CIBES 2025 / 5th Current Issues in Business and Economic Studies Conference

Do Male and Female Students Develop Cultural Intelligence Differently? Insights from a Cross-Cultural Collaboration

Maja Vidović[a] Neva Vidović[b*]

[a] Professional Studies Professor, RIT Croatia, Croatia, maja.vidovic@croatia.rit.edu, Orcid: 0000-0001-6756-3383
[b] Student, RIT Croatia, Croatia, Orcid: 0009-0001-4983-8125
[*] Corresponding Author

Abstract

This empirical paper explores gender differences in developing cultural intelligence (CQ) among undergraduate students. The sample is comprised of 624 students from a Croatian and a U.S. university who collaborated virtually on a six-week-long assignment that required cross-cultural interaction and teamwork. Data were collected at three time points — before, mid-, and after the project — and focused on three variables: (1) cultural intelligence, operationalized via the Confidence subscale of Chen and Starosta's (2000) Intercultural Sensitivity Scale; (2) enthusiasm for cross-cultural learning; and (3) self-assessed efficiency in working in virtual teams. While female students exhibited slightly higher average CQ scores at all three time points, independent samples t-tests revealed that these differences were not statistically significant. Self-assessed virtual team efficiency was used as a control variable, and averages were very similar between female and male students across all three time points, with no statistically significant differences. Interestingly, female students consistently reported statistically significantly higher enthusiasm for cross-cultural learning. However, this greater enthusiasm did not translate into significantly higher CQ development over time. Both male and female students exhibited CQ growth by the end of the project, with a similar degree of improvement. These findings suggest that although female students may be more positively predisposed toward cross-cultural experiences, it does not necessarily lead to greater increases in CQ. A possible interpretation is that the structured intercultural project context provided equal exposure and learning opportunities, thereby standardizing the potential for CQ development regardless of initial interest or motivation. From a managerial perspective, the results indicate that well-designed cross-cultural projects can foster CQ development in diverse student populations, independent of gender. This underscores the value of integrating intercultural collaboration into academic and organizational training programs. Furthermore, while enthusiasm for intercultural engagement is beneficial, intentional learning design and experiential exposure remain crucial for meaningful competence development.

Keywords: cultural intelligence (CQ), cross-cultural learning, CQ development, gender differences

Cited: Vidović, M., & Vidović, N. (2026). Do male and female students develop cultural intelligence differently? Insights from a cross-cultural collaboration. *Sustainability, Organization, Business and Economic Research (SOBER), 3*, 61-75. https://doi.org/10.66414/sober.291162

Selection and peer-review under responsibility of the 5th Current Issues in Business and Economic Studies Conference.

1. INTRODUCTION

Today's world is increasingly characterized by working from home, as a direct outcome of the Covid-19 pandemic. Teamwork, historically having a central place in organizations, is increasingly becoming virtual teamwork. And even faster becoming cross-cultural virtual teamwork. How do we best prepare the future leaders in training for this business context? In this paper, we turn to two essential tools: developing cultural intelligence and developing efficiency in working in virtual teams.

Cultural intelligence (CQ) refers to an individual's ability to adapt effectively to culturally diverse environments and is considered one of the key competencies in the modern business world. Defined as one's capacity to adapt to new cultural settings based on different facets, including cognitive, behavioral, and motivational features (Earley, 2002). CQ is typically conceptualized as comprising four key dimensions: metacognitive (awareness and control over cultural knowledge), cognitive (knowledge about cultures), motivational (interest and drive to adapt), and behavioral (ability to adjust actions appropriately) (Van Dyne et al., 2012). Research highlights that CQ is distinct from other forms of interpersonal intelligence and intercultural competencies, and is uniquely relevant to intercultural contexts, rather than monocultural contexts (Van Dyne et al., 2019).

This paper explores whether male and female students develop cultural intelligence differently while collaborating in cross-cultural virtual project teams. By focusing on higher education settings and integrating gender as a lens, this study contributes to the growing literature on CQ development and offers practical implications for educators seeking to better prepare students for multicultural, digitally mediated workplaces.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction to Cultural Intelligence

Cultural intelligence has gained significant attention across multiple disciplines, including management, psychology, and education, because of its central role in navigating cultural diversity effectively. In the field of management, cultural intelligence is rapidly gaining focus in research (e.g., Ahmadi Forg et al., 2025; Chen et al., 2024; Lee & Hwang, 2024; Piršl et al., 2022; Setti et al., 2022; Vlajčić & Liović, 2023), particularly the motivational component, the so-called motivational cultural intelligence (e.g., Chen & Shi, 2025; Song et al., 2023; Yang, 2023). Higher education institutions, often hosting international students and promoting study abroad experiences, are key contexts for CQ development. Understanding how CQ emerges and develops during students' formative years is therefore essential for preparing a culturally competent workforce.

Exposure to different cultures, through education, work, or travel, can significantly enhance an individual's CQ, making it a critical skill for global leaders and employees (Crowne, 2008). We

have witnessed that the skills needed by expatriates are most effectively developed through cross-cultural education programs (e.g., Lenartowicz et al., 2014; Okpara & Kabongo, 2011). In today's globalized world, where working with individuals from different cultures is almost a given in most companies, CQ should be a topic of conversation in schools as well as workplaces. Companies whose employees have higher CQ are likely to have a starting advantage when dealing with any international clients or partners. One study reveals a statistically significant positive correlation between cultural intelligence and change management (Mangla & Singh, 2024). Cultural intelligence was likewise found to have a beneficial influence on negotiating approaches (Ajeakoh et al., 2025), as well as on resilience and innovative work behavior in emergency nurses (Awad et al., 2025). As young professionals, college students can benefit from studies exploring cultural intelligence development in educational settings, such as this one.

Another important context for CQ development is virtual teamwork, and especially cross-cultural virtual teamwork. Virtual teams represent groups of people or teams acting mostly or exclusively remotely, where communication happens through online channels. These can range from chat messages to virtual calls. This format allows teams to overcome obstacles such as distance or space constraints. Hence, virtual teams have great benefits for organizations, and the field of virtual teams continues to have plenty of research opportunities for the coming years (Gilson et al., 2015). Yet, they also present challenges: communication is often limited to text or video, cultural differences may be amplified, and misunderstandings are more likely without nonverbal cues. In a sense, virtual teams are the magnifying glass for potential misinterpretation. In this environment, evermore so present after the Covid-19 pandemic, cultural intelligence becomes an essential skill for fostering trust, collaboration, and efficiency. Hence, studying CQ development within virtual teams provides insight into how students adapt to increasingly common global work structures. Additionally, women have consistently been found to be better decoders of nonverbal language compared to men (Gulabovska & Leeson, 2014). It would be interesting to explore whether women might be better equipped to manage virtual teams as well.

2.2. Gender and Cultural Intelligence

While numerous studies explore the role of cultural intelligence in global leaders and expatriates, there is limited understanding of how CQ develops in students and whether gender influences this trajectory. Gender has long been considered a potential factor shaping interpersonal sensitivity, communication styles, and intercultural effectiveness. Socialization theories suggest that women, on average, are encouraged to develop greater relational awareness, empathy, and interpersonal communication skills, whereas men are often socialized toward autonomy and task-focused behaviors. These tendencies may influence how individuals perceive, interpret, and respond to culturally diverse situations, raising the question of whether male and female students differ in the development of cultural intelligence (CQ). Additionally, since gender socialization may shape interpersonal skills, communication preferences, and

approaches to intercultural interactions, male and female students might differ in how they not only acquire but also apply cultural intelligence.

Existing studies on gender differences in intercultural competence offer mixed findings, and few have explored CQ trajectories in higher education contexts. Investigating whether gender plays a role in CQ development could help educators and institutions create more inclusive strategies for building global competence among students. Empirical findings on gender and CQ, however, remain mixed. Early work using the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) suggested small gender-related patterns on certain dimensions. For instance, Ang and colleagues (2007) demonstrated that CQ has a unique explanatory power in predicting three aspects of intercultural effectiveness (cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation, and task performance), after controlling for other individual characteristics previously shown to influence intercultural effectiveness, such as sex, Big Five personality, emotional intelligence, and similar. More recently, several studies that used validated scales, including the CQS, reported that women often score higher than men in various dimensions of intercultural competence, particularly in affective, cognitive, and behavioral domains (e.g., Chédru & Delhoume, 2023; Solhaug & Kristensen, 2019; Zhang, 2024). For example, female students tend to have higher positive cultural orientation and are more sensitive to intercultural differences, while men may benefit more from rich intercultural experiences (e.g., Chédru & Delhoume, 2023; Novikova et al., 2020; Novikova et al., 2022). However, some studies find no significant gender differences overall, or only on specific subscales (e.g., Shi, 2025; Wawrosz & Jurásek, 2021; Zhang & Zhou, 2023; Ziada et al., 2021).

Research examining *developmental trajectories* of CQ by gender is even more limited. Although longitudinal studies with student samples demonstrate that CQ can increase through study-abroad programs, intercultural training, or global virtual teamwork (e.g., Engle & Crowne, 2014), these studies rarely analyze gender-specific patterns of change. Given these inconsistencies and the lack of longitudinal evidence, gender-specific CQ development remains an underexplored area in the higher education context.

This gap is particularly notable in virtual cross-cultural collaboration, an increasingly common setting in which communication relies on limited nonverbal cues—an area where women may have an advantage based on research showing greater nonverbal decoding accuracy (as previously mentioned, e.g., Gulabovska & Leeson, 2014). Understanding whether male and female students develop CQ differently in such environments can therefore provide new insights into how gendered patterns of interaction shape intercultural competence. This study responds to this gap by examining gender-related trajectories in CQ within a semester-long cross-cultural virtual teamwork project.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

The data for this study were collected from students enrolled in an undergraduate course Organizational Behavior, as a part of a structured, course-related project designed to provide experiential learning in multicultural and virtual collaboration. A total of 624 students participated in the study, representing two institutional contexts: a Croatia-based university and a U.S.-based university. Of the total sample, the majority of the students attended on-campus classes (82.21%), and 111 students attended the online asynchronous version of the same course (17.79%). Regarding the gender of the participants, 50.21% were female, 49.36% male, and 0.42% of the participants selected a response "other".

Response rates ranged from 70% to 90% for each wave of data collection, with a total of 334 students responding to all three waves, giving an overall response rate of 53.53%. Attrition of students was minimal, as only a few students dropped the course before the end of the semester.

The study followed a longitudinal design, with data for each student being collected at three time points: before the project started (Time 1), during the project (Time 2), and immediately after the project's completion (Time 3). Participation in the surveys was integrated into the course to encourage consistent engagement and high response rates. This longitudinal approach allowed for an exploration of both within-person changes over time and between-group comparisons, such as gender differences.

The research was conducted using a highly structured questionnaire created with the Qualtrics Survey software. The data were processed using the IBM SPSS Statistics 27 software package.

3.2. Measures

This paper explores three variables, all three measured at all three points in time, and all three used a Likert-type scale with a range from 1 to 5.

The first variable is Cultural Intelligence (CQ), which was based on the Interaction Confidence subscale of Chen and Starosta's (2000) Intercultural Sensitivity Scale[1]. This subscale evaluates individuals' confidence in their ability to engage in intercultural interactions and is widely used as a proxy for CQ development in educational and organizational contexts. Higher scores reflect greater self-perceived cultural intelligence.

[1] Although the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS; Ang et al., 2007) is the most widely used CQ instrument, this study required a measure suitable for repeated administration in a short period of time. The Interaction Confidence subscale aligns conceptually with the motivational and behavioral components of CQ, as it captures individuals' self-efficacy, comfort, and willingness to engage in intercultural communication—elements considered central to readiness for intercultural interaction. Prior research has shown that intercultural communication confidence is strongly related to motivational CQ and often used as an indicator of CQ development in student-based studies where full CQS administration is impractical or where the focus is on how students engage with others in real-time collaborative tasks. Thus, while we acknowledge that Interaction Confidence is not a comprehensive CQ measure, it provides a theoretically coherent and empirically supported proxy for capturing changes in students' intercultural capability within the context of such short-term cross-cultural teamwork.

The second variable is the students' enthusiasm for cross-cultural learning, which was measured with a single-item self-report question across all three points in time. This measure captured students' interest and willingness to engage in intercultural experiences throughout the project.

The third variable is the perceived efficiency in working in virtual teams, which was also measured with a single-item self-report question, also administered across the three points in time. This measure reflected students' evaluations of their team's effectiveness in accomplishing tasks within a virtual, multicultural setting.

Collecting repeated measures of these variables allowed for a comprehensive examination of change over time and the relationships among CQ, enthusiasm for cross-cultural learning, and virtual team efficiency.

4. RESULTS

Exploring the relationship between cultural intelligence scores and gender across the three points in time showed the following results, presented in Figure 1. Although female students showed slightly higher cultural intelligence at each of the three points in time, this difference was shown to be statistically insignificant. Both male and female students exhibited CQ growth by the end of the project, with a similar degree of improvement.

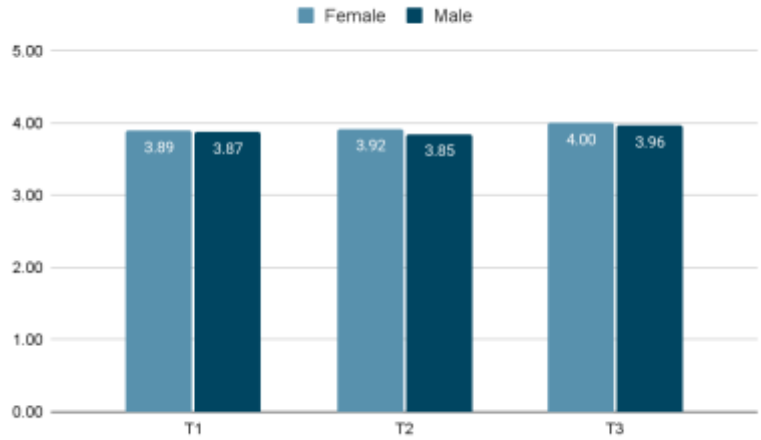

Figure 1. Relationship between cultural intelligence scores and gender across the three points in time

When plotting the average change in cultural intelligence for male versus female students between the measurement at Time 1, before the project, and Time 3, after the project, as is shown in Figure 2, we can see the following. On average, both genders experienced a positive change in their CQ scores, with female participants showing slightly greater improvement in cultural intelligence (0.15 or 3%) than male participants (0.11 or 2.2%), although the difference was small and not statistically significant.

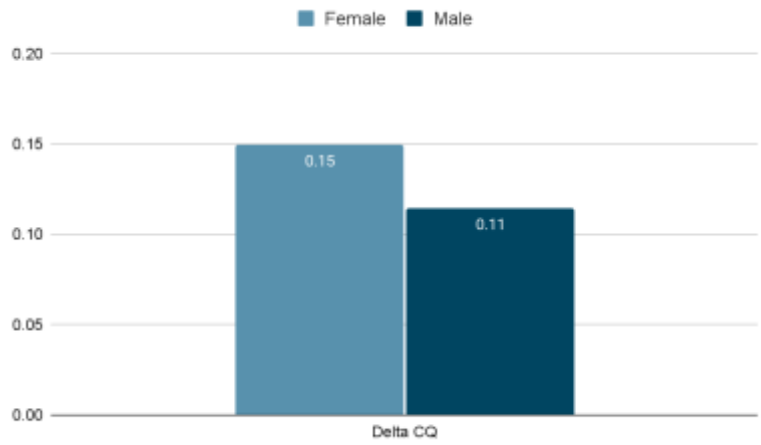

Figure 2. Average change in cultural intelligence scores for male and female students between Time 1 and Time 3

To further examine these differences, the change in cultural intelligence was grouped into six categories: large decrease (less than or equal to -20%), moderate decrease (between -19% and -9%), slight decrease (between -8% and -1%), no change (0%), slight increase (between 1% and 10%), and moderate to large increase (more than 10%). The graph in Figure 3 shows the breakdown of change in cultural intelligence scores by gender and category. We can conclude that female students more commonly showed the same CQ after the project, while male students more commonly reported an increase in CQ. However, an independent samples t-test showed that there were no significant gender differences in the overall development of CQ.

A possible explanation here could be based on the framework that CQ learning happens on a U-shaped curve (e.g., as shown by Vidović, 2024). This framework follows the patterns observed in experiencing cultural shock when relocating to a different country. It suggests that during intercultural learning, initial confidence or perceived competence may temporarily decline as individuals confront the complexity of real intercultural interactions. And then, with the passing of time, more exposure to the cultural complexities, as well as gaining more cross-cultural experience, the level of CQ competence starts to rise and surpasses the initial CQ levels. This framework could explain why these increases were smaller or why some students showed decreases despite engaging in the same learning experience.

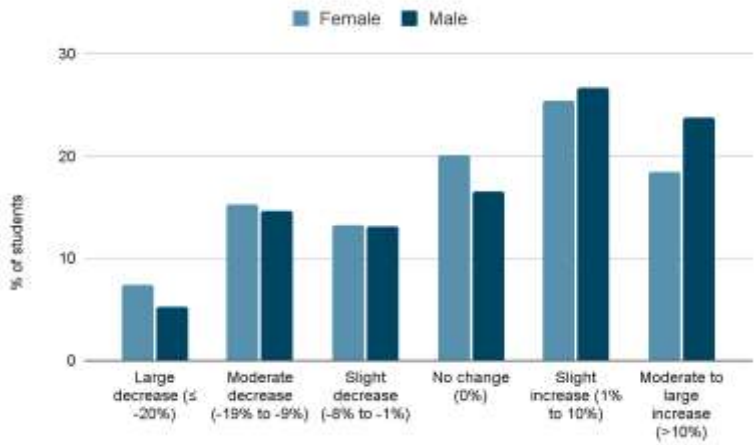

Figure 3. Percentage of male and female participants' change in cultural intelligence scores by category

The participant's enthusiasm for cross-cultural learning is shown across the three points in time for male and female participants in Figure 4. Female students consistently reported higher self-perceived enthusiasm than male students, reaching statistical significance at several time points; however, this higher enthusiasm did not translate into correspondingly greater cultural intelligence (CQ) development over time. Spearman's rho indicated no significant correlation between enthusiasm at Time 1 and the change in CQ ($\rho = -0.004$, $p = 0.937$), suggesting that initial enthusiasm alone was not a strong predictor of subsequent CQ growth. Yet, Spearman's rho showed small but significant positive correlations between the change in CQ and both enthusiasm at Time 2 ($\rho = .114$, $p = .039$, 95% CI [0.007, 0.219]) and enthusiasm at Time 3 ($\rho = .110$, $p = .028$, 95% CI [0.012, 0.205]), indicating a weak monotonic relationship (Table 1). This pattern suggests that dynamic engagement during the collaborative experience, rather than baseline enthusiasm, may be more relevant for promoting intercultural competence development, highlighting the importance of fostering active participation and motivation throughout cross-cultural projects.

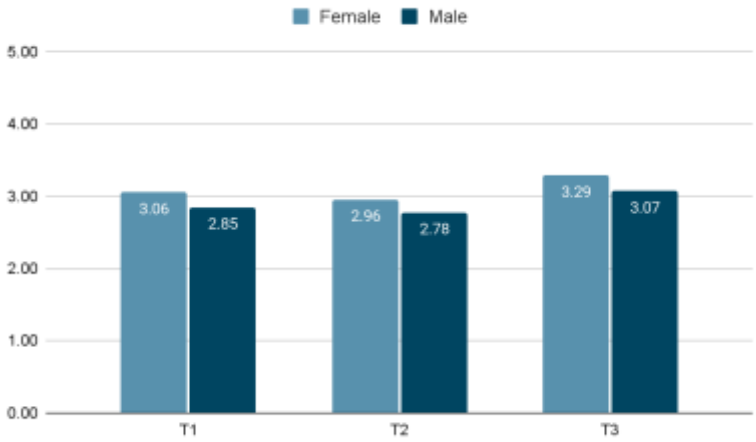

Figure 4. Enthusiasm for cross-cultural learning across the three points in time for male and female participants

Table 1. Correlation between the change in cultural intelligence and enthusiasm

		Enthusiasm 1	Enthusiasm 2	Enthusiasm 3
Delta CQ	Spearman Correlation Coefficient	-,004	,114*	,110*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,937	**,039**	**,028**
	N	402	331	402
	95% CI	[-0.101, 0.093]	[0.007, 0.219]	[0.012, 0.205]

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The virtual team efficiency displayed by gender and across the three measured time points is shown in Figure 5. Average virtual team efficiency scores were very similar for female and male students at all three time points, with no statistically significant gender differences. Spearman's rho revealed statistically significant positive correlations between cultural intelligence and virtual team efficiency at all three time points, indicating that higher cultural intelligence was consistently associated with more effective virtual teamwork. This is further reinforced by the fact that the strongest associations were observed between them at Time 3 ($\rho = 0.465$, $p < 0.001$, 95% CI [0.390, 0.517]), as evident from Table 2.

These observed patterns indicate that the relationship between cultural intelligence and virtual team efficiency strengthens as students progress through the collaborative experience, suggesting that accumulated cultural intelligence over time contributes to more effective team performance. While the associations are moderate in size, the consistency across time points underscores the importance of developing intercultural competence to enhance the productivity of global virtual teams. Interestingly, the lack of gender differences in virtual team efficiency implies that an individual's level of cultural intelligence benefits virtual teamwork similarly for male and female students, highlighting the generalizability of this effect.

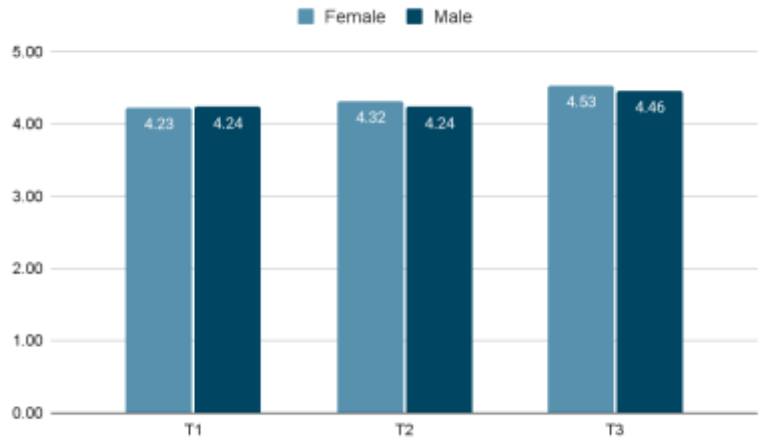

Figure 5. Virtual team efficiency across the three time points for female and male students

Table 2. Correlation between virtual team efficiency and cultural intelligence

		VTeff 1	VTeff 2	VTeff 3
CQ 1	Pearson Correlation	,368**	,313**	,267**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**<,001**	**<,001**	**<,001**
	N	546	423	404
	95% CI	[0.302, 0.470]	[0.231, 0.417]	[0.177, 0.369]
CQ 2	Pearson Correlation	,267**	,448**	,266**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**<,001**	**<,001**	**<,001**
	N	425	474	355
	95% CI	[0.178, 0.368]	[0.393, 0.571]	[0.169, 0.373]
CQ 3	Pearson Correlation	,202**	,288**	,465**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**<,001**	**<,001**	**<,001**
	N	403	354	443
	95% CI	[0.108, 0.300]	[0.195, 0.399]	[0.412, 0.598]

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

5. KEY INSIGHTS

As illustrated in the figures above, the analyses revealed no statistically significant correlation between cultural intelligence (CQ) and gender. Similarly, no significant correlation emerged between changes in cultural intelligence and gender, nor between virtual team efficiency and gender. This suggests that, despite the widely documented differences between genders that arise from both biological and sociocultural factors, gender did not appear to be a determining factor in these areas of intercultural competence or team performance. This finding is encouraging, as it indicates that both male and female students were able to engage and perform similarly in multicultural team environments, regardless of gender-related expectations.

Interestingly, however, female students reported significantly higher enthusiasm for cross-cultural learning, pointing to possible differences in attitudes or motivations that may not directly translate into measurable differences in cultural intelligence or team outcomes, but could have important implications for educational strategies, in universities and the corporate world alike. The observed gender difference in enthusiasm can also be explained through theories of gender socialization, as mentioned in the literature review part of the paper, and motivational cultural intelligence development. Given that gender socialization theory suggests that women are often encouraged to be more relational, empathetic, and attentive to interpersonal dynamics from an early age, this may easily translate into their greater willingness to engage with culturally diverse individuals. This aligns with the motivational dimension of CQ, which reflects a person's intrinsic interest, confidence, and drive to function effectively in culturally diverse settings (Ang et al., 2007). From this perspective, higher enthusiasm among female students may reflect internalized social norms that promote interpersonal sensitivity and openness, even though these attitudes do not automatically translate into larger gains in measured CQ. Using a theoretical lens provides a plausible explanation for why enthusiasm differed by gender while actual CQ growth did not.

Another notable finding was the significant positive correlation observed between virtual team efficiency and cultural intelligence measured at the end of the project (Time 3). This result suggests that higher levels of cultural intelligence, regardless of whether these were developed or simply demonstrated during the project, may be associated with greater perceived or actual team effectiveness in virtual, cross-cultural collaboration. Combined together, these findings underscore the potential of cultural intelligence as a key driver of team success while highlighting that gender, in this context, is not a significant predictor of performance or growth in cultural competencies.

Several limitations should be considered when interpreting these key insights. First, although participants' names were collected to match responses across the three time points, the measures relied entirely on self-reported perceptions. Such data may be influenced by a tendency to provide socially desirable answers, varying levels of self-awareness, or culturally shaped norms related to confidence and communication as well as mere interpretation of the questions. Second, because the sample included students from two different cultural contexts, differences in response styles, including modesty norms, uncertainty avoidance, or culturally influenced interpretations of "confidence", may have affected how students evaluated their intercultural abilities. Finally, for Croatian students, whose native language is typically Croatian, even though they chose to pursue their undergraduate studies in English, indicating a high level of confidence in their English language skills, there might have been challenges in interpreting the questions from the survey. These considerations do not undermine the study's findings but should be taken into account when interpreting gender-related patterns and temporal shifts.

6. IMPLICATIONS

The findings in this study carry several meaningful implications for both academic and organizational contexts. Firstly, cultural intelligence growth is not influenced by gender. The lack of a significant relationship between gender and cultural intelligence growth indicates that students of all genders possess equal potential to develop intercultural competencies when exposed to appropriate experiences and learning opportunities. This is an encouraging result, as it reinforces the importance of designing inclusive cultural intelligence training and intercultural education programs that provide equitable opportunities for all learners. Beyond academia, this insight translates to workplace settings, suggesting that organizations should invest equally in the intercultural training and development of all employees, rather than making assumptions about an individual's potential based on gender.

Second, women show more interest in cross-cultural learning, but have equivalent CQ growth. The finding that female participants reported greater enthusiasm for cross-cultural learning, despite demonstrating similar CQ growth as their male counterparts, has interesting implications for team composition and management. Organizations seeking to build effective international or multicultural teams might consider this enthusiasm as a motivational factor that could contribute positively to team dynamics, even if it does not directly predict greater

increases in CQ. Leaders and HR practitioners could leverage this enthusiasm to foster engagement and create supportive learning environments, while also ensuring that men are equally encouraged and provided with opportunities to develop cross-cultural skills.

Finally, CQ and team effectiveness are correlated, although the direction is unclear. Earlier studies found that global knowledge and cultural intelligence significantly relate to team performance (Randazzo-Davis & Nelson, 2020), and even that working in global virtual teams increases students' understanding of cultural differences (Swartz & Shrivastava, 2021). Erez and colleagues (2019) were able to show that it is the trust component in the culturally diverse virtual teams that leads to increased cultural intelligence and global identity. The observed correlation between cultural intelligence and virtual team efficiency in this study further demonstrates the value of recognizing cultural intelligence as a core competency in today's workplaces, which are increasingly globalized, and since the Covid-19 pandemic, increasingly virtual. Although the direction of this relationship remains unclear, leaving us unable to tell whether higher CQ leads to more effective collaboration, or it is the other way around, it highlights the importance of prioritizing both the development of cross-cultural competencies and virtual team competencies. Investing in CQ development of their employees, companies can reap the benefits of enhanced team cohesion, trust, and overall performance, particularly in virtual environments where any cultural differences might further be amplified by physical distance and/or technological barriers.

Overall, this study offers findings that suggest that organizations and educators should focus less on demographic characteristics such as gender and more on appreciating individual differences and meeting the students at the level they find themselves.

7. CONCLUSION

This study found no significant differences in cultural intelligence (CQ) levels, CQ growth, or virtual team efficiency based on gender, despite female participants reporting greater enthusiasm for cross-cultural learning. CQ was positively associated with virtual team efficiency, particularly at the end of the project, underscoring its importance for collaboration in multicultural, virtual settings. These findings highlight the value of focusing on intercultural skill development for all individuals rather than demographic factors, emphasizing inclusive training approaches in both education and organizational contexts.

REFERENCES

Ahmadi Forg, F., Doosti, P., Hasani, H., Heydari, F., Roshanfekr, M., Hassangholizadeh, L., Ramezani, F., & Vahedi, S. (2025). Investigating the relationship between cultural intelligence and cultural competence among students in nursing faculties in Iran: an analytical cross-sectional study. *BMC Nursing*, *24*, 1-8.

Ajeakoh, C. A., Yesilada, F. & Nuhu Ahmed, J. (2025). Cross-cultural negotiation styles in Shandong province, China: the role of cultural and emotional intelligence. *Future Business Journal*, *11*(181), 1-16.

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

Awad, N.H.A., El-Sayed, B.K.M., & Ashour, H.M.AA.A. (2025). Unlocking innovation and resilience among emergency nurses through cultural intelligence: insights from a structural equation model. *BMC Nursing*, *24*, 1-12.

Chédru, M., & Delhoume, C. (2023). How does studying abroad affect engineering students' intercultural competence: A longitudinal case study. *European Journal of Engineering Education, 48*(2), 345-362.

Chen, A. S., Nguyen T. K., Yang, H., & Lin, Y. (2024). The effect of job autonomy on the indirect relationships among expatriates' cultural intelligence, psychological availability, and work outcomes. *Current Psychology*, *43*(10), 9258-9269.

Chen, F., & Shi, D. (2025). Organizational diversity and inclusion communications and White employees' allyship communication: Pathways to motivational cultural intelligence and engagement, *Public Relations Review*, *51*(4), 1-16.

Chen, G. M., & Starosta, W. J. (2000). The development and validation of the intercultural communication sensitivity scale. *Human Communication,* 3, 1-15.

Crowne, K. A. (2008). What leads to cultural intelligence? *Business Horizons*, *51*(5), 391-399.

Earley, P. C. (2002). Redefining Interactions Across Cultures and Organizations: Moving Forward with Cultural Intelligence. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *24*, 271-299.

Engle, R. L., & Crowne, K. A. (2014). The impact of international experience on cultural intelligence: An application of contact theory in a structured short-term programme. *Human Resource Development International, 17*(1), 30-46.

Erez, M., Lisak, A., Harush, R., Glikson, E., Nouri, R., & Shokef, E. (2019). Going global: Developing management students' cultural intelligence and global identity in culturally diverse virtual teams. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, *12*(3), 330-355.

Gilson, L. L., Maynard, M. T., Jones, N. C., Young, Vartiainen, M., & Hakonen, M. (2015). Virtual teams research: 10 years, 10 themes, and 10 opportunities. *Journal of Management*, *41*(5), 1-25.

Gulabovska, M., & Leeson, P. (2014). Why are women better decoders of nonverbal language?. *Gender Issues*, *31*, 202-218.

Lee, J., & Hwang, J. (2024). Antecedents of American hospitality students' intercultural communication apprehension: Effect of ethnocentrism, cultural intelligence and core self-evaluations, *The Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, *34,* 1-14.

Lenartowicz, T., Johnson, J. P., & Konopaske, R. (2014). The application of learning theories to improve cross-cultural training programs in MNCs. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *25*(12), 1697-1719.

Mangla, N., & Singh, K. (2024). Cultural Intelligence as a Strategic Approach to Change Management & the Mediating Role of Learning Organization. *International Journal of Global Business and Competitiveness*, *19,* 49-61.

Novikova, I. A., Gridunova, M. V., Novikov, A. L., & Shlyakhta, D. A. (2020). Ethno-national attitudes as intercultural competence predictors in university students: Gender differences. *Behavioral Sciences, 10*(2), 45.

Novikova, I. A., Gridunova, M. V., Novikov, A. L., & Shlyakhta, D. A. (2022). Cognitive abilities and academic achievement as intercultural competence predictors in Russian school students. *Journal of Intelligence, 10*(2), 35.

Okpara, J. O., & Kabongo, J. D. (2011). Cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment: A study of Western expatriates in Nigeria. *Journal of World Business*, 46(1), 22-30.

Piršl, E., Drandić, D., & Matošević, A. (2022). Cultural intelligence: Key intelligence of the 21st century? Validation of CQS instrument (Kulturalna inteligencija: ključna inteligencija 21. stoljeća? Validacija CQS instrumenata). *Medijske studije*, *13*(25), 90-105.

Randazzo-Davis, M., & Nelson, C. (2020). International business education using global virtual teams: Relationship between cultural intelligence, global knowledge, and team performance. *International Journal for Business Education*, *160*(1): 42-61.

Setti, I., Sommovigo, V., & Piergiorgio, A. (2022). Enhancing expatriates' assignments success: the relationships between cultural intelligence, cross-cultural adaptation and performance. *Current Psychology*, *41*(7), 4291-4311.

Shi, R. (2025). Research on the path of enhancing intercultural communication competence of students in applied colleges and universities supported by intelligent learning system. *Applied Mathematics and Nonlinear Sciences, 10*(1), 89-102.

Solhaug, T., & Kristensen, N. N. (2019). Gender and intercultural competence: Analysis of intercultural competence among upper secondary school students in Denmark and Norway. *Educational Psychology, 39*(8), 1000-1017.

Song, H., Varma, A., & Yingying Z. Z. (2023). Motivational cultural intelligence and expatriate talent adjustment: an exploratory study of the moderation effects of cultural distance, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *34*(2), 344-368.

Swartz, S., & Shrivastava, A. (2021). Stepping up the game–meeting the needs of global business through virtual team projects. *Higher Education, Skills and Work-Based Learning*, *12*(2), 346-368.

Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Tan, M. (2019). Cultural Intelligence - Management - Oxford Bibliographies Cultural Intelligence. *Cultural Intelligence*. Oxford University Press.

Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., Ng, K. Y., Rockstuhl, T., Tan, M. L., & Koh, C. (2012). Sub-Dimensions of the Four Factor Model of Cultural Intelligence: Expanding the Conceptualization and Measurement of Cultural Intelligence. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, *6*(4), 295-313.

Vidović, M. (2024). The dynamics of cross-cultural learning: A U-shaped journey?. *Journal of Accounting and Management, XIV*(1), 35-48.

Vlajčić, D., & Liović, A. (2023), Dominantnost muških vrijednosti i izbjegavanje neizvjesnosti kao instrumenti razvoja kulturne inteligencije studenata. *Društvena istraživanja*, *32*(1), 45-71.

Ward, C., Fischer, R., Zaid Lam, F. S., & Hall, L. (2009). *The convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of scores on a self-report measure of cultural intelligence: Evidence from New Zealand secondary school students*. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 69*(1), 85-100.

Wawrosz, P., & Jurásek, M. (2021). Developing intercultural efficiency: The relationship between cultural intelligence and self-efficacy. *Social Sciences, 10*(8), 312.

Yang, C. (2023). Motivational cultural intelligence and well-being in cross-cultural workplaces: a study of migrant workers in Taiwan, *Employee relations*, *45*(3), 743-761.

Zhang, X. (2024). Gender differences in intercultural competence: The moderating role of intercultural experiences. *Journal of International and Intercultural Communication*. https://doi.org/10.1080/17513057.2024.2345678

Zhang, X., & Zhou, M. (2023). Chinese university students' intercultural competence. *Journal of International Students, 13*(2), 456-472.

Ziada, K. E., van der Linden, D., Dutton, E., Almalki, N. S., Bakhiet, S. F. A., Ihsan, Z., Furnham, A., Essa, Y. A. S., Alqafari, S. M., Alsahli, D. S., & Aljbr, A. S. R. (2021). Sex and culture differences in cultural intelligence: A study comparing Saudi Arabians and Egyptians. *SAGE Open, 11*(3), 1-13.