).

Studies on the CQ of international school principals have indicated that CQ impacts principal effectiveness and leadership skills (Ashley, 2020; Keung, 2011; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Smith, 2021). However, the impact CQ might have on the retention and longevity of international K-12 school principals has not been investigated.

While this study is small in scope, with 30 participants, indicators align with the current research on the mediating role of CQ in the life of expatriated workers. Data from this study indicates that international school administrators perceive themselves as strong in CQ facets. There was strong agreement on most CQ questions in the survey; see Appendix D. For administrators new to the role of international school administrator, there was a moderately positive relationship between their perceived CQ and their CCA and job satisfaction. While this study could not conclude that CQ causes CCA and job satisfaction, there is reason to continue the conversation and analysis.

Additionally, this study supports other studies that stress the importance of Motivational and Behavioral CQ as facets to enhance expatriate success. As Stoermer et al. suggest (2018), measuring cultural skills during the selection process and development of expatriate employees may decrease stress and turnover. Differences in social life and religious beliefs can be challenging, and sometimes governmental systems may seem unethical even for expatriates (Martinez, 2019). This study supports the role that Motivational CQ has in supporting and involving a new administrator. The results indicate that Motivational CQ is more important to those administrators with less experience. Administrators with less than four years of experience in the study indicated higher levels of Motivational CQ. While Behavioral CQ strategies enhance expatriate workers' verbal and nonverbal communication skills to build relationships and communicate effectively (Konanahalli et al., 2014), Motivational CQ is the most significant

domain for expatriates on their first assignment. It increases self-confidence in their ability to navigate and interact with culturally diverse peers. It may neutralize a lack of experience (Setti et al., 2022).

The implications for developing CQ in school leaders may go beyond K-12 international schools. Schools in the United States with large diverse populations may benefit from leaders with developed CQ, also. Schools are cultural microcosms and developing a leader's ability to use their Cognitive, Metacognitive, Motivational and Behavioral CQ skills to navigate their diverse staff and student needs may enhance a new leader's adjustment to the school and has been shown to impact their leadership (Keung, 2011; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013).

Recommendations for Further Research

Solomon and Steyn (2017a) note that previous study showed the positive impact of CQ. CQ and CCA have been positively related (Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Konanahalli et al., 2014). CQ has improved job performance and satisfaction (Ang et al., 2007; Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a). CQ can be developed (Solomon & Steyn, 2017a). CQ positively relates to transformational leadership (Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). The evaluation and development of CQ for school leaders would benefit all schools, especially international schools with diverse populations.

Because the success of international school communities demands hiring culturally intelligent leaders (Keung, 2011; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013), understanding how to evaluate and improve CQ for educational leaders is critical. Determining how supporting the development of CQ for expatriate leaders has improved turnover in other industries (Martinez, 2019). Ashley (2020) found that CQ scores had strong positive relationships with leader

effectiveness and empowering leadership. Smith (2021) pointed out that CQ scores of international school leaders coincide with positive school culture.

This qualitative study aimed to determine relationships between participants' perceived CQ scores and their CCA, job satisfaction, and longevity. The findings from this study address a gap in the literature that applies current CQ research to the role of international school administrator. Despite the limited number of participants in this study, there are indicators that the CQ of international school leaders can improve their CCA and job satisfaction. Also, some data indicates that developing Motivational CQ and Behavioral CQ would support new international school leaders.

The next steps might include replicating this study with a larger sample of international school administrators or a qualitative study that triangulates evidence. A larger sample size might more closely mirror the population of international school leaders (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Statistical significance was challenging to establish with this study's small number of participants. Larger sample sizes control for error and decrease the standard deviation in statistical results (Biau et al., 2008). Additionally, this study relied on the self-perception of international school administrators' CQ. A qualitative study that included a collection of evidence and teacher ratings for administrator CQ might create a more comprehensive picture of the possible implications of CQ on leadership and school improvement (Suleman & Hussain, 2018).

Implications for Professional Practice

Finally, implementing CQ scores and questions could have direct implications for the hiring and training international school staff, both school administrators and teachers. Research indicates that CQ increases expatriate CCA and decreases turnover (Jyoti & Kour, 2017;

Konanahalli et al., 2014; Martinez, 2019; Solomon & Steyn, 2017a). Hiring and training international school staff is expensive and time-consuming (Smith, 2021). CQ can be developed and improves job performance and satisfaction (Ang et al., 2007; Jyoti & Kour, 2017; Keung, 2011; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). Research within international business, banking, education, and construction industries indicates that the development of CQ shows strong positive relationships with improved cultural adjustment, higher job satisfaction, retention of workers, improved work performance, and effective leadership (Ahmad & Saidalavi, 2019; Aldhaheri, 2017; Ashley, 2020; Keung, 2011; Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013; Kim, 2009; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Smith, 2021). CQ research has the potential to improve international K-12 school leadership.

The induction process for international school leaders can be improved through a greater emphasis on CQ skills and facets. Currently, much induction is completed in a "one-size fits all" process that can do little to address isolation and build a connection to the school community as well as the culture of the new location. According to Symmonds (2022), a "good induction can immediately reflect the values of the school, and there is a strong correlation between a positive induction and staff staying longer" (p 12). While Symmonds addresses the need for a strong teacher induction program, the needs of school leaders should not be ignored. Very little research addresses the retention of educational school leaders at K-12 international schools, but a strong induction of school leaders that includes an emphasis on building cultural intelligence facets has the potential for setting new leaders up for success.

Bailey and Gibson (2019) pointed out that K-12 international school leaders take many routes to becoming school administrators. There is no universal preparation for school leadership; therefore, the induction process for school leaders is significant. While this study is

small in scope, it supports the findings and implications that cultural intelligence should play a role in international school leaders' selection, training, and development. Administering the CQS as a screener, perhaps focusing on the primary component addressed in this study, would help recruiters consider the cross-cultural competence of new leaders. As Aldhaheri (2017) points out, CQ capabilities can be developed. There are indicators in this study that Metacognitive and Cognitive CQ are more developed in school leaders who have more experience. Working toward developing CQ throughout the school leader induction process could improve cross-cultural adjustment and job satisfaction, thereby improving longevity and maintaining the impact of effective school leaders in overseas and international posts.

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Appendix A: Tools

Cultural Intelligence Survey
(*Cultural Intelligence Center,* 2005)

Instructions: Select the response that best describes your capabilities.
Select the answer that BEST describes you AS YOU REALLY ARE (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree).

CQ Factor	Questionnaire Items
MC1	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.
MC2	I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
MC3	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.
MC4	I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.
COG1	I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.
COG2	I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.
COG3	I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.
COG4	I know the marriage systems of other cultures.
COG5	I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.
COG6	I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviors in other cultures.
MOT1	I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.
MOT2	I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
MOT3	I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.

MOT4	I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.
MOT5	I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.
BEH1	I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.
BEH2	I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.
BEH3	I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
BEH4	I change my nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.
BEH5	I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

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Note. Use of this scale granted to academic researchers for research purposes only.
For information on using the scale for purposes other than academic research (e.g., consultants and non-academic organizations), please send an email to cquery@culturalq.com
Results for Specific Factors of Cultural Intelligence (CQ)

Cross-Cultural Adaptation
(Demes & Geeraert, 2014)

Items for Acculturation Orientation
Directions: Rate each of the following items from 1 = very difficult to 7 = very easy.

1. Have [home country] friends
2. Take part in [home country] traditions.
3. Hold on to my [home country] characteristics.
4. Do things the way [home country] people do
5. Have [host country] friends
6. Take part in [host country] traditions
7. Develop my [host country] characteristics
8. Do things the way [host country] people do

Items for Psychological Adaptation
Directions: Think about living in your host country. How many times in the last two weeks have you felt… (1 = never; 7 = always)

9. Excited about being in [host country]
10. Out of place, like you don't fit into [host country] culture (R)
11. A sense of freedom being away from [home country]

12. Sad to be away from [home country] (R)
13. Nervous about how to behave in certain situations is (R)
14. Lonely without your [home country] family and friends around you (R)
15. Curious about things that are different in [host country]
16. Homesick when you think of [home country] (R)
17. Frustrated by difficulties adapting to [host country] (R)
18. Happy with your day-to-day life in [host country]

Appendix B: Content Validity

Content Validity of Combined Survey

	01	02	03	04	05	Average	ST Dev
1. My current educational leadership role is	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
2. The region I currently work in is	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
3. My nationality is	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
4. What is your gender?	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
5. What is your age?	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
6. What is the length of time you have served in educational leadership?	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
7. What is your current education level?	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
8. How long have you been in your current international post?	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
9. What is the longest time you have held an international school leadership position?	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
10. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.	4.00	4	4	4	4	4.00	1
11. I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me	4	4	2	3	4	3.40	0.85

12. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.	4	4	4	4	4	4.00	1
13. I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.	4	3	3	3	4	3.40	0.85
14. I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.	4	4	4	4	4	4.00	1
15. I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.	4	4	4	4	4	4.00	1
16. I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.	4	4	4	4	4	4.00	1
17. I know the marriage systems of other cultures.	4	4	4	4	4	4.00	1
18. I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.	4	3	4	4	4	3.80	0.95
19. I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviors in other cultures.	4	4	4	4	4	4.00	1
20. I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	4	3	4	4	4	3.80	0.95
21. I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	4	4	4	4	4	4.00	1
22. I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.	4	3	3	4	4	3.50	0.875
23. I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.	4	4	4	4	4	4.00	1

24. I am confident that I can get accustomed to shopping conditions in a different culture.	4	4	3	4	4	3.75	0.9375
25. I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	4	4	4	4	4	4.00	1
26. I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.	4	4	3	4	4	3.75	0.9375
27. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.	4	4	4	4	4	4.00	1
28. I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross cultural interaction requires it.	4	4	3	4	4	3.75	0.9375
29. I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	4	4	4	4	4	4.00	1
30. Have [home country] friends	3.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4	3.75	0.9375
31. Take part in [home country] traditions	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
32. Hold on to my [home country] characteristics.	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
33. Do things the way my [home country] people do	4.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	3.75	0.9375
34. Have [host country] friends	3.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	3.75	0.9375
35. Take part in [host country] traditions	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
36. ~~Develop my [host country] characteristics~~	**~~3.00~~**	**~~3.00~~**	**~~3.00~~**	**~~4.00~~**	**~~4.00~~**	**~~3.25~~**	**~~0.8125~~**
37. Do things the way [host country] people do	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
38. Excited about being in [host country]	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
39. Out of place, like you don't fit into [host country] culture	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
40. A sense of freedom being away from [home country]	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1

41. Sad to be away from [home country]	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
42. Nervous about how to behave in certain situations	3.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	3.50	0.875
43. Lonely without your [home country] family and friends around you	4.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	3.75	0.9375
44. Curious about things that are different in your [host country]	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
45. Homesick when you think of your [home country]	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
46. Frustrated by difficulties adapting to [host country]	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
47. Happy with your day-to-day life in [host country]	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
48. How satisfied are you with your working conditions?	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1
49. How satisfied are you with your work-life balance?	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1

Note: Highlighted question was removed from study survey based on validity scores.

Appendix C: Pilot Process

Pilot Informed Consent

You are invited to participate in a research project about international school leaders' longevity, cross-cultural adaptation, and cultural intelligence. This online survey should take about 20 minutes to complete. Participation is voluntary, and responses will be kept confidential to the degree the technology permits. All information will be kept confidential, and any identifying information will be withheld. Pseudonyms will be used for schools and school leaders. You have the option to not respond to any questions that you choose. Participation or nonparticipation will not impact your relationship with your employer. Submission of the survey will be interpreted as your informed consent to participate and that you affirm that you are at least 18 years of age. The risks to the participants include a loss of time. Your time is valuable, and you may skip any questions you wish or end your participation at any time.

Participating in this survey will help contribute to educational research on the retention of school leaders. Specifically, your information will contribute to research investigating factors that enhance international school leaders' job satisfaction and adaptation to new cultures. If you have any questions or concerns about the study, please email the principal investigator, Lorraine Hirakawa, at lhirakawa@nnu.edu or the faculty advisor, Dr. Jennifer Hill, at jjhill@nnu.edu. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact the NNU Institutional Review Board at IRB@nnu.edu.

Completing the survey indicates that you have read and understand your rights to privacy, confidentiality, and the risks involved in participating in this survey.

Pilot Survey

This survey is broken into four areas. First, you will respond to 10 demographic questions. The second part of the survey asks questions to determine the cultural intelligence rating, and the latter two portions measure cross-cultural adjustment.

DIRECTIONS: Please select the appropriate demographic responses.

My current educational leadership role is

- Principal/Head of School
- Assistant Principal
- School Director
- Other

The region I currently work in is

- Western Europe
- Eastern Europe
- Asia
- Middle East
- Africa
- South America
- Other

My nationality is

- European
- Canadian
- Middle Eastern
- Asian
- USA
- Other

What is your gender?

- Male
- Female
- Nonbinary / third gender
- Prefer not to say

What is your age?

- 25 – 35
- 36 – 45

46 – 60
Over 60

What is the length of time you have served in educational leadership?

1 – 5 years
6 – 10 years
11 – 15 years
16 – 20 years
More than 20 years

What is your current education level?

Bachelor's Degree
Master's Degree
Doctoral Degree

How long have you been in your current international post?

1 – 5 years
6 – 10 years
11 – 15 years
16 years or more

What is the longest time you have held an international school leadership position?

1 – 5 years
6 – 10 years
11 – 15 years
16 years or longer

CQS

Directions: Read each statement and select the response that best describes your capabilities interacting with other cultures. Select the answer that BEST describes you AS YOU ARE (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree).

1. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.

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

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

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

5. I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.

6. I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.

7. I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.

8. I know the marriage systems of other cultures.

9. I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.

10. I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviors in other cultures.

11. I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.

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

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

14. I enjoy living in cultures unfamiliar to me.

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

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

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

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

19. I change my nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

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

BAS

Directions: Read each statement and select the response that BEST describes your experience while living outside of your home country. Consider how easy it is for you to have these experiences and rate them from 1 = extremely difficult; 7 = extremely easy.

21. Have [home country] friends

22. Take part in [home country] traditions

23. Hold on to my [home country] characteristics.

24. Do things the way my [home country] people do

25. Have [host country] friends

26. Take part in [host country] traditions

27. Develop my [host country] characteristics

28. Do things the way [host country] people do

BPAS

Directions: Read each statement and select the response that best describes the frequency of your feeling and experience. Select the answer that BEST describes you AS YOU ARE (1 = Never; 7 = Always).

29. Excited about being in [host country]

30. Out of place, like you don't fit into [host country] culture

31. A sense of freedom being away from [home country]

32. Sad to be away from [home country]

33. Nervous about how to behave in certain situations

34. Lonely without your [home country] family and friends around you

35. Curious about things that are different in your [host country]

36. Homesick when you think of your [home country]

37. Frustrated by difficulties adapting to [host country]

38. Happy with your day-to-day life in [host country]

Survey Feedback for Validation

Please respond to the two questions about your participation in the survey.

1. How much time did it take you to complete the survey?
2. How easy was it for you to complete the survey

Pilot Reliability

Table C1

Cronbach's Alpha: CQS

Item Question	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
1. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.	105.83	64.515	0.260	0.749
2. I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me	106.25	63.659	0.371	0.745
3. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.	106.17	64.152	0.269	0.748
4. I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.	106.42	60.629	0.463	0.736
5. I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.	107.33	57.152	0.501	0.728
6. I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.	108.17	58.879	0.200	0.767
7. I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.	106.75	63.295	0.200	0.752
8. I know the marriage systems of other cultures.	107.17	55.606	0.609	0.718
9. I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.	107.67	58.606	0.490	0.731

Survey Question	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
10. I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviors in other cultures.	107.50	55.182	0.701	0.712
11. I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	105.67	65.879	0.106	0.755
12. I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	106.17	66.152	0.105	0.755
13. I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.	106.50	65.909	0.144	0.754
14. I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.	106.67	61.152	0.428	0.738
15. I am confident that I can get accustomed to shopping conditions in a different culture.	106.33	63.879	0.216	0.751
16. I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	**107.00**	**66.000**	**-0.076**	**0.802**
17. I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.	106.92	53.174	0.732	0.705
18. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.	106.33	58.788	0.497	0.731
19. I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross cultural interaction requires it.	106.67	60.242	0.377	0.740
20. I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	106.83	61.606	0.245	0.750

Note: Bolded and highlighted row indicates the question was removed to improve *a*.

Table C2

Cronbach's alpha: BPAS

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
29. Excited about being in [host country]	30.38	39.423	0.558	0.645
30. Out of place, like you don't fit into [host country] culture	29.62	34.923	0.391	0.662
31. A sense of freedom being away from [home country]	**29.77**	**52.192**	**-0.359**	**0.797**
32. Sad to be away from [home country]	29.62	31.590	0.885	0.559
33. Nervous about how to behave in certain situations	29.85	35.474	0.589	0.621
34. Lonely without your [home country] family and friends around you	29.77	41.526	0.440	0.663
35. Curious about things that are different in your [host country]	29.62	45.756	-0.032	0.722
36. Homesick when you think of your [home country]	30.15	29.308	0.881	0.540
37. Frustrated by difficulties adapting to [host country]	29.69	33.564	0.529	0.627
38. Happy with your day-to-day life in [host country]	30.62	46.090	-0.015	0.709

Note: Bolded and highlighted row indicates questions removed to increase *a*.

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