GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE INTERCULTURAL TRAINING PROGRAMS
FOR BUSINESS EXPATRIATES: AN INTEGRATED VIEW

by

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES ........................................ x
LIST OF TABLES .......................................... xi
ABSTRACT .................................................. xii

Chapter

1 INTRODUCTION: THE NEED FOR INTERCULTURAL TRAINING 1

1.1 Rationale ............................................. 2
1.2 Benefits .............................................. 10
1.3 Method of Analysis ................................. 10

2 INTERCULTURAL ENCOUNTER: ITS PROCESS AND COMMUNICATION. ............. 13

2.1 A Communication Process in Intercultural Encounters ..................... 14

2.1.1 Culture and Communication ................................ 14
2.1.2 Intercultural Communication ................................ 18
2.1.3 Cultural Compatibility .................................. 20

2.2 Concepts Related to Intercultural Functioning 23

2.2.1 Culture Shock ...................................... 23

2.2.1.1 Definitions .................................... 23
2.2.1.2 Influences of Culture Shock .................. 26

2.2.2 Adjustment .......................................... 28

2.2.2.1 Definitions .................................... 28
2.2.2.2 An Adjustment Process: A Subjective View ........ 31

2.2.3 Intercultural Effectiveness/Competence 38
4 A MODEL FOR SUCCESSFUL INTERCULTURAL FUNCTIONING:
AN INTEGRATED VIEW

4.1 Effectiveness Factors for Intercultural Functioning

4.1.1 Factors Affecting Successful Expatriation in the Literature

4.1.1.1 Technical Competence
4.1.1.2 Personality Traits
4.1.1.3 Interactional Skills/Abilities
4.1.1.4 Family situations
4.1.1.5 Environmental Conditions

4.1.2 Two Underlying Dimensions: Structural Environmental Conditions and Effectiveness Factors

4.2 Effectiveness Factors Determined by Structural Environmental Conditions

4.2.1 Structural Environmental Conditions
4.2.2 Cultural Compatibility
4.2.3 Job Type
4.2.4 Length of Overseas Assignment
4.2.5 Managerial Structure
4.2.6 Staffing Attitude

4.3 Relationships between Effectiveness Factors and Successful Intercultural Functioning

4.3.1 Personality Traits
4.3.2 Interactional Skills/Abilities
4.3.3 Cultural Knowledge

4.4 Summary

5 AN APPROACH TO EFFECTIVE INTERCULTURAL TRAINING

5.1 Conceptual Functions and Goals of Intercultural Training

5.1.1 Functions of Intercultural Training
5.1.2 Goals of Intercultural Training

5.2 Effectiveness of Intercultural Training

5.2.1 Training Conditions
5.2.2 Types of Intercultural Training
5.3 Classifications for Intercultural Training
Programs ........................................ 130

5.3.1 Goals of Intercultural Training ........ 130

5.3.1.1 Eight Goals of Intercultural Training .... 130
5.3.1.2 Three Foci of Intercultural Training .... 132
5.3.1.3 Three Goals of Intercultural Training .... 135

5.3.2 Methods of Intercultural Training .......... 136

5.3.2.1 Didactic Method .................. 137
5.3.2.2 Experiential Method ............... 139

5.3.3 Content of Intercultural Training .......... 142

5.3.4 Intensity of Intercultural Training ........ 144

5.3.4.1 Low Intensity .................. 145
5.3.4.2 Moderate Intensity ............... 145
5.3.4.3 High Intensity .................. 146
5.3.4.4 Intensity in Affective, Cognitive, and Behavioral Training ........ 147

5.4 Summary ........................................ 153

6 GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE INTERCULTURAL TRAINING
PROGRAMS ........................................ 155

6.1 Relationship between the Conceptual Model and
Goals of Intercultural Training in Practice .......... 156

6.2 Selecting Training: Guidelines for Choosing
Effective Intercultural Training Programs .......... 159

6.3 An Application of the Guidelines:
A Hypothetical Illustration .................. 162

6.3.1 A Case of Expatriation ................ 162
6.3.2 An Application of the Guidelines ....... 163

6.4 Advantages of the Guidelines ............... 167
7 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION ................. 169
  7.1 Summary ................................ 169
  7.2 Conclusion ............................ 176
REFERENCES ............................... 180
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 The U-shaped Curvilinear Relationship between Adjustment and Length of Stay 32

Figure 2.2 The Relationships Among a Person's Frame of Reference, and Environment 34

Figure 2.3 The Person in a Highly Unfamiliar Environment Without Benefit of Intercultural Training 37

Figure 2.4 The Process of Successful Intercultural Functioning 50

Figure 4.1 The Model of Successful Intercultural Functioning for Business Expatriates 113

Figure 6.1 The Model of Successful Intercultural Functioning for Business Expatriates: The Relationship with Goals of Intercultural Training 157
LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1.1 Effectiveness Factors for Structural Environmental Conditions: Cultural Compatibility ................................. 107
Table 4.1.2 Effectiveness Factors for Structural Environmental Conditions: Job Type .................. 108
Table 4.1.3 Effectiveness Factors for Structural Environmental Conditions: Length of Overseas Assignment .......................... 109
Table 4.1.4 Effectiveness Factors for Structural Environmental Conditions: Managerial Structure ........................................... 110
Table 4.1.5 Effectiveness Factors for Structural Environmental Conditions: Staffing Attitude .............................................. 111
Table 5.1 Evaluation of Intercultural Training Programs ................................................................. 152
ABSTRACT

Intercultural training aims to facilitate effective and successful functioning in intercultural encounters. The expansion of international business requires personnel who are able to function effectively in international and intercultural settings. This demand creates a need for intercultural training. Effective intercultural training varies according to each different condition of expatriation. The purpose of this study is to establish guidelines for effective intercultural training programs for business. Focusing on business expatriation, this thesis examines and integrates two separate fields dealing with intercultural training: business management and intercultural studies.

As a general background of expatriation, intercultural encounters are examined. A communication perspective clearly explains the difficulties of intercultural encounters and, thus, the effectiveness of intercultural training. Complicated concepts in intercultural encounters, such as culture shock,
adjustment, and effectiveness are examined and conceptualized in the process of successful intercultural functioning. This conceptual process is a foundation to integrate several concepts which are introduced in this thesis.

The multinational corporation is examined in order to extract specific conditions in business expatriation. Also, the roles and functions of business expatriates are examined. From the investigation of the business management literature, several organizational conditions, such as job type, length of overseas assignment, managerial structure, staffing attitude, and organizational behavior and business situations in the host culture, are found.

Two new conceptualizations, structural environmental conditions and effectiveness factors, are proposed. Structural environmental conditions are organizational and cultural conditions which determine successful intercultural functioning. Effectiveness factors are qualifications required for successful intercultural functioning, which are determined by structural environmental conditions. A model of successful intercultural functioning integrates these two
new conceptualizations and the process of successful intercultural functioning.

Effective intercultural training is defined as the most suitable training for a given structural environmental conditions. A new classification of intercultural training programs in terms of goals, methods, content, and intensity, is also proposed. This classification of intercultural training programs serves as a criterion for finding the most suitable training.

Given this basis, the thesis proposes guidelines for effective intercultural training programs. The guidelines have advantages of being theoretically grounded, of integrating specific and general conditions for expatriation, and providing a simple and efficient form as guidelines.
Chapter 1
INTRODUCTION: THE NEED FOR INTERCULTURAL TRAINING

Intercultural training aims to facilitate effective and successful functioning in intercultural settings. However, guidelines for effective intercultural training programs have not been established. In particular, previous research on intercultural training has not distinguished the different training needs of persons with different purposes for staying abroad. An effective intercultural training program should be planned with the purpose of the stay in mind. The problem is that two separate fields deal with intercultural training in relative isolation: intercultural studies (mainly in psychology and communication) and business management. An integrated view will provide more comprehensive and effective guidelines for intercultural training programs for business purposes. Another problem is the lack of a theoretical perspective toward intercultural training research. Theoretical approaches can articulate specific variables that determine a need for certain types of
training, synthesize previous studies, and, thereby lead to a comprehensive approach.

This thesis examines past research on intercultural training, mainly from intercultural studies and business management, integrates them, and conceptualizes intercultural functioning in order to establish guidelines for effective intercultural training programs for business. This chapter presents the rationale and benefits of this thesis and methods of analysis.

1.1 Rationale

This section explains the significance of intercultural training for business. The increasing demand for intercultural training and the lack of an integrated view of intercultural studies and business management are discussed.

The demand for well-developed intercultural training is obvious in business because of the increase in international business and the high rate of unsuccessful international assignments (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Henry, 1965; Hogan & Goodson, 1990; Misa & Fabricatore, 1979; Tung, 1981). First, the increase of international business and cultural diversity in the United States
presents business situations in which cultural differences are confronted. In these days, business itself has been expanding internationally. Not only have multinational corporations proliferated, but also domestic firms have been affected by international business. Callahan (1989) stated that most business firms, including both domestic and multinationals, had direct or indirect involvement internationally in their growth and believed that it was important to learn about different countries.

Also, several recent articles show the importance of international assignments. An international assignment has been the first step to the top position in a dynamic multinational corporation (Callahan, 1989). Rhinesmith, Williamson, Ehlen, and Maxwell (1989) explained the evolution of a new organizational form called the "global enterprise" in the last decade. The global enterprise is an extension of the multinational corporation. It has no national or regional boundaries to potential products, business opportunities, and manufacturing locations. In multinational corporations, the parent company and local subsidiaries have different systems and operational tasks. However, a global enterprise operates with a global strategic perspective which is an integration of a cross-cultural view and a highly localized view (Rhinesmith et
al., 1989). In addition, Hanamura (1989) described another business condition: increasing cultural diversity. Minorities and immigrants make working situations with people who have different backgrounds common within the United States. These recent changes in business strongly call for skills of understanding and dealing with cultural differences and for producing interculturally effective people. Callahan (1989) stated that intercultural skills training is essential, although training has not been widely adopted.

Past research shows that international assignments are frequently unsuccessful and that a failure in international assignment is, to the firms, not only costly but also a strategic problem. Failure in an assignment basically refers to expatriates' premature return from international assignments. Tung (1987a) defined failure of expatriate assignment as "the inability of an expatriate to perform effectively in a foreign country, resulting in his being fired or recalled home" (p. 2). In the last two decades, estimates of unsuccessful international assignment have ranged between 25 and 40 percent (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Henry, 1965; Hogan & Goodson, 1990; Misa & Fabricatore, 1979; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Tung, 1981, 1982). Previous research
suggests that the major reason for failure is expatriates' inability to adjust to a different culture. Expatriates return early because of "their poor performance or their inability to adjust to the foreign environment" (Black & Mendenhall, 1990, p. 114). Black and Mendenhall (1990) stated that half of the expatriates who do not return early perform at a low level of effectiveness. This ineffectiveness is expensive for the parent firms. A failed international assignment costs $50,000 to $150,000 on an average (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Hogan & Goodson, 1990; Misa & Fabricator, 1979). Misa and Fabricatore (1979) also stated that the failure may lead to problems in future relationships with the overseas client due to the negative impressions that are created by premature return.

These studies indicate that there is a demand for individuals who have effective abilities and skills in international assignments. In fact, Tung (1982) reported that only 32 percent of the U.S. companies which sent expatriates offered intercultural training. Past research emphasized the importance of intercultural training as a solution to this problem (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Henry, 1965; Hogan & Goodson, 1990;

An integrated view of intercultural studies and business management for intercultural training seems to be necessary. As mentioned above, while the need for intercultural training in business is obvious, few studies on intercultural issues have been done. Black and Mendenhall (1990) cited Adler's (1983) finding that only one percent of the articles published in 24 management journals from 1971 to 1980 dealt with intercultural interaction, and recent data that only 9 percent of the articles in the major international business journals and 1.5 percent in the Academy of Management Review dealt with international human resource management issues. These data indicate that very few studies focus on intercultural training in the business management field. Latham (1988) stated that the study of intercultural training in human resource management has not substantially improved since the 1970s.

On the other hand, in intercultural studies, research tends to focus on the factors of intercultural effectiveness (Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Dinges, 1983; Gudykunst & Hammer, 1984; Hammer, Gudykunst, & Wiseman,
1978; Hannigan, 1990; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Kealey, 1989; Ruben, 1989; Ruben & Kealey, 1979; Spitzberg, 1989) and the processes of adjustment (Adler, 1975; Brein & David, 1971; Benson, 1978; Church, 1982; Graham, 1983; Grove & Torbiorn, 1985; Kim, 1978, 1988a; Ruben & Kealey, 1979; Taft, 1977) rather than on programming of effective intercultural training. Although examining intercultural effectiveness and adjustment is a very important first step in learning about effective training, most of the previous studies are insufficient to guide effective training. While studies established some factors of effectiveness and stages or processes of adjustment, they did not consider the different purposes of expatriates. Those studies did not take into account different reasons for living abroad, different degrees of adjustment, or different goals. The studies focused on students, Peace Corps volunteers, military personnel, business people, etc., yet did not examine their differences.

There are many studies focusing on training itself (Brislin, 1986; Brislin, Cushner, Cherrie, & Young, 1986; Brislin & Pedersen, 1976; Cushner, 1989; Fiedler, Mitchell, & Triandis, 1971; Gudykunst, Hammer, & Wiseman, 1977; Hughes-Wiener, 1986; Landis & Brislin, 1983; Martin, 1986; Mendenhall, Oddou, Stimpson, & Jackson, 1982; Paige,
1986; Triandis, 1977). However, most of the studies do not take into account different objectives of an intercultural encounter. In fact, although a few studies considered the evaluation of training (Black, & Mendenhall, 1990; Triandis, 1977), they did not distinguish different objectives. Triandis (1977) stated:

\[ \text{The central question will no longer be "Is this a good program?" but "Is this a program that meets the diverse objectives of all the relevant groups?" (p. 28)} \]

Triandis (1977) emphasized the importance of clarifying objectives, yet, treated an intercultural training program as one that can meet diverse needs.

Researchers who are concerned with business aspects, however, emphasize specific objectives and needs. Grove & Torbiorn (1985) stated that "...a training program can be designed only in relation to specific trainees in a specific context" (p. 221). Harris and Moran (1979) also noted that "Specific training objectives must be developed according to specific needs and purposes of the organization" (p. 147). These criteria imply the need for a focus on a specific purpose and conditions of expatriation in order to clarify the objective of intercultural training. Abinader (1976) stated that intercultural training is a tool which MNCs "... can utilize to enhance corporate and personnel resources to
meet development goals" (p. 38). Because this point has not been commonly emphasized, guidelines for effective intercultural training programs, which examine a specific purpose and need, have not been developed.

It is assumed that guidelines can be established when the training objectives are clear. An underlying assumption of the present research is that different objectives for staying abroad require different types of intercultural training because the conditions and factors for successful intercultural functioning vary with the objectives. In other words, business expatriates need specific intercultural training because of specific business purposes and conditions. Then, in a way, it is assumed that effective intercultural training can be achieved by considering the important conditions for each expatriation. In other words, the effectiveness of intercultural training differs in different conditions of expatriation. Therefore, an integrated view of intercultural studies and business management is needed in order to assess the specific needs for training, and to help to establish guidelines for effective intercultural training programs for business.
1.2 Benefits

There are several benefits of this thesis. First, by providing guidelines for effective intercultural training programs, this thesis responds to the need for intercultural training in business, because practical guidelines focusing on business purposes have not been established. Second, an integrated view of intercultural studies and business management for intercultural training could not only offer a new broad approach, but also recognize different needs for intercultural training. Third, a theoretically-based perspective will lead to a comprehensive approach toward intercultural training. Finally, this thesis clarifies the importance of a communication approach to intercultural studies and training.

1.3 Method of Analysis

Establishing guidelines for effective intercultural training programs for business requires an integrated view of intercultural studies and business management. It is important to consider the different perspectives toward expatriation.

The following chapters will analyze the literature of intercultural studies and business management, propose guidelines for effective intercultural training programs
in business, and assess effective intercultural training for different conditions of business expatriation.

Chapter 2 will focus on the literature in intercultural studies in order to examine intercultural encounters. A communication approach to intercultural studies is emphasized as a background for intercultural encounters. A theoretical perspective on intercultural studies will aid in the conceptualization of successful intercultural functioning. A process model of successful intercultural functioning will be proposed.

Chapter 3 will examine business perspectives on international assignments in order to clarify the goals and conditions of business expatriates. As background conditions for business expatriation, the structure of multinational corporations (MNCs) and roles and functions of business expatriates will be explained. Based on these examinations, organizational conditions influencing business expatriates will be discussed.

Chapter 4 will propose a model of successful intercultural training by integrating a new conceptualization toward factors affecting successful business expatriates and the process of successful
intercultural functioning. The model will conceptually provide a foundation for establishing guidelines for effective intercultural training programs.

Chapter 5 will focus on intercultural training. First, based on the new conceptualizations presented in the preceding chapters, functions, goals, and effectiveness of intercultural training will be conceptually explained. Second, currently used intercultural training programs will be classified in order to achieve effectiveness of intercultural training.

In Chapter 6, by integrating presented conceptualizations and considerations, guidelines for effective intercultural training programs will be proposed. Also, the relationships between the conceptual model of successful intercultural functioning and the practical goals of intercultural training will be integrated in the model. Finally, an application of guidelines will be illustrated.
Chapter 2

INTERCULTURAL ENCOUNTER: ITS PROCESS AND COMMUNICATION

A communication approach to the study on intercultural training is indispensable. Intercultural encounters in which intercultural training is called for refer to encounters of people from different cultures. The communication approach provides a conceptual basis for intercultural encounters. This chapter examines intercultural encounters using a communication approach in order to understand the relationship between culture and communication. This examination provides an analysis of the general condition of intercultural encounters.

In this chapter, first, a communication approach will provide a background for intercultural encounters and explain the influence of cultural compatibility. Second, in order to clarify concepts related to intercultural encounters in the literature, three concepts - culture shock, adjustment, and effectiveness/competence - will be discussed and conceptualized. Finally, a process
detailing successful intercultural functioning will be presented.

2.1 A Communication Process in Intercultural Encounters

This section examines the background of intercultural encounters through a communication perspective. First, the relationship between communication and culture is conceptualized. Second, intercultural communication is explained. Finally, the influence of cultural compatibility on intercultural encounters is explained.

2.1.1 Culture and Communication

A communication approach is indispensable in studying intercultural encounters because culture and communication are reciprocally related. Culture can be defined as values, norms, and patterns of thought and behavior that members of society create and share through communication. In turn, culture is also shaped and learned through communication. This relationship between culture and communication is shown in the socialization process.

Keesing (1974) summarized two major perspectives toward culture. On the one hand, the evolutionary perspective sees culture as an adaptive system and asks
how human communities develop and change particular behavioral patterns which "make human life viable in particular ecological settings" (Keesing, 1974, p. 74).

On the other hand, the ideational perspective views cultures as systems of ideas which include systems of knowledge (cognition), shared symbolic systems (cumulative creations of mind), and a shared code of meaning (a matter of interpretation).

Hofstede (1980) defined culture as "... collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (p. 21). He explained the collective programming of the mind:

collective level that most or all of our mental programming is learned, which is shown by the fact that we share it with people who went through the learning process but who do not have the same genes (Hofstede, 1980, p. 16).

Taft (1977) followed a definition of culture that is:

the knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, needs and motivation, cognitive affective and conative patterns which shape [an individual's] adaptation to the physical and projective cultural setting in which they live (p. 130).

These definitions clearly share in common the ideas that culture is what is shared by a certain group of people and is shaping those people's behaviors and thoughts. This
sharing and shaping is, however, realized through communication.

Collier and Thomas (1988) explained culture from an interpretivist perspective. Members in a culture intersubjectively interpret and understand texts. This intersubjectivity is "private meaning transmitted from one subject to another" (Collier & Thomas, 1988, p. 105). Communication is what makes transmission possible. Then, Collier and Thomas (1988) defined culture as "a historically transmitted system of symbols and meanings, identifiable through norms and beliefs shared by people" (p. 99).

Applegate and Sypher (1988) also viewed "people as active interpreters of their social environment" (p. 42). Culture can be seen as people's interpretations which are created and maintained. Communication is a sharing process between people, which constructs their interpretations. Martin (1976) also emphasized that culture is a created part of an environment, and that language, which is a part of communication, plays the most important role in creating similarity in culture.
Kim (1988a) also illustrated the importance of communication in culture by employing a general systems perspective. Individuals are viewed as a part of a systemic environment (culture). Individuals and the environment are interdependent; that is, individuals can survive, function, and develop in a certain environment by gaining information about the environment. People learn about their environments (culture) through communication. Kim (1988a) stated:

Because we cannot interact with and adapt to our environment without the activities of encoding and decoding information, communication is the central pillar of all human learning (p. 45).

This explanation stresses the idea that culture is learned through communication, that is, the socialization process.

These views explain the mutual influences between culture and communication. Prosser (1976) stated:

Communication and culture are so closely bound together that virtually all communication engaged in by humans is culturally linked. ... Communication and culture are ongoing processes without precise beginnings or endings (p. 417).

In short, culture and communication are reciprocally related. Communication creates culture, and culture shapes people's thoughts and behaviors, which, in turn, lead to communication. This relationship explains the socialization process that people in a society
automatically learn as members of a culture. According to this perspective, culture, which includes values, norms, and patterns of thought and behavior, can be learned.

2.1.2 Intercultural Communication

Intercultural communication can refer to the interactions of people who have different cultural backgrounds. Although each cultural background strongly affects interaction, intercultural communication is considered an interaction whose interactants' backgrounds are greatly different. In this sense, the basic process of communication in intercultural settings is not different from any other kind of communication.

Brislin (1980) referred to intercultural communication as "... the interaction of people from different countries or cultures and to the subsequent exchange of information related to both factual and emotional concerns" (p. 138). When the degree of dissimilarity is high across interactants' cultures, interactants may easily misunderstand objects and events to which their counterparts refer. Behavior might also be inappropriate or misinterpreted because of the lack of shared background. Prosser (1976) stated "... the more dissimilar we are, the more likely our intercultural
communication will stress conflict and communication breakdown" (p. 422).

Brislin, Landis, and Brandt (1983) studied factors which affect communication in intercultural situations. They conceptualized the antecedents of intercultural behavior which direct human behavior in intercultural settings. Although detailing their conceptualization is beyond the scope of this thesis, their explanation points out that many factors affect intercultural behavior, such as the individual's past experiences with the different culture, the perception of cultural differences, the degree of anxiety toward a new culture, the goals in the new culture, cognitive and perceptual sets which shape one's own view toward the world, self-perception and so forth (Brislin et al., 1983, pp. 4-7). That is to say, misunderstanding, misattribution, misexpectation, and misinterpretation occur not only because of the lack of cultural knowledge but through the influence of individual factors, such as cognitive patterns and affective traits which are culturally influenced.

However, intercultural communication does not have a different process from other kinds of communication. Kim (1988b) suggested that a difference between
intercultural communication and other kinds of human communication is a matter of the "... degree of heterogeneity between the experiential backgrounds of the individuals involved" (p. 13). Sarbaugh (1988) also described the degree of difference as the level of homogeneity/heterogeneity. Martin (1976) stated:

Since individuals may differ not only in the number of cultural traits they share in common but the degree to which each of these traits are similar, the number of possible cultural characteristic combinations is infinite (p. 432).

This statement implies that communication is affected by different backgrounds regardless of whether the communication is inter- or intra-cultural communication. Martin (1976) emphasized that "... there is no such thing as cross-cultural communication ..." (p. 432). On the one hand, a communication process is the same in interactions among both different and the same cultures. On the other hand, with the reciprocal relation between culture and communication, individuals having different backgrounds increase homogeneity by communicating.

2.1.3 Cultural Compatibility

The term, cultural compatibility, used by Kedia and Bhagat (1988) refers to the degree of similarities between cultures. Following from the discussions in the preceding sections, the more the cultures of interactants
are compatible, the less difficult their communication will be.

Because culture is defined as values, norms, and patterns of thought and behavior in a society, culture affects not only communication with people in the society but also one's living in the society. There are many aspects of culture which affect foreigners' living in the society.

Hofstede (1980) empirically found four dimensions of culture, which are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity. Power distance is based on one of human inequality whose value differs in each culture. For example, in an organization, inequality in power is found in the boss-subordinate relationship. Bosses tend to maintain or enlarge power distance, and subordinates tend to reduce it. The level of power distance refers to the equilibrium which these tendencies create. This level is socially determined (Hofstede, 1980). Uncertainty avoidance refers to the tolerance for uncertainty which "... varies considerably among people in subsidiaries in different countries..." (Hofstede, 1980, p. 110). Individualism indicates the relationship between the individuality and the collectivity which implies value
in each culture. **Masculinity** refers to the sex role expectation. All these dimensions differ in each culture.

In the literature, many aspects of cultural differences are pointed out. Each country is different in those aspects. Each of them is assumed to affect life style as well as communication. Therefore, cultural compatibility can be a measure of ease in one's communication with people from other cultures and living in different cultures from one's native one.

In short, intercultural communication tends to generate communication difficulties. Communication among people in the same culture seems to be more effective and efficient. However, the concept of intercultural communication is not qualitatively different from other kinds of communication. **Intercultural** refers to the degree of dissimilarity between cultures of intercultural encounters. This conceptualization explains culture as an environmental condition which affects human life. Therefore, cultural compatibility, which is the degree of similarities between two cultures, indicates ease of intercultural encounters.
2.2 Concepts Related to Intercultural Functioning

In order to investigate the effectiveness of intercultural training, it is important to know what needs to be considered in successful intercultural functioning. However, the term success as well as other terms, such as intercultural adjustment and intercultural effectiveness, has not been clearly conceptualized. These terms are sometimes used interchangeably. Yet, intercultural adjustment and effectiveness are sometimes considered as factors for successful intercultural functioning. In this section, the terms culture shock, intercultural adjustment, and intercultural effectiveness/competence are examined and conceptualized in order to clarify confused concepts related to intercultural functioning.

2.2.1 Culture Shock

Culture shock generally refers to a condition of emotional disturbance or stress which occurs at the initial stage of adjusting to a new environment. Although many researchers define culture shock and examine its causes, the influence of culture shock is controversial.

2.2.1.1 Definitions

Adler (1975) defined culture shock as:

... a set of emotional reactions to the loss of perceptual reinforcements from one's own cultures, to new cultural stimuli which have little or no meaning, and to the
misunderstanding of new and diverse experiences (p. 13).

Church (1982) viewed culture shock as "... a normal process of adaptation to cultural stress involving such symptoms as anxiety, helplessness, irritability, and a longing for a more predictable and gratifying environment" (p. 540). Kim (1988a) stated that culture shock "occurs whenever the capabilities of a living system are not sufficiently adequate to the demands of an unfamiliar cultural environment" (p. 57). These definitions are common where culture shock is emotional instability and reactions which are caused by an unfamiliar cultural environment.

Taft (1977) classified culture shock into six types: (1) tension caused by the effort for required adaptations; (2) sense of loss and feeling of deprivation arising from an unfamiliar environment; (3) rejection of the hosts and a feeling of rejection by them; (4) confusion in self-identity, values, and role expectations; (5) feeling of anxiety, discomfort, surprise, etc. caused by a realization of cultural differences; and (6) feeling of inability to perform effectively and to deal with the hosts competently.
Juffer (1986) categorized definitions of culture shock based on its causes. Five causes of culture shock are: (1) confronting a new environment or situation, (2) ineffectiveness of intercultural or interpersonal communication, (3) a threat to the emotional or intrapsychic well-being of the sojourner, (4) the need to adequately modify behavior to regain positive reinforcement from the new environment, and (5) growth experience (Juffer, 1986).

The stress model illustrated by Spradley and Phillips (1972) clearly conceptualized culture shock as a stress. The stress model distinguished three aspects of stress: stressors, state of stress, and stress responses. Stressors are "threatening stimuli" which can refer to causes of stress. State of stress refers strain or emotional instability generated "within the organism." Stress responses are present indicators of state of stress, that is, emotional reactions. According to this model, culture shock develops because a new environment (stressors) causes state of stress, such as anxiety, conflict, uncertainty, and frustration. Then, these states are manifested as stress responses, such as rejection, withdrawal, adaptation, innovation, mental illness, etc. (Spradley & Phillips, 1972). Throughout
past research, culture shock seems to reflect both states of stress and stress responses.

2.2.1.2 Influences of Culture Shock

Previous research shows both the negative and important influences of culture shock. In general, culture shock is viewed as a negative influence which reduces functioning in intercultural settings (Earley, 1987; Kealey & Ruben, 1983). Because emotional instability hinders effective adjustment, those with less culture shock are thought to be more effective in intercultural functioning. Brein and David (1971) viewed culture shock as limiting the understanding shown toward hosts. They noted that successful adjustment builds an interpersonal relationship with hosts in which understanding is a key to an effective relationship.

The relationships among culture shock, psychological adjustment, and effective interaction are positively related (Ruben & Kealey, 1979). Adler (1975) stated that culture shock is important to understanding changes in experiences. His view is that adjustment occurs through awareness of differences. In other words, without awareness people cannot adjust to a new environment. Kim (1988a) and Church (1982) had a similar view that culture shock, as manifested in stress and
emotional instability, triggers one to seek ways to handle the unfamiliar environment.

It is probably true that culture shock, a state of stress and its responses, manifests itself in negative behaviors. However, it is also important that culture shock takes a role in facilitating adjustment. Spradley and Phillips (1972) assumed that "... stressors are negative, unwanted situations which individuals seek to reduce or eliminate" (p. 519). This implies a negative aspect of culture shock, but which can also be a trigger to adjust.

Triandis (1986) explained about the timing of training that "... it may be best to let them [the trainees] first experience culture shock and then give them the training" (p. 197). This is because culture shock creates awareness of the need for learning and increases motivation. Brislin and Pedersen (1976) stated:

The real culture shock may come as we become aware of how much of our own thinking and behavior has been shaped by our own culture, even in ways we would prefer to reject in ourselves and others" (p. 81)

In short, culture shock is explained as one of the important factors in adjusting to a different environment.
Many effects of culture shock can be shown as negative behaviors. Culture shock includes various states of stress which are caused by tension, sense of loss, confusion, and anxiety. These states are manifested as rejection, withdrawal, mental illness in adjusting to a new environment. However, these negative effects force one to be aware of a difference which requires adjustment. In this sense, culture shock serves a psychological function in both positive and negative ways which are indispensable to adjustment to a new culture.

2.2.2 Adjustment

Adjusting to a different environment is a main focus in intercultural studies. Researchers have used several terms for coping with difficulties in different cultures, such as adjustment, acculturation, adaptation, assimilation, etc. In fact, these terms have not been precisely defined, as the same term is used in different studies to refer to different concepts, and the different terms are sometimes used to refer to the same concept (Kim, 1988a).

2.2.2.1 Definitions

Hannigan (1990) reviewed and conceptualized these terms. He described adjustment as "... a psychosocial concept which has to do with the process of achieving
harmony [the underline added] between the individual and the environment" (p. 91). Adaptation, on the other hand, is viewed as "... cognitive, attitudinal, behavioral, and psychological changes [the underline added] in an individual who lives in a new or foreign culture" (Hannigan, 1990, p. 92). Kim (1988a) stated that adjustment refers to "... the mental-emotional state of comfort, satisfaction, and positive attitude" (p. 38), and used the term adaptation as a broad concept of changing process which includes all aspects indicated by other terms. She also described assimilation as the acceptance of cultural elements and acculturation as the acquisition of some aspects of cultural elements.

However, Berry (1980) viewed acculturation as the process of changing or influence between two or more groups (cultures) when they encounter one another. According to him, adaptation is the third phase of acculturation process which includes contact and conflict phases. Adjustment is one of modes of adaptation in which other modes are to withdraw or to react. Assimilation occurs when an adaptation process takes the adjustment mode. Although Berry's view (1980) of acculturation is very different from Kim's (1988a), adaptation as a broad
sense of changing and adjustment as mode of harmonizing in an adaptation process are consistent.

Though these terms have slightly different definitions, they are common in the communication process. When people from different cultures interact, they start sharing with each other. Depending on the situation, both influence each other equally, or one side is stronger in influence. In any case, the communication process generates some changes as a result of the other's influence. The adjustment (or other terms) process can be basically explained by the relationship between culture and communication introduced in the previous section.

Taft (1977) explained the adaptation process as a combination of socialization in a new environment and desocialization of the person's previous culture. Kim (1988a) also illustrated the adaptation process as deculturation and acculturation (used as a synonym of socialization and desocialization respectively). Moreover, Kim (1988a) conceptualized adaptation dynamics through defining stress, adaptation, and growth as an increasing function over time. "Stress, adaptation, and growth, together, define the interval dynamics of stranger's cross-cultural experiences in a 'draw-back-to-
leap' pattern similar to the movement of a wheel" (Kim, 1988a, p. 56).

In this thesis, the term adjustment will be used to refer to coping with the difficulties of living in a different culture. Because this thesis focuses on business expatriates who stay in different cultures for several years, the term adjustment seems to be appropriate. Business expatriates may not need to completely adapt to a different culture because they will go back home. Also, it is assumed that business expatriates intend to behave strategically to cope with difficulties in order to accomplish their mission.

2.2.2.2 An Adjustment Process: A Subjective View

Brein and David (1971) and Church (1982) reviewed previous studies on short-term adjustment. Past research shows a U-shaped curvilinear relationship between adjustment and length of stay in a foreign country (Figure 2.1).

After a high adjustment level in the beginning, the adjustment level goes down, and then begins to increase again. Triandis (1986) stated an accepted explanation for U-curve of adjustment:
...when one first arrives at a different culture there is a euphoria associated with expectations that life in the new culture will be stimulating and interesting. As difficulties develop and one is unable to cope effectively with the culture, a depression sets in. However, as one learns about the other culture, coping becomes more and more effective. Thus, after some time (ranging from three to twelve months in different studies), the curve turns upward and one finally can cope in the new culture as well as in the original culture (p. 194).

Some researchers (Adler, 1975) classified adjustment into some stages, yet this up-down-up shifting is the same.

These adjustment studies seem to describe the adjustment phenomenon but not the causes of changes in the
adjustment. Torbiorn (1982) and Grove and Torbiorn (1985) illustrated the adjustment process from a psychological view.

Torbiorn (1982) conceptualized the adjustment process from a psychological mechanism, and called it "subjective adjustment." He explained the adjustment process as reflection of (1) one's satisfaction as determined by one's perception of environment in which changes take place; (2) behavior; and (3) frame of reference. Subjective adjustment refers to:

... changes which the individual actively engenders or passively accepts in order to achieve or maintain a state in which he can feel satisfaction (Torbiorn, 1982, p.55).

This model views a human being as a open system, that one changes or adjusts oneself through environmental experience. The model consists of three components: environment, behavior, and frame of reference. They interact with each other through one's perception. The perceptions mediating these three components are "perceived applicability of behavior" and "perceived clarity." Applicability of behavior is one's evaluation of behavior in the environment. It refers to "the extent to which behavior is consistent with the behavior of acquaintances in the environment" (Grove & Torbiorn, 1985, p. 208). Clarity is one's evaluation of consistency
between behavior and frame of reference. It refers to "the extent to which behavior is consistent with recommendations of the elements of the frame of references" (Grove & Torbiorn, 1985, p. 208). Figure 2.2 illustrates this relationship among three components.

![Diagram]

**Figure 2.2 The Relationships Among a Person's Frame of Reference, and Environment (Grove & Torbiorn, 1985, p. 208)**

Satisfaction is a reflection of the level of this perceived applicability and clarity. Torbiorn (1982)
stated "... the individual tends to feel greater satisfaction with his situation, the greater the perceived clarity and applicability are" (p. 59). The level of satisfaction is determined by the relation between applicability and clarity. Moreover, there is one's perceived standard level toward applicability and clarity. When the levels of applicability and clarity are higher than this standard, one basically feels satisfaction. Grove and Torbiorn (1985) called this standard "level of mere adequacy." Because this standard is perceived, the level of standard varies depending on the individual. This implies that an individual who has low standard levels feels satisfaction with low levels of clarity and applicability.

According to this model, an individual who enters a different culture seems to have a low level of applicability and a high level in clarity. The level of applicability is going to increase over time. The individual is consciously aware of differences and of the deficiency of his/her habitual pattern of activities. Then, the individual can assimilate a new habitual pattern over time. The increase of assimilation is represented by the increase of applicability. On the other hand, the levels of clarity depict a U-shaped curve line over time.
starting from high through low level and going up to a high level again. The clarity is one's "... confidence in the correctness of his frame of reference..." (Grove & Torbiorn, 1985, p. 213). In the beginning, one has a confidence of correctness of his/her frame of reference. However, his/her realization of inappropriate behavioral performances decrease confidence, that is the level of clarity decreases. By the lowest point of clarity, one has already learned a new habitual pattern. He/she will start having confidence for his/her frame of reference. So, the level of clarity begins to go up again. Grove and Torbiorn (1985) illustrated these changes of levels of applicability and clarity in a new environment as Figure 2.3. In Figure 2.3, the level of satisfaction depends on the levels of two curves being located, whether over or under the level of mere adequacy.

This conceptualization provides a comprehensive explanation of adjustment in the following three points. First, this model explains psychological aspects of the adjustment process. Second, the changes of adjustment level (satisfaction) in this model correspond with the U-shaped curve explanation. Third, this model systematically clarifies what factors affect the adjustment process.
Present studies on adjustment in the literature seem to view two aspects of adjustment: psychological and behavioral aspects of adjustment. Torbiorn's model explains the former, which reflects the psychological mechanisms of human beings. Effective interpersonal relations or interactional effectiveness (Brein & David, 1971; Ruben & Kealey, 1979) can be seen as behavioral
aspects of adjustment. The latter indicates a behavioral nature which is labeled by other persons through interaction. However, Torbiorn's model of the subjective adjustment can also explain these behavioral aspects. Building effective interpersonal relations depends on one's applicability of behavior. An individual is able to effectively behave or interact with the host through one's frame of reference and perceptions. In other words, one has to see an environment first, and then internally adjust behavior or the frame of reference towards the environment. In the sense that a human being behaves through a psychological mechanism, subjective (psychological) aspects of adjustment are important as a basis for the adjustment process.

2.2.3 Intercultural Effectiveness/Competence

Although examining intercultural effectiveness/competence also helps to understand important factors in successful intercultural functioning, past research fails to define these terms conceptually. The weakness of past research is that it has just pursued and enumerated factors related to effectiveness/competence. The absence of a clear conceptualization leads to confusion between the terms adjustment and effectiveness/competence.
Many facets of intercultural effectiveness/competence have been discussed and investigated; however, previous studies show divergent results and are not integrated. For example, Hammer et al. (1978) studied abilities important for effective intercultural functioning. They found three dimensions of intercultural effectiveness: (1) the ability to deal with psychological stress; (2) the ability to communicate effectively; and (3) the ability to establish interpersonal relationships. Ruben and Kealey (1979) studied the relationship between seven interpersonal communication skills and cross-cultural adaptation. They conceptualized adaptation as: culture shock, psychological adjustment, and interactional effectiveness. In this study, effectiveness is treated as interactional effectiveness.

Hawes and Kealey (1981) conceptualized the overseas effectiveness of a technical advisor. These components are personal/family adjustment, intercultural interaction, task accomplishment, and transfer of "software," or knowledge. Kealey (1989) examined intercultural effectiveness from various aspects of intercultural encounters based on accumulated studies. One of his findings indicates that effective persons have strong interpersonal skills and social interests. Kealey
(1989) noted that situational variables as well as personality traits strongly influence an individual's performance, and therefore, his/her effectiveness.

In addition to these empirical results, Ruben's (1989) review of competence studies pointed out three facets of competence: relational-building and maintenance, information-transfer, and compliance-gaining competence. He also questioned whether intercultural competence is a matter of attitude, knowledge, or behavior, and where intercultural competence resides. Spitzberg (1989) theoretically criticized previous studies on intercultural competence. Based on interpersonal communication competence studies, he stated that "competence in communicating can be viewed as an evaluative impression of communication quality" (Spitzberg, 1989, p. 249). That is, what is competent depends on impressions other people have about one's behavior. In this sense, competence should be examined from the standpoint of others' impressions of one's behavior.

Dinges (1983) analyzed past studies on intercultural competence and clarified dimensions of competence in order to compare and contrast each model of competence. These dimensions help to distinguish between
dimensions of each competence model, yet, they do not provide a conceptual framework integrating these models.

Ruben (1989) critically reviewed the study of cross-cultural competence and pointed out the need for conceptual clarity of competence, adjustment, and adaptation. In fact, it was assumed in past research that the expatriates' adjustment is strongly influenced by the effectiveness of their relations with their hosts (Brein & David, 1971). Kim (1988a) stated that communication competence is a direct indicator of successful adaptation. Communication competence is viewed as:

... the mental capabilities by which individuals organize themselves in and with their sociocultural milieu, developing ways of seeing, hearing, understanding, and responding to the environment (Kim, 1988a, p. 49).

Brein and David (1971) emphasized a strong influence of effectiveness in interpersonal relations on adjustment.

Most studies seem to be unaware that different goals and needs in intercultural encounters may require different types of competence. For instance, students and business persons may have different standards of competence and may need to be competent in different areas. Kim (1988a) noted that communication effectiveness is an element of competence, which refers to
"... fidelity in relating to some specific environmental expectation or task in a given sociocultural context" (p. 49). Brislin et al.'s (1983) model of intercultural behavior supports this view because, in the model, goals are one of the important factors brought to the intercultural situation. The importance of situational factors that some researchers suggested (Kealey, 1989; see Hannigan, 1990) also supports the influences of different goals and needs in intercultural encounters on intercultural competence.

Throughout the literature, intercultural effectiveness/competence focuses on aspects of communication. Then, effectiveness/competence, and adjustment are conceptualized and distinguished as behavioral aspects and psychological aspects of the adjustment process. Especially Spitzberg's (1989) view of competence as others' impression of behavior supports competence as having a behavioral basis. Also, the behavioral aspects of competence are supported by the view that intercultural effectiveness/competence differs in goals and needs. Therefore, it is reasonable to view intercultural effectiveness/competence in terms of behavioral aspects of adjustment for successful intercultural functioning.
In short, this section distinguishes concepts of culture shock, adjustment, and effectiveness/competence. Adjustment represents a psychological mechanism, which is reflected by one's satisfaction. Satisfaction is internally determined by one's perception of relationships among the environment, frame of reference, and behavior. Culture shock refers to a stage in which the satisfaction level is below a perceived acceptable standard. That is, the levels of applicability of behavior and clarity are lower than the level of mere adequacy. Because culture shock is explained by satisfaction levels, it is one of psychological functions. Effectiveness/competence can be judged by others' evaluation of one's behavior. It can indicate communication or interactional aspects of adjustment because effectiveness is not labeled until others see one's behavior and its effect, and they evaluate the effect. Thus, adjustment (psychological) is inner process, and effectiveness (behavioral aspects of adjustment) is an interactional process in intercultural functioning.

2.3 The Process of Successful Intercultural Functioning

This section discusses a conceptualization of the successful intercultural functioning and provides a conceptual model of the process of successful intercultural functioning. The model becomes the
conceptual basis for integrating many concepts discussed in the subsequent chapters.

2.3.1 A Conceptualization of Successful Intercultural Functioning

Previous research on intercultural encounters fails to distinguish concepts related to successful intercultural functioning and their relationships. Because each concept, such as adjustment and effectiveness, is so closely interrelated, each one often can be treated as a definition of successful intercultural functioning in itself. Kealey and Ruben (1983) stated that it tends to be interpreted that "if an individual succeeds in becoming well adjusted overseas, he or she will also be effective..." (p. 162). It might be true in a sense, yet it is not always the case.

For example, Brein and David (1971) stated that intercultural effectiveness can be an important factor for successful adjustment but is not always necessary. Kealey and Ruben (1983) also introduced a past study which found that people who are well adjusted and satisfied were ineffective at the task and limited in their knowledge about a host country.
First of all, success means that expatriates accomplish their expatriate purpose. To accomplish the expatriate purpose is the reason for one to go through intercultural encounters. A definition of success is shown in a study on selection for business expatriates. Miller (1972) stated:

...the accuracy of selection decisions can be improved only by means of comprehensive and accurate statements of those criteria significantly related to successful performance. ... Only when that task has been accomplished can the personnel researcher begin to consider identifying measure of individual differences that are apt to be significantly related in a statistical sense to measures of job success (p. 50).

This statement clearly defines success as accomplishing the mission of a business expatriate. It is task completion that is the objective of sending business expatriates. As long as a mission is accomplished, the purpose of a firm is accomplished. Task accomplishment is the ultimate goal in successful expatriation. The process to achieve this goal can be called task performance. Task performance includes any practical action and attitude related to task accomplishment.

According to the communication process mentioned previously, culture affects one's behavior and communication. In intercultural encounters, the different cultural backgrounds of interactants generate
misunderstanding and inappropriate behavior. Misunderstanding and inappropriate behavior lead to less effective communication. One's realization of less effectiveness gives rise to frustration, depression, and dissatisfaction.

As shown in Torbiorn's model of adjustment, one's perception of less applicability and less clarity of behavior in one's frame of reference reduces satisfaction. Satisfaction is very important for human beings because it is a state in which a human need is fulfilled. Torbiorn (1982) assumed that human beings want to be happy, based on the hedonistic principle. The hedonistic principle is that "... man strives to achieve pleasant experience and to avoid unpleasant ones" (Torbiorn, 1982, p. 55).

Moreover, Torbiorn (1982) used the principle of homeostasis to explain what makes a human being happy. According to the principle of homeostasis:

... the purpose of change in systems such as organisms is to contain within reasonable limits any variation in the essential system-components, i.e. to maintain the organisms in a state of equilibrium or balance (Torbiorn, 1982, p. 56).

Human beings try to fulfill their own needs by being influenced by environment in order to maintain stability or equilibrium. So, a state of equilibrium is, in the hedonistic principle, to be happy, that is to be fulfilled
or satisfied. These principles imply the importance of the satisfaction state for human beings, that is a need for psychological well-being. A state of instability is called culture shock and can be manifested as an emotional instability, such as stress. Culture shock is an element which determines psychological well-being or satisfaction. If one is in the state of culture shock, he/she can never feel satisfied. However, the state of culture shock itself makes one try to get out of the state. In other words, culture shock facilitates one's awareness of a different environment which makes one uncomfortable.

Intercultural encounters is reflected by a reciprocal relation between satisfaction and behavior. Because, appropriate behaviors differ in each culture, one's inappropriate behavior in different culture makes him/her feel dissatisfied. The dissatisfaction facilitates ineffective behaviors. However, a state of dissatisfaction can also trigger change in inappropriate behaviors. This discussion indicates that success can be reached with psychological well-being. Therefore, psychological well-being, satisfaction, can be an important part of the process in successful intercultural functioning in terms of mental health.
In intercultural encounters, interaction functions to lead to misunderstandings and inappropriate behaviors. In an interaction, counterparts create misunderstandings and perceive another's behaviors as inappropriate. Interactional skills and relational ability have been considered as factors in adjustment; in a psychological sense, a interaction is a very important factor in psychological well-being. Gudykunst et al. (1977) stated that the nature of interaction affects expatriates' satisfaction with their stay in a different culture. Kim (1988a) also noted a strong relationship between successful communication skills and satisfaction. Moreover, an interaction affects task performance in a practical sense. It is assumed that inappropriateness and misunderstanding in an interaction reduce effectiveness in task performance. In this sense, interactional effectiveness is also included in the process of intercultural functioning to accomplish task performance.

Four components have been identified that contribute to the process of successful intercultural functioning: task-accomplishment, task performance, psychological well-being (satisfaction), and interactional effectiveness. Three of these correspond to a past study on intercultural encounters. Brislin (1981) defined three
aspects of success as: psychological adjustment, including general feelings of well-being and satisfaction; interaction effectiveness, which is the ability to establish cordial relationships; and task effectiveness which refers to the ability to accomplish one's task (Brislin, 1981, pp. 54-55).

Brislin (1981) treated these three components as aspects of success. However, this thesis treats them as different roles in the process of successful intercultural functioning. Figure 2.4 illustrates this process and the relations among these components.

Task-accomplishment is the ultimate goal in business expatriation. Even though there are other components for successful intercultural functioning, the basic and ultimate goal of a firm is to accomplish the task. Task performance is the process to task accomplishment and a function influenced by other components. Psychological well-being plays an important role in the process of an expatriate mission. For a human being, psychological well-being is necessary. Of course, for a firm, to maintain psychological well-being is not only needed to accomplish a mission but also to keep human
Interactional effectiveness takes another role in the process. Interactional effectiveness facilitates task performance and psychological well-being. Yet, interaction might not be always necessity in the process. In a sense, if a task can be accomplished, interactional effectiveness is not a major concern. So, interactional
effectiveness is not an objective of either a firm or a person. Probably, both a firm and person will be fulfilled only when task is completed, and a person is satisfied. However, because of the strong influence of interaction on intercultural functioning, interactional effectiveness can be a part of the conceptual process of successful intercultural functioning.

As mentioned previously, the term adjustment can be used in two ways: psychological and behavioral aspects in adjustment. These two aspects are called covert and overt adjustment. Because psychological aspects of adjustment is one's internal state, which might not be shown to others, they are called covert adjustment. The covert adjustment is one's perception of adjustment which gives one satisfaction. This adjustment can be measured by psychological well-being. Behavioral aspects of adjustment is called overt adjustment because they are determined by the others judges towards one's behavior. The overt adjustment is measured in interactions.

This model helps to clarify other concepts which are not clearly defined in previous research. For example, culture shock and covert adjustment are located in psychological well-being, because these two concepts
are related to satisfaction. Effectiveness/competence and overt adjustment are included in interactional effectiveness because both represent behavioral aspects. Interactional effectiveness not only influences psychological well-being but also facilitates task performance. One's competence is labeled by others who interact with a person; therefore, interactional effectiveness affects task performance.

This model clearly conceptualizes the process of successful intercultural functioning. Because of strong and complicated relationships among concepts related to intercultural functioning, past studies have failed to conceptualize and distinguish these concepts. However, the recognition of importance of psychological well-being in the process of intercultural functioning distinguishes two aspects of adjustment: covert and overt adjustment. The process of successful intercultural functioning can also provide a conceptual foundation to seek effective intercultural training. The concepts examined in the following chapters will be articulated under this model of process. This will be discussed in Chapter 4.

2.4 Summary

A communication approach to intercultural encounters provides a comprehensive conceptualization of
the relationships between culture and communication. This concept explains influences of culture on communication and people. It implies an aspect of culture which can be learned. The conceptualization also helps to clarify causes of intercultural difficulties and provides a concept, cultural compatibility, as a measure of ease in intercultural encounters.

A psychological view towards intercultural adjustment makes it possible to distinguish psychological and behavioral aspects of adjustment (covert and overt adjustment). The process of successful intercultural functioning is presented based on this distinction of two aspects in adjustment.

In the next chapter, the background of business expatriation, the multinational corporation, roles and functions of business expatriates, and organizational conditions in expatriation will be discussed. The analysis of these aspects of business expatriation helps to discover what affects successful business expatriates.
Chapter 3

BUSINESS EXPATRIATION: ITS GOALS AND CONDITIONS

Business expatriation refers to the staffing policy for sending personnel abroad. It is assumed that the goals of intercultural training differ depending on the purposes of expatriation, such as business, Peace Corps, missionary, and study programs, and due to cultural and organizational conditions. Business expatriation must include specific conditions, such as business strategies, which other kinds of expatriation do not have.

This chapter describes the background conditions in which business expatriates exist, and the organizational conditions determining effective expatriation. First, as a background for business expatriation, the structure of multinational corporations (MNCs) will be explained. Second, in order to explain what business expatriates are, job assignments, roles of expatriates, staffing attitudes, and ethnocentrism will be discussed. Third, as the determinants of successful business expatriates, organizational conditions, such as
job types, length of overseas assignment, managerial structure, staffing attitude, will be explained. Finally, the new direction of expatriates which is drawn from the need for the global orientation in business is introduced.

3.1 A Background to Business Expatriation:

The Multinational Corporation

Organizations send personnel abroad to operate in international business. With the growth of economics, especially since World War II, many business firms have been establishing a world market. Because those companies are operating in many other countries, they are called multinational corporations (MNCs). This section describes the characteristics of MNCs which provide the background for business expatriation.

3.1.1 Definition of MNC

A multinational corporation can be defined as a firm whose operations are based in many countries or whose markets are world-wide. In other words, an MNC is a business organization which deals with international business. International business refers to "all types of business activities that cross national borders, including management processes and transmission of various types of resources and services" (Hays, Korth & Roudiani, 1972, p.
6). Weinshall (1975) stated that an MNC can only be defined on the basis of its world-wide behavior.

However, when the term multinationality is used, there appears to be no single criterion to define it (Heenan & Perlmutter, 1979). Heenan and Perlmutter (1979) described several criteria to measure multinationality. As structural criteria, they considered the number of foreign operations, the ownership of parent and subsidiary companies, the form of organizational structure, and the nationality of top management. As performance criteria, they included absolute overseas earnings, sales, assets, or the number of employees and those percentage of total. Besides these objective indices, Heenan and Perlmutter (1979) emphasized attitudinal criteria which reflect how decisions are made in an organization. For example, types of staffing practice is classified as attitudinal criteria.

Although these criteria measure multinationality and describe the conditions of MNCs, to pursue these criteria in any more detail is beyond the scope of this thesis. In this paper, an MNC is defined as a firm which operates in international business and send expatriates abroad.
3.1.2 Multinationalization

The growth of multinational corporations is an inevitable consequence of developing organizations and increasing international dependencies. First, multinationalization of organizations has quickly progressed since World War II. Heenan and Perlmutter (1979) called this growth from 1945 to 1970s the era of global expansion. For U.S. firms, as the latecomers to international business, this period was "realistic and timely" to expand business in foreign countries (Heenan & Perlmutter, 1979, pp. 3-4). However, this phenomenon does not clearly distinguish MNCs and domestic companies. Weinshall (1975) viewed an MNC as an inevitable consequence of organizational growth. He mentioned that an MNC can be measured by the same criteria as any other organization, such as the scope of decision making process and its managerial structure. The main difference between MNCs and domestic organizations is focus of interest on supranational or national markets respectively (Weinshall, 1975). Weinshall (1975) stated that an MNC exists as a result of developing process. In other words, as it develops, an organization establishes itself multinationally.
Moreover, international dependencies facilitate the increase of MNCs. In these days, a nation can exist only with international dependencies. A country must depend on other countries when it cannot accomplish national goals, provide needed resources, or solve problems by itself. Also, the entry of companies from other nations results in having new national goals, desires, and needs. Torbiorn (1982) stated:

International dependencies arise when the needs and interests of the members of one national system cannot be satisfied within the bounds of the system but embrace events and conditions in some other nation as well. ... dependence may have grown up because a company required knowhow or raw materials or manpower, or needed opportunities for investment and sales. As individuals we often want consumer goods, job opportunities, recreation, new experiences, and much else that cannot always be satisfied in our own countries (pp. 5-6).

Thus, the growth of organizations and international dependencies develop MNCs.

3.1.3 A Characteristic of MNCs

Management of human resources is a major concern for multinational corporations because their operations across national borders cause new behavioral problems related to cultural differences. Especially, the process of appointing personnel to key positions is an important focus of MNCs.
Because an MNC must consist of a home-country headquarters and many subsidiaries abroad, a staffing policy is very important. These staffing policies affect personnel management, strategy, and control which are all closely related to organizational decision making. In 1979, Heenan and Perlmutter stated: "Of all the functions of the MNC, personnel was found to be the major concern of international executives" (p. 28).

Attitudes towards personnel staffing can be divided into ethnocentric, polycentric, regiocentric, and geocentric as follows (Perlmutter & Heenan, 1974). An ethnocentric attitude prefers staffing main positions in foreign subsidiaries with home-country nationals. A polycentric attitude adopts locals in these positions. A regiocentric attitude appoints personnel from a broad (regional) area. A geocentric attitude draws personnel from everywhere in the world (Perlmutter & Heenan, 1974). In this way, these attitudes strongly influence expatriation because such practices determine who will be expatriates.

These staffing attitudes are basically related to the degree of MNC growth (Franko, 1973; Heenan and Perlmutter, 1979). At the initial stage of an MNC, firms
send home-country nationals abroad because most companies start international operations through exportation (Franko, 1973). This is an ethnocentric attitude. After this stage, when operations abroad are getting large and stable, the MNC tends to change its staffing to local nationals. This is because the MNC realizes the difficulty that expatriates have in terms of the lack of knowledge about the culture, judicial systems, marketing, etc. and the high cost of expatriation compared to hiring locals. This tendency leads to a polycentric attitude. Finally, the MNC appoints mixed nationals. A geocentric attitude has more advantages because the MNC can staff the best persons to the appropriate positions regardless of nationality (Franko, 1973) and can integrate scattered subsidiaries, using global systems in decision making (Heenan & Perlmutter, 1979). However, Heenan and Perlmutter (1979) explained that the four attitudes are influenced by many conditions, and actually MNCs project the four different staffing attitudes depending on firms' conditions.

It is characteristic of MNCs to have specific policies toward appointing personnel to key positions. These staffing policies strongly influence the MNCs in their strategies and control. The expatriation in MNCs
depends on these attitudes which vary according to specific conditions, such as growth.

In short, the increase of multinational corporations is inevitable in business growth. MNCs are characterized by specific policies for staffing personnel abroad. These policies are very important because of their influence on MNCs' strategies and control for their international operation and expatriation.

3.2 Business Expatriates: Their Roles and Functions

Business expatriation tends to increase as multinational corporations grow. However, even though there is no doubt that MNCs have been growing, there are many conditions that increase or decrease expatriation. Because use of expatriates affects the business operations of the MNCs, expatriates' missions are highly dependent on firms' conditions and strategies. This section describes expatriate roles and functions in MNCs.

3.2.1 Different Roles of Expatriates

The role of expatriates differs in varying job assignments. The various factors involved in different assignments are important because each assignment requires different abilities and skills to accomplish its tasks. Hays (1974) may be one of a few who recognize the
influence of assignment differences, which determines qualifications for an expatriate position.

Some tasks require more ability to interact with the local culture and to create structures in which operations are completed than other tasks (Hays, 1974). Hays (1974) classified four major tasks in expatriation: (1) structure reproducer, (2) troubleshooter, (3) operational element, and (4) chief executive officer. The structure reproducer is in charge of establishing a new function in a foreign subsidiary. This may include, for example, an accounting function, a marketing framework, or production system. A troubleshooter is assigned to analyze and solve a specific operational problem. The operational element refers to a member who works in an existing operation. And the chief executive officer is in charge of overseeing and directing the entire foreign operation. Of these four, a structure reproducer requires interactional skills and an ability to create structure. A chief executive officer is also required to have interactional skills, an ability to manage people and operations, and broad knowledge. As a troubleshooter or operational element, more technical skills and knowledge are required.
In short, types of assignment obviously influence job expectations and qualifications for expatriation. Unfortunately, however, most research on expatriation in business management and human resource development do not deal with different types of assignments. Because of this, the following discussions are based on research regarding expatriates as managers or personnel at key positions.

3.2.2 Roles of Managers in Foreign Subsidiaries

The basic role of managers at foreign subsidiaries is to mediate between two countries, although their tasks involve not only mediation but also the management of overseas operations. As a mediator between two countries, managers must play more roles than those expected for domestic managers. Torbiorn (1982) described four sources of problems in an expatriate's role: unclear firm's expectations; communication; incompatible expectations between a parent firm and a host country; and personal interests, values, and abilities. However, because these sources almost always exist in the expatriate's role, these can be considered expatriate tasks which managers must go through and handle. Of these four, the first three are relevant to the roles that companies expect from expatriates.
Torbiorn (1982) explained, first of all, that the expatriate's role includes an expectation from the "role sender" (a parent-company), the expectation of the host-country, and role conception of "role occupant" (expatriate). A "role behavior" (expatriate's performance) is affected by these three factors, and the behavior is evaluated by both the role sender and the host country. According to this conceptualization, because a parent company does not know all the situations in a different country and culture in overseas operations, the company cannot clearly define expectations and demands for the expatriate's role. As a mediator, first, an expatriate manages the unclear expectations of the company towards expatriates.

Second, communication with a parent company and with a host country is an important task. Several communication difficulties can arise. Information from the parent company may be insufficient or late (Torbiorn, 1982; Wiechmann and Pringle, 1979). Communication with the host country might be complicated by different languages and ideas (culture). If expatriates need an interpreter, the number of their contacts with people can be limited (Torbiorn, 1982). Third, it is possible that the expectations of the home-country and those of the host
country are incompatible. This probably happens because of cultural differences (Torbiorn, 1982). Home-headquarters may give insufficient attention to local conditions (Wiechmann & Pringle, 1979).

These three points suggest, in addition to the regular job requirements, additional important tasks for expatriate managers. Because these extra tasks of expatriate manager arise from the gaps between the parent company and subsidiary in the host country, these tasks might differ in association with the MNC's organizational structure a MNC has. In other words, decision-making system of MNCs affects this gaps between the two. Expatriate managers are expected to handle these problems.

3.2.3 Comparison of Expatriation and Staffing Locals

Expatriation is a reflection of MNCs' business conditions and strategies. There are basically three ways to staff positions in foreign subsidiaries of MNCs: home (parent)-country nationals (PCN), host-country nationals (HCN or locals), and the third country (neither home or host) nationals (TCN; Zeira, 1975). Tung's (1982) survey showed reasons for these different staffing practices. In the U.S. MNCs, the reasons for staffing PCNs are either starting up foreign operations or because of their needed technical expertise. HCNs were used because of
familiarity with culture, knowledge of language, reduced costs, and good public relations (Tung, 1982). The reasons for staffing TCNs were because a TCN had technical expertise and/or a TCN was the best person for the position. However, this research showed that the U.S. MNCs appointed TCNs for less than six percent of all staffing.

There are advantages and disadvantages of staffing policies focusing on expatriates (home-country nationals) or locals. In most cases, at the initial stage of operations abroad, home-country firms send expatriates to important positions because host-subsidiaries often require an education and a transfer of "know-how" and techniques (Franko, 1973). With growing business abroad, the need for this education and transfer continues for a while. In this sense, host-country nationals are not considered to be qualified for important positions. Moreover, expatriation has an advantage because home-country nationals are familiar with policies in the company operations. Kuin (1972) stated that "their [home-country nationals] advantage is that they know the traditions and policies of the corporation and therefore are likely to preserve its cohesion" (p. 90).
However, there are major disadvantages with using expatriates. First, expatriates "... are aliens in the country in which they operate, liable to be resented or misunderstood, and possibly critical of national idiosyncrasies" (Kuin, 1972, p. 90). Second, there is difficulty in adjusting to cultural differences. Borrmann (1968) explained that:

Their particular problems, as against those of local nationals, result from the fact that they are assigned to foreign countries with different fundamental environmental factors which at first seem strange and unknown to them. ... There is a danger that they may not understand the differences from the environmental factors of their country of origin, which seem to them "natural", and hence their adaptation to the environmental structure of their country of assignment is made difficult or even impossible (p. 38).

Third, the cost of expatriation is extremely high. It ranges from one-half to five times that of domestic employees' salaries (Foote, 1977; Kobrin, 1988; Van Pelt & Wolniansky, 1990). Moreover, Young (1973) emphasized that MNCs need to fairly compensate expatriates depending on conditions in each country. Expatriates' compensation must include overseas premiums, local social security taxes, and excesses in rent and the cost of living, car, air fares, and schooling (Young, 1973).

Over the last decade, there has been a tendency to reduce the number of the U.S. expatriates sent abroad, and
to appoint local nationals (Kobrin, 1988). This tendency may reflect the finding that a certain degree of operational growth increases the proportion of host-country nationals (Franko, 1973). The advantages of locals are that they possess cultural identifications as well as easy understanding and knowledge of local conditions (Kuin, 1972). Also, host-country nationals might be able to manage local people better than culturally different home-country nationals (Kobrin, 1988).

Disadvantages for appointing HCNs also exist. First, in less developed countries, qualified personnel may not be always available (Tung, 1987b). Secondly, training to local nationals can be a time consuming process (Hays, 1974). Third, host-country nationals might have communication difficulties with home-headquarters because of cultural differences and the lack of familiarity with the corporate culture (Tung, 1987b).

Thus, in both staffing policies, advantages and disadvantages exist. Therefore, the decision to appoint a PCN or HCN seems to vary as a function of a firm's economic, strategic, and structural conditions. That is, business expatriation itself is the reflection of a firm's
business conditions which carry different expectations for expatriation as a business strategy.

3.2.4 Ethnocentrism

Though a decrease in expatriation and an increase in appointing locals is seen in internationalizing MNCs, researchers criticize the tendency of reducing expatriates in the U.S. MNCs as the failure of expatriation due to ethnocentrism (Kobrin, 1988; Tung, 1987b). Kobrin (1988) pointed out that positive reasons for the reduction of expatriates include:

lowering costs; increasing managerial effectiveness; minimizing conflict with both employees and environmental groups; and contributing to host country managerial and technical development (p. 65),

as well as an increase of availability of competent local personnel.

However, since expatriation started, a high rate of unsuccessful the U.S. expatriation has been reported everywhere (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Heenan, 1970; Henry, 1965; Hogan & Goodson, 1990; Misa & Fabricatore, 1979; Tung, 1981, 1987b; Zeira, 1975). This failure obviously indicates the U.S. expatriates' inability to deal with international assignments (Kobrin, 1988; Tung, 1987b). Past research analyzed the reasons for the inability to handle international assignments and

Some reasons, such as problems with selection criteria, lack of training, and problems within the MNCs, seem to arise directly from the ethnocentric view of the U.S. MNCs (see Kobrin, 1988; Perlmutter & Heenan, 1974; Tung, 1988; Tung & Miller, 1990; Wiechmann & Pringle, 1979). Ethnocentric attitudes of the U.S. MNCs are reflected in these assumptions:

1. An international perspective is not considered to be an important criterion for recruitment or employment in multinational corporations;
2. An international perspective is not considered to be an important criterion for promotion/recruitment to senior management positions;
3. An international career track is not perceived to be conducive to rapid advancement within the corporate management hierarchy; and
4. An increasing international market share is not considered to be of significant value to affect the size of an
incentive package received by a senior executive (Tung & Miller, 1990, p. 13).

This biased view tends to deprecate expatriation and leads to inadequate company systems for expatriates, inappropriate selection and training procedures, and the expatriation of unqualified personnel.

In conclusion, business expatriates perform several types of tasks depending on job types and take the role of a mediator handling the gaps between a parent-company and its subsidiaries. Business expatriates' functions also vary with a firm's business conditions and strategies. Therefore, business expatriates' assignments vary in terms of their roles and functions depending on the condition for each.

3.3 Organizational Conditions Influencing Expatriates

The preceding sections described MNCs as a background for business expatriation, and the roles and functions of expatriates. These discussions imply that successful functioning of business expatriates is also influenced by organizational conditions. This section discusses the importance of environmental conditions and how these conditions are related to organizational settings in order to discover factors that influence successful functioning of business expatriates.
The environmental conditions must be considered in expatriation because these conditions highly influence expatriate roles and their successful functioning. Environmental conditions can be divided into organizational and cultural conditions.

On the one hand, organizational conditions are important for expatriates because they determine expatriate roles and successful functioning as mentioned in the previous section. On the other hand, as mentioned in Chapter 2, cultural environment is also a crucial condition in business expatriation because it differs in different countries. Hays (1974) stated:

"Obviously, environments differ greatly, but similarly, their potential for fostering successful expatriate performance by any particular executive also varies" (p. 27).

Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) also noted that to what extent an expatriate adjusts to an overseas environment seems to depend on each country of assignment. It is assumed that emphasizing factors for successful expatriate functioning can be different depending on the countries to which the expatriate will be assigned. Thus, environmental conditions, including organizational and cultural conditions, strongly influence the success of business expatriation.
In a study on selection and training procedures in expatriation, Tung (1982) stated "there is no one selection criterion that could be emphasized and no one training program that should be used regardless of the task and environment" (p. 70). Tung (1981) proposed a contingency framework for a selection-decision process in expatriation, which takes account of cultural environment and job types.

Tung's framework (1981) is based on a contingency approach to management which notes "... the fallacy of applying universal principles or the 'one best way' to management practices, regardless of the situation" (p. 68). Applying this approach, Tung (1981) presented a selection-decision process, which suggested first, identifying job types, and second, considering the cultural environment where an expatriate will be assigned. Identifying job types assesses the degree of interaction with the host as qualification for a certain job. Cultural environment refers to the degree of similarity/dissimilarity between cultures. Tung's (1981) contingency framework provides a systematic process in selection and training decision making based on organizational conditions, job types, and cultural conditions.
Although Tung's (1981) selection-decision process includes some environmental conditions (the host culture and job type), other organizational conditions are not considered. Pazy and Zeira (1983) described job-training in international companies and noted the importance of organizational context. This description emphasizes the influence of organizational conditions on one's work performance. The previous section explained characteristics of MNCs and roles and functions of expatriates in general. In the following section, based on some implications of these general backgrounds of MNCs and business expatriation, organizational conditions which influence successful business expatriation are discussed.

3.3.2 Job Type

As mentioned, job type, such as structure reproducer, troubleshooter, operational element, and CEO, obviously determines the role of an expatriate. Each role requires different qualifications for the expatriate. The degree of growth of the MNC in international business also affects the expatriate's roles and working situations. If an expatriate follows a previous manager and continues the same operation or management, his/her tasks may not be so challenging and difficult. Yet, if an expatriate's mission is completely new in the area, his/her tasks are going to be different even if the name of the job
assignment is same. Until the role of an expatriate is made clear, it is difficult to predict the specific qualifications for successful expatriate functioning.

3.3.3 Length of Overseas Assignment

The length of overseas assignments is another organizational condition that determines expatriates' qualifications. Depending on the length of the stay abroad, the degree of need for adjustment to a new environment varies. In a study of adjustment stress, Weaver (1986) stated that duration of the stressful situation influences reactions to a different cultural environment. Mendenhall et al. (1987) noted that the length of expatriation reflects the degree of integration required within the host culture. The degree of integration refers to "... the level of cultural fluency the expatriates will need to be successful (Mendenhall et al., 1987, p. 339).

3.3.4 Managerial Structure

The managerial structure of an MNC needs to be considered because it affects the gap between the parent company and subsidiaries. For example, the degree of centralization of an MNC affects the decision-making system, which determines type of responsibilities personnel have at various positions. Weinshall (1975)
illustrated types of managerial structure; an organization usually goes through all or some of these. These types are determined by a combination of degrees of formalization and centralization of managerial structure. For example, at the initial stage, an organization is characterized by an entrepreneurial structure. This managerial structure is centralized and not formalized. At the next stage of organizational development, an organization becomes bureaucratized and develops a functional structure. This structure is highly formalized and centralized. After developing a functional structure, a managerial structure tends to become decentralized in order to maintain efficiency and pursue autonomy. The multistructure is one which holds a mixed structure of the entrepreneurial, functional, and decentralized structures (Weinshall, 1975).

It is assumed that these variations in managerial structure might influence organizational behaviors and, in turn, foreign operations. Heenan (1970) stated "... the design of the international organization must always allow for maximum operating effectiveness in the field" (p. 52).

3.3.5 Staffing Attitude

Depending on the attitude (either ethnocentric, polycentric, regiocentric or geocentric), the work
conditions differ. For example, in an ethnocentric attitude, locals who work in the subsidiary might be used to work with home-country managers, and the expatriate him/herself can work with the other home-country managers. In a polycentric attitude, which usually appoints local nationals to positions, expatriates might have a difficult time dealing with locals after local managers were in a position because local nationals working under the manager would not be used to work with host-country manager.

3.3.6 Organizational Behavior Influenced by the Host Culture

Organizational behavior must be affected by culture. As mentioned in Chapter 2, culture is learned and shared by people in a certain environment. This implies that an organization must be affected by an environmental culture. Because an MNC has subsidiaries or organizations in different cultures, cultural influences are a major concern when treating the MNC as an organization.

Torbiorn (1982) distinguished three societal levels which have their own cultures: national, group, and individual levels. These three cultures, including norms which Torbiorn (1982) emphasized, shape individual, group, and national behavior patterns. Each nation has a
different culture on the national level, which affects cultures on group and individual levels. Also, the degree of influence of the national culture on other levels of culture depends on nations. This conceptualization of cultural levels implies that subsidiaries of a MNC in different countries are influenced by each national culture. A MNC can keep a certain kind of culture at the group level through different countries, yet, the influence of each national culture is inevitable. As Torbiorn (1982) described:

In both Country A and Country B operations are subject to the national norms of the respective countries, while being conducted otherwise within the range of the permitted group norms in each nation. What is regulated nationally, how far the regulation goes, and the consequent scope for the group norms of the individual companies, varies from country to country (p. 10)

Child (1981) theoretically described influences on organizational behavior, such as culture, which refers to development of social institutions; capitalism (economic system) referring to ownership of means of production; and contingency, which refers to level of industrialization. These three factors affect cross-national organizational similarities and differences. Child (1981) also explained that culture reflects expectations and norms about the relationship of the individual to the collectivity. An
economic system determines centralization/decentralization of economic direction and the nature of managerial objectives. Contingency, that is the level of industrialization, affects organizational structure.

If these environmental conditions in each country influence organizational behavior, subsidiaries in different countries must vary in their organizational behavior even though they belong to the same MNC.

3.3.7 Business Situations Influenced by the Host Culture

Cultural differences influencing business situations can be clearly found in male/female role expectations. For example, Adler (1987) studied North American female expatriates in Asian countries. She noted that, though business in Asian countries (Indonesia, the people's Republic of China, India, Singapore, the Philippines, and Japan) is the fastest growing in the world, the number of female managerial positions is very low. It seems that cultural norms still constrain promotion for females. However, according to her study, most of the North American female expatriates were successful, and almost half of them felt that being female was an advantage rather than a disadvantage in business in those countries. On the other hand, it might be different in Middle East and some Latin American countries. Nye
(1988) mentioned an example of female vice president of an American firm who was excluded from a dinner business meeting with her male colleagues. This probably occurred because of Islamic law, which does not allow men and women to share the same working environment. Also, in some Latin countries, women are still not accepted in workforce to the same extent that they are in North America. (Nye, 1988). Although the Adler's research and Nye's example mentioned relationships between North American females and clients in other countries, these examples illustrate the extent to which different cultural expectations influence business practices that are relevant to an expatriate's success.

Moreover, this discussion suggests that male/female role expectations is also an important consideration for expatriation. Whether an expatriate is male or female, or whether the role expectations for males and females in an assigned country are different or not, the focus of selection criteria and training will differ.

In short, several organizational conditions affect expatriate roles and functions. These organizational conditions determine what is successful expatriate functioning. Because intercultural training depends on
what successful functioning is defined as, the examination of organizational conditions is indispensable to clarify training needs.

In the next section, in order to understand the latest situation in business influencing the expatriate condition and strategy, a new direction of expatriation will be introduced.

3.4 A New Direction of Expatriation

The recent U.S. economic situation demands the increase of expatriation rather than use of local nationals abroad. This new direction of the U.S. expatriation affects organizational conditions. The expatriation facilitates expatriates' learning a global view. The global view is required for the U.S. MNCs to survive in expanding international business world. This section introduces the global orientation which calls for a new direction of expatriation.

3.4.1 Global Orientation

The need for a new orientation in the U.S. business arises from two factors. First, American economic leadership has been questioned in the last decade (Tung & Miller, 1990; Wolniansky, 1990). The economic growth of other countries has created a competitive world
in international business. By the twenty-first century, the U.S. economy is predicted to take the third place following Europe and Asia (Japan; Reading, 1990; Wolniansky, 1990). In order to survive in international business, the global view is inevitable. Townley (1990) stated that "... if you can't play globally, you probably can't play" (p. 589). Because every country has a different history and culture, each foreign market differs (Wolniansky, 1990).

Second, international business is facing a transition. The revolutions in Eastern Europe, united Germany, the Canadian-U.S. Trade Agreement, and European integration in 1992, all indicate changes in world economics (Leibfritz, 1990; Poehl, 1990; Reading, 1990; Rybczynski, 1990; Townley, 1990). In this transition, business has to go through global competition. Wolniansky (1990) stated "To some extent, America's business future will depend on how well B-schools [business schools] prepare tomorrow's leaders for the international corporate battle-field of the '90s - and beyond" (p. 27).

Thus, the need for the global orientation originated from the development of international business and its new movements. Although for two decades many
researchers have suggested this need for global orientation, the U.S. MNCs have not yet realized this need in practice (Kobrin, 1988; Heenan, 1970; Tung, 1987b; Tung & Miller, 1990). Because the U.S. MNCs have been ethnocentric, the new global orientation is indispensable.

3.4.2 A New Direction of Expatriation

As a strategy for developing a global orientation, expatriation is again focused upon. Tung and Miller (1990) stated "The foreign assignment can be interpreted as an important linking pin binding corporate and business strategy and the firm's human resource policies and programs" (pp. 16-17). Kobrin (1988) also mentioned:

... it is critical that some core of managers in the MNC, who influence subsidiaries' strategic decisions, identify with the global task environment: with the corporation as a whole.

It is obvious that home country expatriates are only one means of accomplishing this end (p. 70).

The new direction in expatriation develops a global perspective through international assignments which are also important steps in career development. For example, many organizations stress international experience in promotions, job-rotation of international assignments, and a long-term orientation in international assignment (Kobrin, 1988; McClenahen, 1987; Tung, 1987a, 1987b, 1988; Tung & Miller, 1990).
All these directions focus on educating a global perspective of personnel. The global orientation reconsiders and increases expatriation providing another organizational condition for business expatriation.

3.5 Summary

The background of business expatriation, such as characteristics of MNCs and roles and functions of business expatriates, were clarified. Business conditions provide specific conditions for expatriation that other kinds of expatriation do not have. These specific business conditions are seen as organizational conditions, such as job type, length of overseas assignment, managerial structure, staffing attitude, and organizational behavior and business situation influenced by the host culture. Because successful expatriate functioning depends on such organizational conditions, these conditions influence the roles and factors that affect successful functioning for expatriate positions.

A global orientation is needed in the U.S. business practice. This demand is necessary because the U.S. is losing economic leadership and because of a change in world economics. The new orientation will increase expatriates in the U.S. MNCs because expatriation is one
way to develop the global views. This can be a new condition for business expatriates.

This chapter clarified the specific conditions for business expatriation. These conditions were examined based on business management literature. The next chapter will investigate effectiveness factors for successful expatriate functioning from the standpoint of what is required to successfully function abroad. By considering these effectiveness factors and environmental conditions, a new conceptualization of factors affecting successful intercultural functioning will be proposed. Then, the model of successful intercultural functioning will be presented.
Chapter 4

A MODEL FOR SUCCESSFUL INTERCULTURAL FUNCTIONING:
AN INTEGRATED VIEW

This chapter proposes a model for identifying successful intercultural functioning which will serve as a foundation for proposing guidelines for effective intercultural training programs. The underlying assumptions of this thesis are that (1) different objectives for staying abroad require different types of intercultural training and that (2) the effectiveness of intercultural training depends on background conditions for each expatriation, such as different purposes for and roles of expatriation. The model proposed in this chapter integrates the organizational conditions affecting business expatriation discussed in the previous chapters and the process of successful intercultural functioning presented in Chapter 2.

In order to lead to the model of successful intercultural functioning, this chapter will, first, review the literature to find factors for successful
intercultural functioning. Also, the section will propose a new conceptualization of the factors for successful intercultural training; that is structural environmental conditions and effectiveness factors will be defined and discussed. Second, the effectiveness factors which facilitate successful intercultural functioning will be discussed by examining structural environmental conditions. Finally, an overall model of successful intercultural functioning will be proposed by integrating structural environmental conditions, effectiveness factors, and the process of successful intercultural functioning. The relationships among components in the model will be also explained.

4.1 Effectiveness Factors for Intercultural Functioning

The previous chapters discussed cultural and organizational conditions in order to discover the determinants of successful business expatriate functioning. This section discusses effectiveness factors for intercultural functioning by reviewing the literature and proposing a new conceptualization of effectiveness factors and their relationships with structural environmental conditions.

In the literature, factors which affect expatriation have been studied. However, the previous
studies have simply enumerated factors which affect successful expatriation without conceptually clarifying their different natures or the relationships between these factors and intercultural functioning.

This section introduces two underlying dimensions of these factors affecting successful expatriation: structural environmental conditions and effectiveness factors.

4.1.1 Factors Affecting Successful Expatriation in the Literature

Factors affecting successful expatriation in the literature have been pointed out in studies on selection criteria for expatriates. This is because identifying these factors helps to establish appropriate selection criteria for expatriates. Many studies (Borrmann, 1968; Hays, 1971, 1974; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Tung, 1981) examined and enumerated factors affecting successful expatriation. Across these studies, factors can be divided five categories: (1) technical competence; (2) personality traits; (3) interactional skills/abilities; (4) family situations; and (5) environmental conditions. Tung's (1981) grouping of factors crucial to success, which includes technical competence on job; personality traits or relational abilities; environmental variables;
and family situation, corresponds with this categorization.

4.1.1.1 Technical Competence

Technical competence reflects the necessary ability to accomplish an assignment. Technical competence includes knowledge, abilities, and skills which are required for or related to the task. Russell (1978) defined technical abilities as possession of "information about technical principles, company procedures and products," appropriate application of "information ... to problems arising on the job", and use of "experience and training to solve problems" (p. 129). Because it is easily identifiable, and it seems to be necessary for job success, technical competence has been a primary criterion in selection for expatriates and has been the single focus as a criterion for successful expatriation (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Tung, 1981).

4.1.1.2 Personality Traits

Personality traits have been pointed out in many ways (Brislin, 1981; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Kealey & Ruben, 1983; Russell 1978). Kealey & Ruben (1983) reviewed past studies and listed personality traits which lead to intercultural success: "empathy, flexibility, tolerance, interest in local culture and people, sociability,
kindness, patience, intellectual curiosity, and open-mindedness" (p. 165). In the business literature, as personality traits, social adaptability (Borrmann, 1968; Ivancevich, 1969), motivation (Borrmann, 1968), attitude towards foreign people (Ivancevich, 1969), and willingness and desire to understand and interact with host (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985) are included.

4.1.1.3 Interactional Skills/Abilities

Interactional skills/abilities represent the ability to communicate and deal with hosts (Borrmann, 1968; Hays, 1971; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Tung, 1981); the ability to develop a relationship with the host (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985); the ability to understand the host's behaviors (Hays, 1971; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985); and language ability (Hays, 1971).

As interactional skills referring to abilities, Ruben (1976) identified seven skills which are related to intercultural effectiveness: (1) display of respect, (2) interactional posture, (3) orientation to knowledge, (4) empathy, (5) self-oriented role behavior, (6) interaction management, and (7) tolerance for ambiguity. Respect refers to the ability to express positive regard for another person. Interactional posture refers to the ability to respond to others in a descriptive,
nonevaluating, and nonjudgemental way. Orientation knowledge indicates the recognition that people have different beliefs, values, and perceptions. Empathy is the capacity to understand things from others' points of view or to behave as if one could. Self-oriented role behavior refers to the ability to behave flexibly in task and socio-emotional roles and to avoid dysfunctional behaviors. Interactional management is the ability to manage interaction through taking turns in discussion and appropriately in each situation. Tolerance for ambiguity refers to reactions to new and ambiguous situations with little visible discomfort (Ruben, 1976).

Some of these skills, such as empathy and tolerance for ambiguity, overlap with personality traits. However, this thesis treats interactional skills/abilities as behavioral aspects, such as skills and abilities to display, express, and behave.

4.1.1.4 Family Situations

Family situations include the spouse's opinions about moving (Ivancevich, 1969), the spouse's attitude towards living abroad (Hays, 1971), and family members' ability to adjust to a new environment (Hays, 1971; Tung, 1981). Although family situations tend not to be emphasized in expatriation (Borrmann, 1968; Miller, 1972;

Torbiorn (1982) found that husbands' and wives' satisfaction was mutually influenced. However, expatriates' spouses tend to suffer more severely than expatriates (Harvey, 1985). Spouses' severe suffering might result from the fact that expatriates' spouses (who in many cases are wives) are usually put in situations where they stay at home and take care of house and children. Thus, it is hard for the spouses to establish social relationships. However, expatriates themselves interact with others by going to the office and traveling to work (Harvey, 1985). The expatriate's wife in this situation might need "more time, attention, and companionship from her husband" (Harvey, 1985). Harvey (1985) also mentioned expatriates' children who usually do not want to move because of loss of friends and change of school.

4.1.1.5 Environmental Conditions

Environmental conditions refer to political, legal, and socioeconomic structure in a host country (Tung, 1981), degree of cultural dissimilarity (Mendenhall
& Oddou, 1985), and facilities which serve one's interests and activities (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985).

These factors can act as criteria for selecting expatriates. Previous decisions for expatriates were made without an awareness of cultural influences. A long held belief, that a qualified person in domestic assignments will effectively function in an overseas assignment, has ignored cultural influences (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Miller, 1972). In other words, task competence in one's past experience is not a good single criterion for selecting expatriates. Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) noted that because expatriates' adjustment to a new environment is a multidimensional process, the selection criteria of MNCs should include multiple criteria rather than single criterion of technical competence.

In short, five categories of factors affecting successful expatriation were identified: technical competence, personality traits, interactional skills/abilities, family situations, and environmental conditions were found in the literature. In the next section, a new conceptualization of these factors is introduced.
4.1.2 Two Underlying Dimensions: Structural Environmental Conditions and Effectiveness Factors

The two underlying dimensions of factors affecting successful expatriation are structural environmental conditions and effectiveness factors. On the one hand, a structural environmental condition determines the effectiveness factors. On the other hand, effectiveness factors indicate expatriate qualifications which depend on structural environmental conditions. For example, when an expatriate is sent abroad, the task of the position, the cultural environmental conditions, and the strategy and system of the MNC are fixed and cannot be changed. These variables are included as the structural environmental conditions. Structural environmental conditions are those that arise from organizational or cultural conditions. These conditions determine what the appropriate skills, abilities, and traits are for the position. Effectiveness factors are related to personal factors. These factors are emphasized by each structural environmental condition, and, they are the qualifications which are needed by an expatriate. No one can have all the required personal skills, abilities, and traits.

The identification of two dimensions is significant because, depending on the structural
environmental conditions, the emphasis placed on different effectiveness factors will vary. Miller (1972) explained:

The essential foundation is the relationship between the characteristics of the individual and the environment and demands of the job. The peculiar problem of overseas selection is that the crucial variables in the man and the situation become increasingly difficult to identify and measure. The person assigned abroad is faced with environmental factors surrounding his job and his style of life that are unknown to his domestic counterpart, and these forces can be pivotal in determining the person's success or failure (p. 52).

Tung (1981) also stated that "... attitudes which are appropriate for cross-cultural interaction are not always identifiable and measurable..." (p. 70). The implies that because it is difficult to identify crucial variables for successful expatriation, it is important to at least examine the basic structural environmental conditions and requirements for job assignments in order to find the most important effectiveness factors.

Borrmann (1968) also emphasized that the first step of a selection process is to discover the requirements of foreign positions. Requirements refer to all important aspects to an assignment. Then, as the second step, the qualifications necessary to meet these requirements should be examined (Borrmann, 1968).
Thus, the distinction between dimensions, the structural environmental conditions and effectiveness factors, is significant. Previously discussed factors affecting expatriation did not distinguish environmental factors and others. Among factors in the literature, environmental conditions are included in structural environmental conditions, and the other factors - technical competence, personality traits, interactional skills/abilities, and family situations - are included as effectiveness factors.

As a procedure in expatriate selection and training, which affects successful intercultural functioning, two steps are important. The first step is to find the requirements for structural environmental conditions, such as cultural compatibility, job type, length of assignment, managerial structure, and staffing attitude. The second step is to figure out the required and emphasized effectiveness factors.

4.2 Effectiveness Factors Determined by Structural Environmental Conditions

Based on the new conceptualization of effectiveness factors and structural environmental conditions, this section uncovers effectiveness factors emphasized by each structural environmental condition.
First, structural environmental conditions are defined as cultural and organizational conditions. Then, each condition is analyzed in order to discover what qualifications are required for successful intercultural functioning. These qualifications are the effectiveness factors for that set of conditions.

4.2.1 Structural Environmental Conditions

The present thesis proposes the term structural environmental conditions to incorporate both cultural and organizational conditions which affect successful intercultural functioning. In Chapter 2, the concept of cultural compatibility was introduced as a measure of ease of intercultural functioning. The conceptual framework for the relationships between culture and communication explained the strong influence of culture on one's communication and adjustment. Thus, cultural compatibility is one of the structural environmental conditions.

In Chapter 3, six environmental conditions related to organizational setting, such as job type, length of overseas assignment, managerial structure, staffing attitude, and organizational behavior and business situation influenced by the host culture, were discussed. These six organizational conditions were explained as
determinants of successful intercultural functioning. Among them, organizational behavior and business situation are both influenced by the host culture and, thus, reflect cultural compatibility. If native and host cultures are similar, the organizational behavior and business situations in both the host country and the parent company's country are similar. As a structural environmental condition, organizational behavior and business situations influenced by the host culture are included in cultural compatibility. The following section extracts effectiveness factors for successful intercultural functioning based on these structural environmental conditions.

4.2.2 Cultural Compatibility

Cultural compatibility definitely determines effectiveness factors for intercultural functioning. Hays et al. (1972) stated that "The degree to which this new environment differs from his home environment determines the degree of accommodation or adjustment that will be necessary" (p. 293). Kedia and Bhagat (1988) emphasized the fact that cultural compatibility determines the effectiveness of transfer of technology across the countries. Expatriates in a culture that is highly compatible culture with their native culture tend to have an easier time adjusting, while those in low compatibility
cultures tend to have a difficult time adjusting. Expatriates in low compatibility cultures need more cultural knowledge and interactional skills than expatriates who are sent to highly compatible cultures. The degree of compatibility also implies different degrees of ambiguity. It is assumed that the more compatible the culture is, the less the expatriate experiences confusion about appropriate behavior. Ease of adjustment for expatriates' families also depends on the degree of compatibility.

Specific areas in which cultures may be incompatible include the norms, roles, attitudes, values, and expectations of the members in a culture (Triandis, 1983). Also, as Child (1981) mentioned (in Chapter 3 of this thesis), the development of social institutions, economic systems, and levels of industrialization are aspects of the cultural environment which create different living conditions. Although differences create different conditions, examining each of these aspects and their differences is not the purpose of this thesis. An important point related to effectiveness factors for an expatriate is the degree to which the new culture is different from his/her native one on various aspects.
With regard to the degree of cultural differences in some aspects, for example, Hofstede's study (1980) showed the scores of 39 countries on four dimensions of cultures. Using these scores, the degree of differences between cultures is assigned. The low- and high-context culture that Hall (1976) introduced can be also another measure of cultural compatibility.

In short, a low compatible culture creates greater ambiguity and, therefore, requires more cultural knowledge and interactional skills.

4.2.3 Job Type

Type of job assignment also determines effectiveness factors for successful intercultural functioning. Hays' (1974) classification of assignments is: (1) structure reproducer, (2) troubleshooter, (3) operative element, and (4) chief executive officer. The task of a structure reproducer is to establish a new functional system or to make a production system. In order to accomplish this task, the first qualification is technical competence. Because the task is to build a new system, familiarity with existing business structures and methods is required (Hays et al., 1972). Moreover, in terms of developing a new field, interactional skills and tolerance for ambiguity are required (Hays, 1974). It is
assumed that cultural knowledge is also included as a qualification for structural reproducers.

A troubleshooter does not deal with a new system, but analyzes an existing structure in a problem area. This assignment requires "... a particularly keen business detective sense as well as a good knowledge of the business field and the culture involved" (Hays et al., 1972, p. 292). Interactional skills and tolerance for ambiguity are probably less required (Hays, 1974).

The task of an expatriate in the operative element role parallels the job duties in domestic positions. Technical competence is the most important qualification in this assignment. Less ambiguity in this position is assumed because the task is assigned to an existent operation. This task also includes transferring knowledge and skills and training local nationals who would take the place of the expatriates in a few years (Hays et al., 1972). In this sense, the operative element depends upon technical competence.

The task of a chief executive officer depends on effective relationships with local nationals (Hays, 1974). The chief executive officer is charged with the
responsibility for determining the decisions which manage and control international structures and operations. This task requires all information about the related field, such as the business world and the cultural environment. Interactional skills are significant in this position in terms of gaining information and probably keeping the company's face to the local nationals.

4.2.4 Length of Overseas Assignment

The length of job assignments is also included in structural environmental conditions determining effectiveness factors. Brislin (1981) explained differences between short and long term expatriation. Short-term stay refers to less than one year. In short term assignments, expatriates can use "instrumental adaptation" by having clear goals to accomplish a task. Instrumental adaptation includes any behavioral change that serves the needs of the expatriate in his or her task accomplishment (Brislin, 1981). In other words, expatriates in a short-term stay can survive by making only instrumental adjustments. Moreover, expatriates in a short-term stay are not expected to show culturally appropriate behavior and are forgiven mistakes by the host (Brislin, 1981).
On the other hand, a long-term stay refers to an assignment of more than one year, usually a 2 or 3 year stay. In a long-term stay, expatriates are expected to behave appropriately by the host, and the host may react negatively if expatriates' behaviors are not appropriate (Brislin, 1981). Expatriates in a long-term stay also need to adjust to a new culture in order to be satisfied in their lives. Brislin (1981) stated that "Given that amount of time, people must cope with enough everyday problems to force some kind of significant adjustment above and beyond their familiar ways of behaving in their own culture" (p. 282). He referred to cultural adjustment as "smooth integration of personality with culture" (p. 283). Thus, between short and long term assignments, there are different expectations and requirements. In a long-term stay, expatriates need more interactional skills and cultural knowledge than those assigned to a short-term stay. Moreover, additional considerations about family situations must be needed in a long-term stay.

4.2.5 Managerial Structure

In international business, having a managerial structure which allows free interplay in different environmental systems becomes important. That is, the managerial structure requires flexibility in order to deal with distinct systems. Weinshall (1975) stated that the
that the more complex a structure is, the more flexibility that is required.

Another effectiveness factor is tolerance for ambiguity. Tung (1979) examined the relationships between organizational environment and the degree of the chief executive officer's perceived uncertainty. In her study, environmental factors included complexity, frequency and magnitude of turbulence, and a combination of the variability and analyzability of the stimuli confronting the organizational unit. Because managerial structure affects the decision making process, it is also related to complexity, turbulence, and stimuli which are creating the environment. Multistucture is more complicated than decentralized and centralized structure; it has more possibility to change than others. Tolerance for ambiguity is required for more complex structures than less complex structures.

4.2.6 Staffing Attitude

Four types of staffing attitudes are: (1) ethnocentric, (2) polycentric, (3) regiocentric, and (4) geocentric. Depending on different staffing attitudes, expatriates also require more or less flexibility and cultural knowledge. In a company with an ethnocentric attitude, an expatriate is likely to fill a position that
was previously held by another home country national. In this case, interactions and business operations might not greatly change between the former and the new expatriate. However, if an expatriate is sent to a position in a company which has a basically polycentric attitude, local nationals might not be used to work with home-country nationals. In this case, an expatriate would require more cultural knowledge and flexibility to deal with local people who have not been exposed to the home country's methods of operation. Similarly, because regiocentric and geocentric attitudes are more likely to mix different cultural backgrounds, an expatriate needs more cultural knowledge and flexibility in these situations, too. Thus, the type of attitude held by an MNC can influence qualifications for expatriates.

Throughout this section, effectiveness factors based on structural environmental conditions were briefly explained. Effectiveness factors frequently discussed are technical competence, flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity, interactional skills/abilities, cultural knowledge, and family situations. Based on past findings, it is apparent that different types of effectiveness factors are relevant in different structural environmental conditions. Further, the level of need for each
effectiveness factor also varies with each structural environmental condition. Table 4.1.1 to 4.1.5 show how these effectiveness factors influence specific conditions. As the tables reflect, however, not all effectiveness factors for each structural environmental condition have been discussed in the literature. The levels of emphasis on effectiveness factors based on structural environmental conditions are indicated by H - high, M - moderate, and L - low.

Table 4.1.1 Effectiveness Factors for Structural Environmental Conditions: Cultural Compatibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effectiveness Factors</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical Competence</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance for Ambiguity</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Skills/Abilities</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Knowledge</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Situations</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H, M, and L indicate the level of emphasis. H = high, M = moderate, L = low.
Table 4.1.2 Effectiveness Factors for Structural Environmental Conditions: Job Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effectiveness Factors</th>
<th>Structural Reproducer</th>
<th>Trouble Shooter</th>
<th>Operative Elements</th>
<th>CEO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical Competence</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance for Ambiguity</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Skills/Abilities</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Knowledge</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Situations</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H, M, and L indicate the level of emphasis. H = high, M = moderate, L = low
Table 4.1.3 Effectiveness Factors for Structural Environmental Conditions: Length of Overseas Assignment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effectiveness Factors</th>
<th>Length of Overseas Assignment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Long-Term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Competence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance for Ambiguity</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Skills/Abilities</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Knowledge</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Situations</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H and L indicate the level of emphasis.  
H = high, L = low
Table 4.1.4 Effectiveness Factors for Structural Environmental Conditions: Managerial Structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effectiveness Factors</th>
<th>Centralized</th>
<th>Decentralized</th>
<th>Mix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical Competence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance for Ambiguity</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Skills/Abilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cultural Knowledge</td>
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<tr>
<td>Family Situations</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

H, M, and L indicate the level of emphasis. H = high, M = moderate, L = low
In summary, this section discussed effectiveness factors based on structural environmental conditions by reviewing the research literature. Table 4.1.1 to 4.1.5 show the degree of influence of each effectiveness factor in each structural environmental condition. These tables make it easier to compare effectiveness factors for different conditions.
4.3 Relationships between Effectiveness Factors and Successful Intercultural Functioning

This section conceptually integrates the process of successful intercultural functioning for business expatriates, effectiveness factors, and structural environmental conditions. The relationships among effectiveness factors and structural environmental conditions with the process are explained. In the previous section, five categories of effectiveness factors were found: technical competence, flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity as personality traits, interactional skills/abilities, cultural knowledge, and family situations. Among these categories, technical competence and family situations are excluded. Although these two factors strongly influence successful intercultural functioning, they are not directly affected by intercultural training for an individual expatriate. The three categories of effectiveness factors that may be influenced by training are: personality traits including flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity, cultural knowledge, and interactional skills/abilities. These are related to the process of successful intercultural functioning as Figure 4.1. shows.
4.3.1 Personality Traits

Personality traits, which include flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity, affect psychological well-being because personality traits are one of the main
Technical competence and family situations are important effectiveness factors. But they are not included in this model because they are not a focus of intercultural training.

Figure 4.1 The Model of Successful Intercultural Functioning For Business Expatriates

4.3.1 Personality Traits

Personality traits, which include flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity, affect psychological well-being.
determinants of one's frame of reference. Personality traits function in both increasing and reducing psychological stress. The degrees of flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity determine the capacity of one's frame of reference, which affects the way one deals with a new environment. According to Torbiorn's model of adjustment as mentioned in Chapter 3, one feels satisfaction when the levels of applicability and clarity are over the level of one's perceived standard level. Which level one perceives as a standard level depends on one's personality traits. Torbiorn (1982) stated "if a person tends to have high aspirations in a great number of different situations, it would probably be correct to describe this as a personality trait" (p. 62). It is assumed that personality traits are determinants of one's frame of reference. So, they also determine one's satisfaction level.

4.3.2 Interactional Skills/Abilities

Interactional skills/abilities directly reflect interactional effectiveness. As Brislin (1981) noted, skills are prominent determinants of the amount and types of interaction. It is obvious that one's interactional effectiveness highly depends on one's interactional skills/abilities.
4.3.3 Cultural Knowledge

Cultural knowledge influences psychological well-being, interactional effectiveness, interactional skills/abilities and personality traits. Specifically, these factors are important for reducing psychological stress; helping to learn flexibility and reducing ambiguity; and facilitating effective interactions.

Consequently, although these three effectiveness factors seem to be related to each other, Figure 4.1 and the discussion above indicate specific relationships between and among each factor and component in the process of successful intercultural functioning. These explanations allow the model to serve as a comprehensive foundation for guidelines for effective intercultural training programs discussed in the following chapters.

4.4 Summary

Structural environmental conditions, effectiveness factors, and the process of successful intercultural functioning were conceptually integrated. This integration explains the all relationships related to successful intercultural functioning and provides a foundation for guidelines for effective intercultural training programs.
The key conceptualization in this integration is that different combinations of structural environmental conditions create different needs for successful intercultural functioning. Based on Structural environmental conditions, such as cultural compatibility, job type, length of overseas assignment, managerial structure, and staffing attitude, five effectiveness factors are pointed out: technical competence, personality traits (flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity), interactional skills/abilities, cultural knowledge, and family situations. Three of these effectiveness factors, personality traits, cultural knowledge, and interactional skills/abilities, are included in the model of successful intercultural functioning. The model of successful intercultural functioning clarifies qualifications for successful expatriation.

The next chapter will discuss the conceptual goals and functions of intercultural training based upon the proposed model of successful intercultural functioning. Also, overall effectiveness in intercultural training will be discussed. Then, currently used intercultural training programs will be examined in order to discover characteristics of each intercultural training program.
These characteristics become a part of the criteria for finding effective intercultural training programs.
Chapter 5
AN APPROACH TO EFFECTIVE INTERCULTURAL TRAINING

This thesis assumes that effective intercultural training differs as a function of different structural environmental conditions. This assumption implies that the effectiveness of intercultural training is dependent on the design of appropriate programs for specific structural environmental conditions. Examination of these conditions in the preceding chapters revealed different effectiveness factors that interact with each structural environmental condition. The suitability of intercultural training can be determined by examining both aspects: structural environmental conditions which call for different types of intercultural training and intercultural training itself which helps individuals be more effective in their overseas assignments.

In the previous chapter, the model of successful intercultural functioning was established in order to serve as a foundation for guidelines for effective intercultural training programs. As the next step,
intercultural training itself is assessed. By analyzing current intercultural training programs, the characteristics of each training program are clarified. These characteristics are the key to finding suitable training programs for particular structural environmental conditions.

In this chapter, first, the conceptual functions and goals of intercultural training will be discussed based on the model of successful intercultural functioning. Second, the effectiveness of intercultural training is discussed by looking at how training is administered. Two limitations on training conditions are pointed out: time and expense. Because of these limitations, intercultural training programs need to be analyzed in order to provide the most suitable training for each expatriate conditions. Finally, types of training are classified in terms of their goals, methods, context, and intensity. The clarification of these aspects of training helps to determine the most suitable training.

5.1 Conceptual Functions and Goals of Intercultural Training

Based on the model of successful intercultural functioning presented in the previous chapter, functions
and goals of intercultural training are conceptually explained. Conceptual functions of intercultural training explain why intercultural training can be effective. Conceptual goals drawn from the model integrate the model with intercultural training programs actually used.

5.1.1 Functions of Intercultural Training

The purpose of intercultural training is to help people function better in intercultural encounters, that is to cope with difficulties caused by cultural differences, to improve interactional skills, and to increase knowledge of the new culture.

Earley (1987) stated:

... intercultural training may be defined as any procedure intended to increase an individual's ability to cope and work in a foreign environment" (p. 685).

Brislin et al. (1986) explained that the ultimate purpose of intercultural training is "to increase the probability of people's successful adjustments to another culture" (p. 14). Gudykunst and Hammer (1983) emphasized that "one goal of ICT [intercultural training] is to improve intercultural effectiveness," (p. 121) that is effective interaction or communication.

According to a communication approach to intercultural encounters, culture is what members of
society learn and share through the socialization process that communication makes possible. Culture is learned. So, intercultural training represents an attempted shortcut to the long-term process of socialization.

In following the model of successful intercultural functioning, intercultural training should be designed to enhance psychological well-being and interactional effectiveness in order to facilitate task-performance. As regards psychological well-being, Torbiorn's (1982) model of adjustment helps to understand the purposes and functions of training. Grove and Torbiorn (1985) discussed in detail the goals of training. Satisfaction is maintained when the perceived applicability of behavior and clarity of the frame of reference exceed one's perceived standard level. The perceived applicability is one's perception of how his/her behavior is applicable in an environment. Because the level of applicability has a positive relationship with time, the higher the initial level of applicability, the earlier the level of applicability rises above the standard. One possible function of training is to raise the initial level of applicability, that is, to provide appropriate knowledge and behavioral skills.
On the other hand, clarity has a U-shaped curvilinear relationship with time. Clarity is one's confidence about the correctness of one's frame of reference which is manifested in his/her behavior. Because the level of clarity depends on one's confidence in one's behavior along with one's frame of reference, it is strongly influenced by applicability. There are two ways to increase the level of clarity in a shorter time.

First, the level of clarity is lowered in the initial stage. As explained in the discussion of culture shock in Chapter 2, less clarity (less confidence of one's correctness) stimulates the need for awareness of environmental conditions. In the normal change of clarity shown in Figure 2.3, it takes time both to decrease and increase the level of clarity. However, if one has less confidence in the beginning, or training teaches expatriates the incorrectness of their frame of reference in a new environment, it is assumed that expatriates start realizing environmental conditions and trying to change in shorter term. Training can help to lower the level of clarity, that is, to facilitate one's awareness.

Second, the increase of the perceived applicability of behavior raises the level of clarity in
short term. Because clarity level is strongly influenced by the level of applicability, the high level of applicability gives one the confidence of correctness of his/her frame of reference. Teaching appropriate behavioral skills in training facilitates raises in both levels of applicability and clarity. Thus, a function of training is also to decrease one's confidence in the correctness of one's frame of reference in order to facilitate awareness of differences in a new culture. Another function of training is to raise the level of applicability by teaching appropriate behavioral skills.

Enhancing interactional effectiveness is another function of intercultural training. It is assumed that less misunderstanding and inappropriate performance positively influences task performance. Intercultural training functions to reduce misunderstanding and inappropriate performance during interactions. The knowledge of cultural differences and appropriate behavioral skills are required in training.

In short, the model of successful intercultural functioning clarifies the functions of training. In particular, the model helps to understand the needs for intercultural training.
5.1.2 Goals of Intercultural Training

The model of successful intercultural functioning provides a conceptual and practical foundation for guidelines for effective intercultural training programs in terms of suggesting necessary considerations and clarifying goals of intercultural training when intercultural training is planned. Because effectiveness factors are qualifications to be emphasized for achieving successful intercultural functioning, effectiveness factors can be the key criteria for selecting an expatriate and for establishing goals for intercultural training.

There are two important considerations inherent in this conceptualization. First, among effectiveness factors related to successful intercultural functioning, technical competence differs from the other effectiveness factors. Technical competence basically concerns managerial and business skills and knowledge more than intercultural skills and knowledge. Although some business training programs do address some intercultural issues, it is not the primary goal of intercultural training to provide business skills and knowledge. Therefore, the technical competence factor is excluded as a goal of intercultural training. Yet, technical
competence must be considered in selection and as business training.

Second, altering the family situations factor is not a goal of intercultural training. Family situations need to be considered because of their strong influence on expatriates' psychological well-being, and must be taken into account in every expatriation. This factor is an important criterion in selecting personnel for expatriation, however, this factor is not a goal of intercultural training.

Considering these points, three effectiveness factors, cultural knowledge, flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity, and interactional skills/abilities, form the conceptual goals of intercultural training drawn from the model of successful intercultural functioning.

In short, this section conceptually clarified the functions and goals of intercultural training and provided the explanation for them. The next section will discuss the effectiveness of intercultural training.

5.2 Effectiveness of Intercultural Training

One way to enhance the effectiveness of intercultural training proposed in this thesis is to find
suitable training programs that are adapted to specific expatriate conditions. The first step in this process is to find out what makes expatriates successful, that is, what expatriates' goals and conditions are. The goals and conditions for successful intercultural functioning have been examined in the preceding chapters, and the different effectiveness factors for each structural environmental condition have been clarified. As the next step, the conditions under which intercultural training is done need to be considered. Then, intercultural training programs used in practice need to be examined.

5.2.1 Training Conditions

Past empirical studies (Cushner, 1989; Earley, 1987; Gudykunst et al., 1977; Mitchell & Foa, 1969; Nayar, Touzard & Summers, 1968) have demonstrated the effectiveness of intercultural training in general. The findings indicate that the more intercultural training is given, the more expatriates can successfully function abroad. In fact, Brislin (1989), Gudykunst et al. (1977), and Mendenhall et al. (1987) noted that the combination of several types of training is important in order to give trainees a comprehensive view of the variety of experiences and challenges they will have. In practice, however, the amount of intercultural training given
depends highly on other considerations, such as time and expense.

One of the reasons for omitting intercultural training discussed in Tung's (1982) study is a lack of time. In addition, some companies question the effectiveness of intercultural training. Findings indicate that some firms might not spend time considering expatriation issues in depth or giving expatriates sufficient intercultural training. Also, intercultural training is expensive for firms. Training costs (toward effectiveness or productivity) are a major concern in human resources management (see Kearsley & Compton, 1981). Depending on a firms' financial and human resources plans, firms cannot always spend the money needed for sufficient intercultural training. Under these considerations and because of them, suitable and effective intercultural training programs for each expatriate condition need to be determined.

In short, although the effectiveness of intercultural training can be partially determined by the amount and variety of training, time and expense must constrain training effectiveness in practice and limit types of training programs to be administered. Therefore,
finding the most suitable training programs for each structural environmental condition and its related effectiveness factors becomes one way to improve training effectiveness. In the previous chapters, the conceptual goals (effectiveness factors) of intercultural training have been discussed. In order to find an appropriate intercultural training program, which meets effectiveness factors emphasized by structural environmental conditions under limitations of time and expense. Four foci (goals, methods, context, and intensity) that can be used to classify intercultural training are discussed in the next section.

5.2.2 Types of Intercultural Training

Researchers (Brislin et al., 1983; Brislin & Pedersen, 1976; Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986; Triandis, 1977; Warren & Adler, 1977) have pointed out different classifications of intercultural training. However, these classifications vary in how they group programs. Gudykunst et al. (1977) stated:

A review of the literature on CCT [refers to cross-cultural training used as intercultural training interchangeably] suggests that there is a lack of clarity in the typologies that are used to classify CCT programs. This is due, in part, to the use of terms such as "models," "methods," and "techniques" in an inconsistent and interchangeable manner (p. 99).
This inconsistent manner seems to come from a lack of clarity in classification. This thesis emphasizes four foci of classification of intercultural training: goals, methods, content, and intensity.

The goal of training is to provide an expatriate with those qualifications that he/she is lacking. A method of training can be an indicator of the ease of and consumed time in training. Content of training is altered in order to fit different conditions. Intensity of training is a criterion for amount and rigor of training needed. Bennet (1986) noted three aspects of distinguishing each training program: (1) the nature of goals, (2) the nature of content, and (3) the nature of the process. These three aspects correspond with goal, content, and method of training mentioned above, respectively. Under the consideration of limits in time and expense, intensity needs to be found. Clarifying different goals, methods, content, and intensity of each training type can lead to more comprehensive classification of intercultural training and guide to find more suitable training programs. The following examines types of training in terms of goals, methods, content, and intensity.
5.3 Classifications for Intercultural Training Programs

Because of a lack of clarity in classification, intercultural training programs have not been clearly characterized. The following examines intercultural training programs currently used in terms of goals, methods, content, and intensity.

5.3.1 Goals of Intercultural Training

Goals for intercultural training reflect the reasons for administering intercultural training. The most basic goal of intercultural training, in a generic sense, is to facilitate successful functioning in intercultural settings. As explained in previous chapters, successful intercultural functioning includes effective task performance, living with minimal psychological stress (psychological well-being), and effective interaction with the host nationals. In order to achieve successful intercultural functioning through intercultural training, many facets of achieving this goal have been pointed out.

5.3.1.1 Eight Goals of Intercultural Training

Warren and Adler (1977) listed eight goals of intercultural training:

1. To provide the individual with information on other cultures.
2. To provide specific occupational skills where the individual is to work within another
3. To prepare the person to accept and be tolerant of values, attitudes, and beliefs that are different from his or her own.
4. To provide the individual with specific language skills.
5. To provide the person with appropriate behavioral responses in situations where the characteristics of the other culture prevail.
6. To prepare the person to understand, anticipate, and cope with the frustrations of culture shock.
7. To provide the person with understandings of his or her own culture and the problems caused by cultural bias.
8. To help the individual develop an orientation towards the cross-cultural experience which will make the experience itself enjoyable, interesting, and broadening (p. 129).

In the model of successful intercultural functioning for business expatriates proposed the previous chapter, effectiveness factors are also the conceptual goals of intercultural training. These common factors/goals are cultural knowledge, flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, and interactional skills/abilities (technical competence and family situations are excluded as goals). The eight goals of intercultural training which Warren and Adler (1977) listed fall into these three factors. Information on other culture (1), understanding culture shock (6) and own culture (7), and cross-cultural experience (8) are included in the cultural knowledge factor. Acceptance of different values, attitudes, and beliefs (3) is included in the flexibility factor. Tolerance for differences (3),
coping with the frustration of culture shock (6), and cross-cultural experience (7) correspond with the **tolerance for ambiguity** factor. Specific language skills (4) and appropriate behavioral responses (5) are included in the **interactional skills/abilities** factor. Occupational-skills (2) are a part of technical competence factor, which is excluded. Thus, Warren and Adler's eight goals for intercultural training fit into the conceptual goals of training derived from the model.

5.3.1.2 Three Foci of Intercultural Training

Triandis (1977) described different foci of intercultural training. These are: cognitive, affective, behavioral, general, and specific training. Cognitive training aims at a "change of thinking about the environment" (Triandis, 1977, p. 21). Because culture is created with people's shared meaning (as mentioned in Chapter 2), different cultures probably have different meanings for the environment and people's behaviors. So, in intercultural encounters, differing interpretations of the environment and others' behaviors become significant. Cognitive training gives information and knowledge about cultural differences. This cognitive training corresponds with fact-oriented training and attribution training (Brislin et al., 1983) and the cognitive-didactic approach (Warren & Adler, 1977). Attribution training is learning
about different points of view towards a given behavior. Warren and Adler (1977) regarded the cognitive-didactic approach as based on information-transmission.

Affective training deals with the emotional responses triggered by different cultures and people. Triandis (1977) explained that "A person, as a result of early socialization, develops a pattern of emotional responses to specific situations, people, or environments" (p. 20). When one is in a different culture, his/her pattern of emotional responses to a certain situation, people, or environment might be positive, or negative. Affective training helps to "increase the frequency of positive emotional responses to living in the other culture" (Triandis, 1977, p. 20). This affective training shares a common focus with the affective-personal approach classified by Warren and Adler (1977). They explained that this approach aims at self-awareness in order to understand one's own personal attitudes, values, beliefs, and world view. This understanding of oneself is an important step in becoming sensitive to behavior and emotional expressions in a different culture. Brislin et al. (1983) called this type of training "cultural awareness" which teaches a "basic idea about cross-cultural relations" (p. 13). This goal of intercultural
training is clearly explained by "perspective training" which is also mentioned by Gudykunst et al.'s study (1977). Perspective training focuses on teaching an intercultural perspective. They stated:

This perspective is a psychological frame which aids the trainees in better understanding the unfamiliar situations that are encountered in a foreign culture. The psychological viewpoint is neither from the trainees' own culture or from the host culture. Rather, this perspective acts as the facilitating "psychological link" between the trainees own cultural respective (i.e., assumptions, values, patterns of thought, learned behaviors, etc.) and the perspective of another culture (p. 107).

Behavioral training practices unfamiliar behaviors which one may not able to do in certain situations. Even though one understands appropriate behaviors, one sometimes cannot do them. This training gives experiences in practical behaviors. Behavioral training is represented by role-playing, actual interaction with the host nationals, and simulation-experiences. "Cognitive-behavior modification" and "interactional learning" training (as classified by Brislin et al. (1983)) also focus on behavioral aspects. "Experiential learning" (Brislin et al., 1983) and the "experiential approach" (Warren & Adler, 1977) training also include behavioral aspects as a goal.
Triandis (1977) pointed out two other emphases of training. General and specific training seem to reflect the content of training. Specific training focuses on a particular culture; general training uses a variety of cultural differences as a "sample of experiences" (Triandis, 1977, p. 21). These two emphases are discussed later in this chapter.

5.3.1.3 Three Goals of Intercultural Training

Cognitive, affective, and behavioral foci seem to be basic goals of intercultural training. Although researchers do not always classify training in terms of these three goals, other classifications, such as those of Brislin and Pedersen (1976) and Warren and Adler (1977) outlined them. Moreover, these three goals seem to correspond with the three conceptual goals derived from the model of successful intercultural functioning: cultural knowledge, flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity, and interactional skills/abilities. Cultural knowledge is obviously considered as a cognitive goal in terms of information and knowledge transmission. Goals of flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity can share their foci with the affective goal, that is, development of a psychological frame which helps trainees to better understand a different culture. Increasing flexibility
and tolerance for ambiguity corresponds with the development of psychological frame.

Interactional skills/abilities refer to the behavioral aspects of intercultural adjustment as mentioned in Chapter 2. Because behavioral training focuses on the practice of appropriate behavioral skills in a target culture, interactional skills/abilities correspond to behavioral goals.

In summary, the basic crucial goals of intercultural training are cognitive, affective, and behavioral targets which correspond to cultural knowledge, flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity, and interactional skills/abilities derived from the model of successful intercultural functioning.

5.3.2 Methods of Intercultural Training

A method of intercultural training refers to the way of giving/learning intercultural instructions. Because there is a lack of consistent classification of intercultural training, some of the goals and methods are at times synonymous with one another. In view of this confusion, Gudykunst and Hammer (1983) systematically classified types of intercultural training according to (1) training content, either the culture-general or
culture-specific focus, and (2) the two major methods of instruction, either didactic or experiential methods. Their classification consists of four quadrants created by cross-classifying the two training contents and two methods of instruction. The four quadrants are (1) didactic-culture general, (2) experiential-culture specific, (3) didactic-culture general, and (4) experiential-culture specific. The following introduces training programs currently used and classifies them according to Gudykunst and Hammer's (1983) classification of didactic or experiential methods of instruction.

5.3.2.1 Didactic Method

The didactic method is "... those activities that focus upon didactic or expository methods of instruction..." (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983. p. 136). This method includes "traditional academic courses," "cultural self-awareness," "area orientation briefings/language training," and the "cultural assimilator" (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983). Traditional academic courses are basically a class-room lecture using reading materials, films, and video tapes. This lecture type of training basically focuses on cognitive goals. Cultural self-awareness training is:

...based on the assumption that people can function in a foreign culture more effectively if they are aware of their own culturally
learned assumptions, values, and behaviors (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983, p. 137).

Thus, this training concerns affective goals. The method of the training is basically group-discussion with video tapes which show a certain pattern of conversation between North American and foreign people.

The methods of area orientation briefings include lectures and discussions which provide factual information about the target culture; cultural differences, such as personality traits, attitudes, values, and thought patterns of people in a host country; and behavior problems (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983). Gudykunst and Hammer (1983) stated that there is a need for some understanding of the language(s) in a host country. However, language training is excluded as a goal of intercultural training.

A cultural assimilator is reading material which consists of episodes about problem situations; questions about the reasons for the problem; four to five possible answers for the question; the most likely answer, and explanations for each possible answer (see Brislin, 1986; Brislin & Pedersen, 1976; Brislin et al., 1986; Cushner, 1989; Fiedler, Mitchell, and Triandis, 1971; Triandis, 1986). Although this training is reading material, its quiz type of method not only gives information about
possible problems in a host country but also makes trainees think and be aware of different points of view of host nationals. The training method is called "attribution training" by Brislin et al. (1983) and focuses on a cognitive goal.

The didactic method is basically able to give general information. However, several weaknesses have been pointed out: (1) lack of examining trainees' self improvement, (2) information based on an ideal level, (3) the methods do not deal with emotional reactions, (4) lack of practicing interactional communication skills, and (5) the limitations of methods which do not deal with real intercultural situations (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983).

5.3.2.2 Experiential Method

The experiential method, on the other hand, in contrast to didactic methods, deals with the more participative and active dimension of training. This includes confronting and coping with trainees' own "thoughts and feelings toward unfamiliar and sometimes stressful situations" in intercultural encounters; learning appropriate interactional skills in a host country; and learning effective solution of problems in unfamiliar and stressful situations (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983, p. 124). This training method includes
"Intercultural human relations training," "intercultural training workshops," "simulations," and the "reinforcement behavioral approach" (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983).

Intercultural human relations training and intercultural communication workshops are basically designed to analyze and identify appropriate behaviors and thinking patterns, etc., in a host country, to practice and confront new behaviors, and to understand and realize cultural differences/similarities. Intercultural communication workshops especially concentrate on learning through interaction in small groups including North Americans and foreigners. This training increases "... cultural self-awareness, interactional understanding, and intercultural communication competence" (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983, p. 128) by using reading materials, role-playing, cultural assimilator materials, and communication exercises" (Brislin & Pedersen, 1976). These types of training focus on behavioral and affective goals.

There are many kinds of simulation training, such as the contrast-American simulation, self-confrontation technique, BAFA BAFA, the albatross, and the owl (see Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983). These simulation training programs are designed to simulate cognitive cultural
differences. Through identifying cultural values and assumptions, different situations emphasizing different values and assumptions are created. In these situations, trainees interact in situations by role-playing; experience different values and assumptions, and discuss their experience including different values, behavioral differences and emotional responses. Although this type of training affects all three kinds of goals, through the emotional experience of role-playing in particular situations, affective and behavioral goals are focused upon.

The reinforcement-behavioral approach is designed to provide necessary interactional skills in a host culture. Trainees model appropriate behaviors in a host culture; exercise them in simulated host-culture environments, and experience and learn to cope with anxiety and fear occurring in these situations (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983, p. 136). This training facilitates trainees' seeking the source of reinforcement which can be found in a host culture. The target of this training is a behavioral.

Thus, Gudykunst and Hammer's (1983) classification contrasts passive-cognitive basis training (didactic) with
active behavioral and affective types of training (experiential). These training programs are clarified in terms of their methods and goals. However, some programs combine several methods. Brislin and Pedersen (1976) extracted basic types of effective methods from these training programs. These methods are: (1) guided reading, (2) equal status contact between group, (3) group discussion, and (4) role-playing (Brislin & Pedersen, 1976). Although there are several classifications of training programs, through identifying goals, types of training method, and their combinations, each intercultural training program is clearly characterized.

5.3.3 Content of Intercultural Training

Although introducing and analyzing the content of training programs is beyond the scope of this thesis, a controversy about the content of intercultural training need to be discussed. The culture-general versus culture-specific controversy focuses on which of these is the most effective training. Brislin and Pedersen (1976) explained culture-general training as:

...such topics as self-awareness and sensitivity training that allow one to learn about himself as preparation for interaction in any culture (p. 6).

On the other hand, they refer to culture-specific training as "... information about a given culture and guidelines
for interaction with members of that culture" (Brislin & Pedersen, 1976, p. 6).

Brislin and Pedersen (1976) and Gudykunst and Hammer (1983) summarize the argument of culture-general and -specific training. Culture-general training, such as cultural self-awareness training, will facilitate cross-cultural understanding, because awareness of one's own culture helps us to recognize cultural influences. Culture-specific training, such as teaching a particular decision making process, language, etc., will be more effective than culture-general training. Because it is hard to change one's belief, which is formed over one's life-time, in a short time of training, learning specific differences between one's own and a target culture seems to be effective in highlighting cultural differences. Empirical studies have not evaluated which one is more effective. Rather, Gudykunst and Hammer (1983) stated that "... an ideal training design would encompass both positions" (p. 125).

However, this thesis supports a greater emphasis on culture specific training. As the previous chapters explained, the basic idea of determining requirements for an expatriate depends upon an examination of the situation
where the expatriate is sent. Tables 4.1.1 shows that a host culture (cultural compatibility) is one of the conditions in expatriation. In this sense, intercultural training must focus on a target culture rather than deal with general cultural differences.

5.3.4 Intensity of Intercultural Training

Brislin (1989) categorized training programs into three levels of trainee involvement. The three levels of trainee involvement refer to:

... the degree of trainee participation, and it ranges from passive reception of knowledge through very active collaboration with the trainers (Brislin, 1989, p.444).

The three levels are a low, moderate, or high degree of participation in training. Moreover, the three levels cross the three goals of intercultural training: cognitive, affective, and behavioral goals. Based on the three involvement levels and the three goals, intercultural training programs can be divided into a three by three matrix. These are: (1) low(involvement)-cognitive, (2) low-affective, (3) low-behavioral, (4) moderate-cognitive, (5) moderate-affective, (6) moderate-behavioral, (7) high-cognitive, (8) high-affective, and (9) high-behavioral training (Brislin, 1989).
5.3.4.1 Low Intensity

Low-cognitive training includes lectures and assigned readings. This type of training provides a lot of basic information in a short time period. However, presenting too much information tends to decrease effectiveness of training. Low-affective training is also lecture type, using films and video tapes to show actual cultural scenes. Film presentations would facilitate emotional involvement. Low-behavioral training is demonstrations of appropriate behaviors by trainer, experts, and actors. Demonstrations can show mistakes, also.

5.3.4.2 Moderate Intensity

Moderate-cognitive training is represented by a culture-assimilator called "attribution training" (explaining in the previous section). A cultural assimilator is reading material which analyzes and criticizes cultural episodes. Trainees can check their point of view about episodes, and learn different view points. Because it is done in a quiz style, this reading material is more participative. Moderate-affective training is so-called self-awareness training. It uses group discussions to talk about cultural values and social problems related to these values. Participation and interaction in guided situations, such as visiting ethnic
restaurants, is also included. Experiencing feelings which one might have abroad are focused upon. **Moderate-behavioral training** provides situations in which trainees can practice new behaviors, such as field trips and interacting with host nationals.

### 5.3.4.3 High Intensity

**High-cognitive training** involves discussing and reading sophisticated concepts from the behavioral and social sciences, such as rules, labels, and individualism-collectivism. Brislin (1989) explained that trainees' tiredness when dealing with these themes shows their high involvement. **High-affective training** is based on role-playing in simulated interactions, such as negotiation with culturally different others. From actual interactions, trainees can learn and think about value differences and emotional differences. **High-behavioral training** provides simulations of host cultures or in the host country. In this situation, trainees can approximate life in the host culture and learn more realistic behaviors and manners. Trainees can also experience emotional stress. This training requires high cost and substantial time (See Brislin, 1989 for details).

Thus, the three goals of training involve different degrees of trainee involvement. However,
throughout this brief explanation of different types of training, it is assumed that the higher the involvement, the longer the training takes. This is because trainees seem to need introductory knowledge. Brislin (1989) recommended that trainees start from low involvement training in order to gain key information and general interest. In this sense, the degree of involvement indicates the intensity of training.

5.3.4.4 Intensity in Affective, Cognitive, and Behavioral Training

Mendenhall et al. (1987) illustrated the relationships between the degree of integration into the host culture and the rigor of cross-cultural training, and between the length of the overseas stay and the length of training and training approach. Integration into the host culture refers to "... the level of cultural fluency the expatriate will need to be successful" (Mendenhall et al., 1987, p. 339). The need for cultural integration depends on the length of the overseas stay and the degree of cultural difference. For example, even though a stay is short-time, a high degree of cultural difference might require high levels of integration in business negotiations (Mendenhall et al., 1987). The more rigorous the training, the more comprehensive and intensive training must be. Mendenhall et al. (1987) explained that
the more integration is needed, the more rigorous the training required. They also explained that the longer expatriates stay abroad, the longer the training needed to be. With regard to training approach, Mendenhall et al. (1987) used three types: cognitive, affective and behavioral, which correspond to the goals of training explained previously. In their illustration, the behavioral approach is most rigorous; affective moderate; and the cognitive least rigorous.

Mendenhall et al., (1987) had no explanation about reasons for the levels of rigor in each training approach (goal). However, the nature of each goal of training and Brislin's (1989) explanation of training programs based on three goals, at least imply that the primary need is for cognitive training. Cognitive training focuses on understanding cultural differences and can provide introductory knowledge. Yet, one's understanding or knowledge cannot deal with one's stress. Harrison and Hopkins (1974) stated:

...an important objective in training for overseas work should be the development in the trainee of the ability and willingness to take moderate emotional risks in situations where his sense of self-esteem is involved (p. 48).

Thus, in terms of emotional experience, affective and behavioral training give experience in how to handle one's
emotion under stress and cope with difficulties. In this sense, this training can be more intensive and applied training than cognitive training. Moreover, because behavioral training, which is based on interaction, always includes emotional experience, behavioral training can be more intensive than affective training.

The model of successful intercultural functioning (Figure 4.1) also reflects the influence of the cognitive aspect (cultural knowledge) on affective (flexibility & tolerance of ambiguity as personality traits) and behavioral (interactional skills/abilities) aspects. This indicates the basic nature of cognitive learning. From these explanations, the nature of cognitive, affective, and behavioral training have slightly different levels of intensity. In turn, affective and behavioral training require some basic training (cultural knowledge) which gives trainees effective understanding.

In summary, the goals, methods, content, and intensity of intercultural training programs have been clarified. The basic goals of intercultural training are cognitive, affective, and behavioral ones, which correspond to the conceptual goals in the model of successful intercultural functioning, which are cultural
knowledge, flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity, and interactional skills/abilities respectively.

Six basic training methods were analyzed: reading, lecture, discussion, interaction, role-playing, and experience. Intercultural training programs actually used combine several different methods.

Both culture-general and culture-specific content can be used in training. Culture-general content does not focus on only one culture. Rather, this kind of training concerns cultural understanding and awareness, and its content is not necessarily one specific culture. Cultural-specific training focuses on information about a target culture, whose content ranges from factual information to value differences. Yet, because of the importance of expatriate and training conditions, this thesis supports the need for culture-specific training.

Different levels of intensity in training and among the three goals of training were discussed. All three goals of training, cognitive, affective, and behavioral ones, can be low, moderate, and high intensity training depending on their methods and context. Among the three goals, cognitive goals provide information.
Affective goals are slightly more intensive than cognitive ones because, by giving emotional experience, this training aims at handling one's emotion and stress. Behavioral goals basically deal with interaction which requires cultural knowledge and provides emotional experience. Thus, cognitive, affective, and behavioral goals have slightly different levels of intensity by their very natures. This intensity becomes a measure for the amount and rigor of intercultural training programs.

Table 5.1 is the evaluation of intercultural training programs with their goals, methods, content, and intensity based on classifications of Brislin (1989) and Gudykunst and Hammer (1983).
Table 5.1 Evaluation of Intercultural Training Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programs</th>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Intensity</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Reading</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Factual</td>
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<td>Assignment</td>
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<td>Information</td>
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<td>Academic</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Lecture,</td>
<td>Factual</td>
<td>Low</td>
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<tr>
<td>Course</td>
<td></td>
<td>Reading</td>
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<td>Films,</td>
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<td>Course</td>
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<td>Videos</td>
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<td>Demonstration</td>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td>Lecture</td>
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<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Problem</td>
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<td>Assimilator</td>
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<td>Experience</td>
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5.4 Summary

This chapter conceptually clarified the functions, goals, and effectiveness of intercultural training and classified currently used intercultural training programs in terms of their goals, methods, content, and intensity. The discussions of functions, goals, and effectiveness of intercultural training develop a conceptual foundation for guidelines for effective and practical intercultural training programs. The classification of intercultural training programs the clarified criteria for selecting suitable programs.

The model of successful intercultural functioning explains functions and goals of intercultural training. The model shows what affects the process of intercultural functioning. Based on Torbiorn's (1982) model of adjustment, the functions of intercultural training are to raise the initial level of applicability, to facilitate one's awareness, and to reduce misunderstanding and inappropriate performance.

The conceptual goals of intercultural training correspond to effectiveness factors. Because effectiveness factors are what is required for expatriates, these factors become goals of intercultural
training. Among the effectiveness factors, technical competence and family situations are excluded because intercultural training for an expatriate cannot directly influence those two factors.

Time and expense for intercultural training were also discussed. Without considering them, firms cannot choose the most suitable training. Time and expense as training conditions need to be included so that the most suitable programs can be selected.

Based on four foci - goals, methods, content, and intensity - intercultural training programs used in practice are classified. Classifying training programs from these four foci helps uncover more suitable intercultural training programs. Table 5.1 shows the evaluation of each intercultural training program. The table is used in order to select the most effective intercultural training programs.

The next chapter will propose guidelines for effective intercultural training based on the model of successful intercultural functioning and the classification of intercultural training programs.
Chapter 6
GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE INTERCULTURAL TRAINING PROGRAMS

Even though various facets of business
expatriation and intercultural training have been
examined, it will not be easy to select an effective
training program for each different structural
environmental condition of expatriation. Because many
data can affect these conditions, and these factors
influence one another, it is difficult to choose a
suitable training program for successful intercultural
functioning.

Assuming that the most effective intercultural
training is the most suitable intercultural training for
each structural environmental condition, this thesis has
examined structural environmental conditions and
effectiveness factors for successful intercultural
functioning. Based on these examinations, this chapter
provides guidelines for effective intercultural training
programs.
In this chapter, first, as a bridge between the conceptual model presented in Chapter 4 and intercultural training programs in practice, a model of the relationship between successful intercultural functioning and the goals of intercultural training will be developed. Next, guidelines for effective intercultural training programs will be proposed based on all conceptualizations and considerations presented in this thesis. Finally, an application of the guidelines will be illustrated.

6.1 Relationship between the Conceptual Model and Goals of Intercultural Training in Practice

In Chapter 4, the model of successful intercultural functioning was presented. Three effectiveness factors in the model—personality traits, cultural knowledge, and interactional skills/abilities—were presented as the conceptual goals of intercultural training in Chapter 5. These three conceptual goals correspond to the three goals of intercultural training commonly used in practice which are affective, cognitive, and behavioral goals.

Including these three goals in the model, the relationship between three goals of intercultural training and successful intercultural functioning is shown as Figure 6.1.
Figure 6.1 The Model of Successful Intercultural Functioning for Business Expatriates: The Relationship with Goals of Intercultural Training

Figure 6.1 not only shows the relationship between successful intercultural functioning and the goals of
intercultural training but also explains how intercultural training affects in the process of successful intercultural functioning. In this sense, this figure clearly makes the model useful in practice. Moreover, Figure 6.1 represents the flow of guidelines for effective intercultural training programs proposed in the next section.

Although the selection of expatriates is beyond the scope of this thesis, differences between selection and training procedures need to be mentioned. Figure 6.1 also represents a conceptual foundation for setting selection criteria. Selection criteria are the qualifications required for an expatriate. These qualifications are effectiveness factors in this thesis. Because both the selection and training systems aim at appointing more effective personnel, these two automatically share the same model of successful intercultural functioning. This is the reason why some researchers (Borrmann, 1968; Tung, 1981) treated selection and training under the same process. Brislin and Pedersen (1976) noted the need for the integration of selection and training systems. Thus, it must be true that the effectiveness of intercultural training relies, in part, on effective selection. However, the effectiveness of
selection and training systems do not necessarily share every consideration. There are some factors which can be taught and others that cannot be. Also, time spent on training and the degree of skill which trainees can achieve in training are crucial. Although selection and intercultural training for expatriates rely on similar procedures, this thesis has focused on only intercultural training.

6.2 Selecting Training: Guidelines for Choosing Effective Intercultural Training Programs

Taking into account all considerations proposed in this thesis, guidelines for effective intercultural training programs can now be proposed. The guidelines consist of five steps to select the most suitable training program for a specific expatriate condition.

1. Examine the structural environmental conditions and determine the job type following the Table 4.1.2. Depending upon the job type, such as troubleshooter and operative element, technical and business skills training might be needed in addition to intercultural training.

2. Examine two other structural environmental conditions, cultural compatibility between home and host countries and the length of overseas assignment following
Tables 4.1.1 and 4.1.3. Cultural differences (compatibility) and the need for a certain level of adjustment (reflected by the length of overseas assignment) are the main concerns of intercultural training.

The cultural influence is the most important aspect to study in intercultural training. Because cultural compatibility and length of overseas assignment require all three effectiveness factors (cultural knowledge, personality traits, and interactional skills/abilities), this step establishes the level of intensity of the intercultural training. If both cultural compatibility and the length of overseas assignment indicate a high emphasis on these effectiveness factors, more time and elaborate training programs are required. If both conditions indicate a low emphasis, intensive training might not be needed. Thus, at this step, the level of the basic training need is determined.

3. Consider the family situation of the expatriate and training for family members based on step 2. The level of cultural compatibility and the length of overseas assignment also strongly influence family members. In the condition of low cultural compatibility and long-term
stay, considering the opinions of and training for family
members is necessary because the family indirectly affects
the expatriate's performance on the job.

4. Next, the other structural environmental
conditions need to be evaluated. Analyze managerial
structures, staffing attitudes, and job types in order to
determine what effectiveness factors need to be emphasized
(and thereby, also emphasizing the necessary goals of
training). The managerial structure and staffing attitude
of firms especially determine the level of flexibility and
tolerance for ambiguity. If these conditions indicate
high-level demand, in this case, affective goals of
training need to be emphasized in addition to training
considered in the step 2. At the same time, the job
assignment must be considered. If the position of an
expatriate is either structure reproducer or CEO, training
for interactional skills/abilities (behavioral training)
must be emphasized.

5. Select the final training programs considering
the time and expense which can be allocated for training
programs. Table 5.1 identifies some suitable training
programs. There might be many other training programs.
Yet, the guidelines outline the need for training in terms
of goals, methods, content, and intensity. Based on these aspects, other types of training programs which are not introduced in this thesis can be evaluated.

6.3 An Application of the Guidelines: A Hypothetical Illustration

In selecting intercultural training programs in practice, the limitations of time and expense are an important consideration. These limitations narrow the choices among training programs. Therefore, the nature of each goal of training must be scrutinized in order to choose the most effective training programs given these limited choices. As mentioned in Chapter 5, the cognitive goals of intercultural training include the most introductory training levels. If a firm can only afford a minimum amount of training, introductory cognitive training must be chosen for an expatriate who does not have any overseas experience. This cognitive training provides a basic level of knowledge concerning intercultural encounters. Keeping this point in mind, the following hypothetical case illustrates how the proposed guidelines in this thesis can be applied.

6.3.1 A Case of Expatriation

An American trading company, Company A, which has operated in Europe for 20 years, has been expanding its
business in Japan for the past two years. Company A decided to send personnel to establish a formal branch in Tokyo within two years. At present, the company is in the process of selecting an expatriate for establishing this branch. The expatriate would be expected to leave for Japan one month after his/her selection. Some intercultural training needs to be designed. The budget of the company for intercultural training (pre-departure training) is sufficient for most types of intercultural training for a month-long program. However, the expatriate would be very busy in the month before departure.

6.3.2 An Application of the Guidelines

Selecting the most appropriate intercultural training would follow the proposed guidelines outlined in this thesis. Step 1 identifies the job type. The given expatriate position is that of a structure reproducer because the task is to establish a new branch. Table 4.1.2 shows that a structure reproducer requires a high tolerance for ambiguity, good interactional skills/abilities, and cultural knowledge. Intensive training and mixed goals for training are thus indicated.

Step 2 considers the level of cultural compatibility and the length of overseas assignment. In
terms of cultural classification, Japan has low compatibility with the culture of the United States. As for the length of overseas assignment, a two-year stay is seen as a long-term stay. Both low cultural compatibility and a long-term stay indicate the need for intensive training. As Step 3 suggests, because this expatriate's condition requires high qualifications, that training for his/her family members also needs to be considered (if any family member accompanies the expatriate).

In Step 4, goals for training based on the three structural environmental conditions, job type, managerial structure, and staffing policy, are determined. As mentioned, the given job type (structure reproducer) requires all three goals of training. The managerial structure of Company A is considered to be centralized because in the process of establishing a branch, that is, in its initial stage, the role of this expatriate must depend on Company A. The staffing attitude of Company A toward Japan is seen as ethnocentric. In its initial stage, the branch must be similar to the domestic workplace of the expatriate because it is still highly dependent upon its parent company. According to these three structural environmental conditions (See Table 4.1.2, 4.1.4, and 4.1.5), this expatriate requires high
qualifications in order to deal with business in Japan (because of its job type). However, the work situation inside the company for this expatriate does not require high qualifications in order to interact with colleagues and the parent company (because of managerial structure and staffing attitude of Company A). Therefore, based on the job type, all three goals are emphasized for this expatriate.

Step 5 leads to the final training programs in view of the time and expense. Because the given condition requires three goals and high intensity training, an ideal training program will be intercultural workshops which can include reading, role-playing, and interaction methods. However, the expatriate may not have sufficient time for intensive workshops, such as those scheduled an entire day. Assuming the minimum time that the expatriate could spend for training is four one-hour session (one hour per week), four one-hour workshops specially emphasizing the three goals can be designed. An intercultural training program designed in the foregoing manner might look like the follows.

1. Reading assignment: To learn brief factual information including climate, life style, and behavioral
differences, such as greeting and manner (Introductory training: cognitive goal, reading method, culture-specific, low intensity).

2. Workshop 1: To learn highlighted factual information and behavioral skills by lecture and visual material (cognitive, affective goal; lecture method; culture-specific; low intensity).

3. Workshop 2: To practice behavioral skills including greeting and manner after given visual models and to learn how-to skills, such as how to make an appointment and to eat sushi by lecture or visual material (Affective, behavioral goal; role-playing, lecture methods; culture-specific; moderate intensity).

4. Workshop 3: To learn behavioral problems and problem episodes using the cultural assimilator and visual material by lecture and discussion (cognitive, affective goal; lecture, discussion method; culture-specific; moderate intensity).

5. Workshop 4: To learn highlighted values and attitudes by lecture and discussion, and to review behavioral skills (cognitive, affective, behavioral goals;
lecture, discussion, role-playing methods; culture-specific; moderate intensity).

6.4 Advantages of the Guidelines

The guidelines for effective intercultural training programs have three advantages for the current practice of intercultural training. First, the guidelines are theoretically grounded. The model of successful intercultural functioning itself is a product of a theoretical perspective on intercultural encounters. Especially, in the process of establishing the conceptual models (Figure 4.1 and 6.1), this thesis explains intercultural encounters, intercultural training needs, and training effectiveness on the basis of a communication perspective toward cultural influences.

Second, the guidelines are an integration of specific and general conditions for successful intercultural functioning. That is, the guidelines focus on both business conditions and general cultural conditions for intercultural encounters. The considerations of both conditions for expatriation in the study of intercultural training have not been emphasized. In this sense, this approach - the integrated view - is a challenge to current studies on intercultural training.
Finally, the guidelines for effective intercultural training programs are simple and efficient. The procedure of selecting intercultural training programs correspond with the flow of the model of successful intercultural functioning (Figure 6.1). Through understanding the conceptual and practical framework of the guidelines, users are able to follow the presented guidelines.

These three factors are advantages of the presented guidelines for effective intercultural training programs. Following the five steps above, the most suitable training program can be selected. In each step, structural environmental conditions, effectiveness factors and types of training may not be precisely followed in practice. However, this thesis, proposing new conceptualizations and considerations in intercultural training, provides one way to achieve more effective intercultural training programs.
Chapter 7
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this thesis was to propose guidelines for effective intercultural training programs through (1) considering the specific demands of business expatriation, (2) conceptualizing successful intercultural encounters, and (3) examining current intercultural training programs. Based on the assumption that the effectiveness of intercultural training programs is determined by the demands of the conditions of expatriation, one way to achieve effectiveness is to find the most suitable intercultural training program for each expatriate condition. This study focused on discovering specific conditions in business expatriation and on clarifying complex concepts in intercultural encounters in order to discover the most suitable training program for each different expatriate condition.

7.1 Summary

Expatriation covers many different purposes for overseas assignments, such as, those of business, the
Peace Corps, the missionary, military, or study programs. The demand for intercultural training, especially in business, arises from the expansion of international business and cultural diversity in work situations. Two study fields, business management and intercultural studies, need to be integrated in order to clarify various needs for intercultural training.

Chapter 2 outlined the process of successful intercultural functioning for business expatriates by reviewing studies on intercultural encounters and conceptually clarifying the process of successful intercultural functioning. First, the importance of a communication approach in intercultural studies was discussed in order to define the concept of intercultural encounters. This approach focuses upon cultural influences on intercultural encounters and the need for intercultural training. The concept of cultural compatibility was introduced as a measure of ease in intercultural encounters.

Second, three important concepts in intercultural encounters: culture shock, adjustment, and effectiveness/competence, were examined. Past research has not adequately defined these concepts. Emphasizing a
psychological view of adjustment, this study conceptually distinguished two aspects of adjustment: covert and overt adjustment. Covert adjustment refers to one's internal adjustment which is based on satisfaction. Overt adjustment refers to the behavioral aspects of adjustment which can be judged by oneself and others through their interactions.

Third, a model of process of successful intercultural functioning for business expatriates was proposed by applying the conceptual distinction of covert and overt adjustment. The model explains how each concept in intercultural encounters is interrelated in ongoing intercultural encounters. The model provides the conceptual foundation for the integration of several concepts, such as structural environmental conditions, effectiveness factors and goals of intercultural training, which were presented the subsequent chapters.

Chapter 3 discussed the conditions for business expatriation by examining the business management literature. The specific conditions for business expatriation were derived from the background of multinational corporations and the roles and functions of business expatriates. Also, the importance of
environmental conditions was discussed. The environmental conditions are determinants of successful intercultural encounters.

The examination of MNCs found an increase in business expatriation and documented the importance of business expatriation as a strategy of MNCs. The roles and functions of business expatriates were also examined. Based on these examinations, organizational conditions which affect business expatriates, such as job types, length of overseas assignment, managerial structure, staffing attitude, and organizational behavior and business situations in the host culture were found. It is these organizational conditions that determine the need for intercultural training.

A new direction toward business expatriates was also introduced. The global orientation needed for U.S. MNCs clearly requires expatriation because it is one way to develop global views. This new direction provides another organizational consideration for business expatriation.

Chapter 4 proposed a new conceptualization of factors affecting successful expatriation which include
structural environmental conditions and effectiveness factors. Also, the model of successful intercultural functioning is proposed by integrating structural environmental conditions and effectiveness factors for intercultural functioning into a model for successful intercultural functioning.

First, by introducing factors affecting successful functioning reviewed in the literature, a new conceptualization of these factors - structural environmental conditions and effectiveness factors - were explained. Structural environmental conditions are defined as cultural and organizational conditions which determined what is required in successful intercultural functioning. Effectiveness factors are defined as qualifications for successful expatriation which are determined by structural environmental conditions.

Second, effectiveness factors were determined by structural environmental conditions. Five structural environmental conditions drawn from Chapter 2 and 3 were: cultural compatibility, job type, length of overseas assignment, managerial structure, and staffing attitude. As effectiveness factors, technical competence, personality traits (flexibility and tolerance for
ambiguity), cultural knowledge, and interactional skills/abilities were frequently emphasized in each structural environmental condition. Table 4.1.1 to 4.1.5 show the relationship between structural environmental conditions and effectiveness factors.

Third, the model of successful intercultural functioning for business expatriates was proposed by integrating structural environmental conditions and effectiveness factors in a model of successful intercultural functioning.

Chapter 5 focused intercultural training. The conceptual functions of intercultural training were discussed based on the conceptualization of successful intercultural functioning. The conceptual functions of intercultural training explain the effectiveness of intercultural training. Also, three conceptual goals of intercultural training - personality traits, cultural knowledge, and interactional skills/abilities - were derived from the model of successful intercultural functioning. These conceptual goals correspond to three training goals used in practice: affective, cognitive, and behavioral goals.
Effective intercultural training was defined as the most suitable training for given structural environmental conditions. Time and expense for training were also considered. Moreover, intercultural training programs currently used were classified according to the goals, methods, content, and intensity of intercultural training. The classifications help to select the most suitable training programs because they indicate four important aspects of each training program.

Chapter 6 proposed guidelines for effective intercultural training programs based on considerations presented in the previous chapters. First, the relationship between successful intercultural functioning and the goals of intercultural training was presented. Three goals of intercultural training - affective, cognitive, and behavioral goals - were added in the model of successful intercultural functioning.

Finally, guidelines for effective intercultural training programs were proposed. The guidelines consist of five steps which select the most suitable intercultural training program by considering possible conditions which affect business expatriation. An application of the guidelines were illustrated. The guidelines have the
three advantages of being theoretically grounded, of integrating business and general intercultural conditions, and of providing simple, efficient guidelines.

7.2 Conclusion

These guidelines are useful because they select suitable training programs by taking account of the practical business conditions for each different expatriation. To the best of the author's knowledge, such guidelines based on academic research have not been proposed. In a practical sense, the guidelines can respond to the demand for effective intercultural training in business.

This study shows the importance of integrating two separate areas of study. In order to clarify goals and conditions for expatriation, the examination in a target field (in this thesis, business management) is required. This thesis discovered several unique conditions for business expatriation, such as job type, influence of a firms' managerial structures and staffing attitudes, and the host's cultural influence on organizational behaviors and business situations. Moreover, there appears to be an increasing need for more expatriation. Without these understandings, it is hard to clarify needs for intercultural training for business expatriates.
A new conceptualization (model) of successful intercultural functioning for business expatriates helps articulate the process of intercultural functioning and develops goals for intercultural training. The model of successful intercultural functioning established is based on the importance of psychological aspects in intercultural adjustment and its strong influence on other factors. By presenting both effectiveness factors as determined by structural environmental conditions and the goals of intercultural training in the model of successful intercultural functioning, the model conceptualizes intercultural encounters and meets the practical needs for intercultural training.

The recognition of two underlying dimensions of successful expatriation - structural environmental conditions and effectiveness factors for intercultural functioning - provides a possible way to establish expatriate qualifications required by different expatriate conditions. Moreover, this distinction challenges the previous studies on successful expatriation which have just enumerated factors and not conceptually clarified them.
The goals, methods, content, and intensity of intercultural training clearly classify types of training programs and refine unclear classifications in past research. These foci of intercultural training not only characterize each training program but also help select more suitable training programs for each expatriate condition. Also, these four foci offer a new approach to intercultural training.

Following the assumption that the effectiveness of intercultural training programs is determined by each different condition of expatriation, this thesis suggests one way to examine structural environmental conditions and thus lead to suitable training programs. It is possible that there are many other factors in organizations which affect expatriate conditions, such as firms' possession of expatriate support systems, telecommunication systems, networks, etc. Also, depending upon different firms, different structural environmental conditions can be emphasized.

Understanding the structural environmental conditions was the key of this thesis. However, there are many possible factors to be examined which influence business expatriation. Without consideration of each
expatriate condition, the goals for intercultural training cannot be clear. This integrated view suggests the importance of clarifying a goal by considering all conditions of the expatriation in order to provide effective intercultural training.
REFERENCES


191


