INTERCULTURAL TRAINING FOR INTERNATIONAL PLACEMENTS

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SUMMARY

Despite its increasing popularity, much intercultural training is not developed with the same level of rigour as training in other areas. Further, research on intercultural training has brought inconsistent results about the effectiveness of such training.

This PhD thesis develops a rigorous model of intercultural training and applies it to the preparation of British students going on work/study placements in France and Germany. It investigates the reasons for inconsistent training success by looking at the cognitive learning processes in intercultural training, relating them to training goals, and by examining the short- and long-term transfer of intercultural training into real-life encounters with people from other cultures.

Two cognitive trainings based on critical incidents were designed for online delivery. The training content relied on cultural practice dimensions from the GLOBE study (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004). Of the two trainings, the 'singlemode training' aimed to develop declarative knowledge, which is necessary to analyse and understand other cultures. The 'concurrent training' aimed to develop declarative and procedural knowledge, which is needed to develop skills for dealing with difficult situations in a culturally appropriate way. Participants (N=48) were randomly assigned to one of the two training conditions.

Declarative learning appeared as a process of steady knowledge increase, while procedural learning involved cognitive re-categorisation rather than knowledge increase. In a negotiation role play with host-country nationals directly after the online training, participants of the concurrent training exhibited a more initiative negotiation style than participants of the single-mode training.

Comparing cultural adjustment and performance of training participants during their time abroad with an untrained control group, participants of the concurrent training showed the qualitatively best development in adjustment and performance. Besides intercultural training, multicultural personality traits were assessed and proved to be a powerful predictor of adjustment and, indirectly, of performance abroad.

KEYWORDS: CROSS-CULTURAL, LEARNING, NEGOTIATION, EXPATRIATES, ADJUSTMENT

Dedication

For Annemarie, Eva and Irmgard

Many have taught me to know.

You have shown me to understand.

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generously of your time and yourself, enduring all my moods and tempers, you have proven better friends than I could ever deserve. In hours of darkness, you've lightened up my path with joy. In hours of light, you have made it shine even brighter.

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Sojourning in a global world

The first expatriate whose experiences are known in detail had a really hard time. When Odysseus and his crew set off from the coasts of Troy, they never dreamt of the ordeals they would experience before seeing again the beloved shores of Ithaka. They were beaten, drugged, bewitched, seduced, electrocuted and eaten alive. In the end, only Odysseus alone managed to escape the dangers of all the strange people and unknown tribes he encountered.

Odysseus' tale, while famous for its imaginative action, tells a truth that is more important today than ever before: The skills needed to master the challenge of interacting with other cultures are not physical strength, but versatility, resourcefulness perseverance and respect for others. These qualities lifted Odysseus above all of his men and allowed him to return to his beloved ones safe and (almost) unharmed.

Today, the situation is rather different. Sojourns have long since been such a risky endeavour as they were 2000 years ago. In the business realm, expatriates assignments are no more the adventures reserved for a select elite of corporate managers they were in the past decades; rather, such assignments have become a common stage in professional career development (Carpenter, Sanders, & Gregersen, 2000; Oddou, Mendenhall, & Ritchie, 2000). The number of expatriates of all ages moving across cultures is larger than ever before - and it is still growing (GMAC, NFTC, & SHRM, 2005).

Due to these developments, cultural skills of future employees become more and more important (Laughton & Ottewill, 2000). Young adults joining the workforce must expect to compete for employment not on a national, but European or even global level. Many more opportunities for work abroad await them, and similarly, increasing numbers of foreigners participate in the UK labour market (Gilpin, Henty, Lemos, Portes, & Bullen, 2006).

This rise in mobility of labour necessitates a high level of cultural competence on all sides. Students in higher education in the UK today will have to be able to work

effectively with people from other cultures. Whether their challenge is about working in diverse teams, negotiating with foreign parties, or going on expatriate assignments, students will need to find their way in a labyrinth of global complexities. The skills necessary to master this labyrinth are not developed automatically. They have to be trained and exercised, otherwise the risk and cost of failure is high.

A popular way of building cultural competence is study abroad at university level. While it was considered fancy, extravagant and courageous in earlier centuries, studying abroad, even for a limited period of time, is becoming a routine activity for students around the world. Figures of European and US-American students participating in study abroad programmes show an enormous demand. In 2004/5, 144.000 students participated in the European exchange programme ERASMUS (European Union, 2006). In the US, about 190.000 students participate in study abroad programmes on an annual basis. It is targeted to develop this number to one million students per year by 2016 (Lincoln Commission, 2005).

Sojourners' preparation for a global world

Notwithstanding its popularity, going abroad during higher education without being prepared for the culture shock one is likely to experience can easily result in the typical feelings of homesickness, solitude, and other symptoms of maladaptation and stress (Furnham & Bochner, 1986). Cultural preparation can help prevent or ameliorate these negative symptoms.

However, reality shows that the preparation actually offered to students is rather limited. In their review of intercultural training for international students in the US, Goldstein and Smith (1999) conclude that the training offered is mostly not relevant and rigorous enough to prevent problems. Much of the pre-departure preparation offered to students is labelled "orientation". The overall aim of such orientation programmes is to equip students with the basic knowledge for functioning in other cultures. This is far from training intercultural skills. Training intercultural skills goes deeper than these orientation programmes and aims to equip trainees with a thorough understanding of other cultures

and with the skills to handle cultural differences and flourish in novel social and physical environments.

Professional expatriates have long benefited from such training as an integral part of their assignment preparation. It is estimated that 80% of companies offer intercultural training to their expatriates before they are sent abroad (GMAC, NFTC, & SHRM, 2006). For students, no figures are readily available, but numbers are likely much smaller.

A sceptic might argue this lack of preparation stems from the lack of financial interest involved in students' success or failure abroad: Whereas a failed expatriate assignment can have devastating financial and strategic consequences for the company, unsuccessful work experience or study abroad will do most harm to students themselves. Yet in this argument, long-term implications, like students' attitude towards globalization, their approach towards internationalization, competence and willingness to implement international policy and strategy are overlooked. These are clearly important outcomes for students, universities, business and society. It is therefore in the interest of all parties, not only the students, to prepare them adequately for their international sojourns.

In order to prepare students well for their sojourn, rigorous programmes are necessary that exceed the usual level of "cultural orientation". Intercultural training, similar to offerings for professional expatriates, can help students find their way in other cultures and develop cultural self-awareness even before they go abroad (Cushner & Karim, 2004). With such preparation, students have a much better start on their stay abroad and will likely be able to capitalise more on their experiences, build cultural competence and the ability to work effectively with members of other cultures. This increases their employability, and on a larger scale, increases the cultural competence of new workforce generations.

However, scientific interest in the design and evaluation of intercultural training for students is rare. Often, students are used only as convenience samples to provide conclusions about training for professional expatriates (Deshpande, Joseph, & Visweswaran, 1994). Few studies have looked at intercultural training related to students' developmental needs and the challenges they face on their sojourns. In view of the immense number of student sojourns and the impact students' cultural competence has

on a global scale, there is a surprising and alarming lack of research on their preparation to go abroad.

The research building this doctoral thesis addresses this research gap. It comprises both practical and scientific aspects by developing and evaluating an intercultural training programme targeted specifically at student sojourners.

A thorough review of the effectiveness of intercultural training and a comprehensive stage model of intercultural training build the basis for the programme designed in this study. Designed for British students sojourning to France and Germany, the training was delivered to students before their sojourn. A systematic evaluation of the training comprised the aspects of cognitive learning, behavioural impact, and long-term effectiveness.

Overview of this thesis

The structure of this thesis unfolds along the lines of the stages of training design and evaluation as depicted in figure 1.1.

Research design	PhD thesis
	Chapter I: Introduction
	Chapter II: Literature review on intercultural training
	Chapter III: A model for effective intercultural training
	Chapter IV: Training design and delivery

Assessment of multicultural personality, self-efficacy, goal orientation, self monitoring

Single-mode Training: Understanding other cultures	Concurrent Training: Understanding other cultures and behaving appropriately

ITIP Training

Workshop with intercultural negotiation role play with host French and German nationals

Untrained control group

Assessment of adjustment, performance, multicultural personality:
4 months after departure
8 months after departure

Chapter V: Learning processes for declarative and procedural learning

Chapter VI: Behavioural effectiveness on intercultural negotiation skills

Chapter VII: Training and personality effects on adjustment and performance

Chapter VIII: Overall discussion

Figure 1.1: Flowchart of the research and structure of this thesis.

Note: ITIP = Intercultural Training for International Placements.

The theoretical background for this thesis is conveyed in two chapters. The first chapter comprises a review of previous research into intercultural training, focusing on

different training methods and their effectiveness. Based on this, a comprehensive model of intercultural training is developed that comprises all the necessary stages from training needs analysis, design, delivery and evaluation. This model can be applied in organisations and institutions of higher education likewise to enhance the strategic value, methodical rigour, and outcome-related effectiveness of intercultural training.

The methodology chapter concerns the design of the intercultural training as developed for this thesis. The training included a cognitive and a behavioural part, with the cognitive part preceding the behavioural part.

The trainings in the cognitive part had different learning goals:. One training (referred to as single-mode training) aimed to develop declarative cultural knowledge, which is necessary to analyse and understand other cultures. The other training (referred to as concurrent training) aimed to develop declarative as well as procedural cultural knowledge to equip participants with a basis for developing behavioural skills to cope with cultural differences. Both trainings were culture-specific and focused on the transition from British to French and German culture. The content for these trainings was the theory-driven and empirically confirmed through the research reported in the GLOBE study (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two training conditions, which were equal in length and both delivered online. The analysis of these two trainings includes a comparison of the learning processes in both trainings over time, both regarding the absolute magnitude of knowledge learnt as well as the shape of the learning curves.

The behavioural part of the training was identical for all participants and involved a negotiation role play with confederates from France and Germany. The goal of this part of the training was to create an opportunity for students to apply the knowledge (declarative and procedural) they had attained in the cognitive training part in a realistic and stressful intercultural setting.

After the methodology chapter, three empirical (theory-testing) chapters follow that focus on different aspects of intercultural trainings.

The first of these chapters focuses on the learning processes occurring over the course of the cognitive training phase. In this chapter, it is postulated that intercultural learning can be differentiated into objective and subjective learning, and that intercultural

learning comprises declarative and procedural knowledge development. Further, it is investigated how these forms of knowledge develop over the span of intercultural training, and how they relate to relevant personality characteristics.

The second empirical chapter refers to the behavioural impact of the two cognitive trainings by examining students' behaviour in the intercultural role play. It hypothesises how the two training types influence performance and negotiation behaviour of students and investigates the role of personality characteristics for outcomes and behaviours in intercultural negotiation. It further explores the different behaviours that relate to success in negotiations with a French versus a German counterpart.

The third chapter addresses the long-term effectiveness of the intercultural training for students on their sojourn. Four months and eight months after departure, training participants and an untrained control group were asked to fill in a multicultural personality questionnaire and give self-ratings of their adjustment and performance abroad. In this chapter, it is hypothesised that the two training groups should show better adjustment and performance than the group of untrained students. Again, the role of relevant personality characteristics is examined, testing the assumption that high multicultural personality leads to high adjustment and, indirectly, to high performance abroad.

The final discussion of this thesis integrates findings of the three empirical chapters and considers their value for further scientific investigation into the processes of intercultural learning and the effectiveness of intercultural training. The discussion ends with a reflection on the practical side of intercultural training.

CHAPTER II:
METHODS AND EFFECTIVENESS OF INTERCULTURAL TRAINING

Synopsis

This chapter is a literature review about intercultural training. Its aims to give an overview over the most common methods of intercultural training and the research that has been carried out to evaluate the effectiveness of these methods. The chapter is organised in two parts. In the first part, three main approaches to intercultural training are differentiated: The university model, the experiential model and the behaviour modification model. Then the culture assimilator, a widely used cognitive method, is described in more detail. The second part of this chapter deals with empirical investigations about the effectiveness of intercultural training in general and of the culture assimilator in particular. Various improvements on the classic culture assimilator are described and evaluated. The chapter concludes that, even though some recent developments in intercultural training methods have been able to increase its overall questionable performance, there is still room to improve intercultural training effectiveness.

Background of intercultural training

Intercultural training emerged almost contemporarily as an area of interest in practice and research. According to practical needs of the time, intercultural training was increased, improved, diversified, and re-invented. By now, it is an established area within the field of intercultural relations.

The onset of intercultural training as it is known today can be traced to the orientation programmes Edward T. Hall was asked to design for the US Foreign Service Institute. The trainings he designed, focussing on the interface between culture and communication, set out a direction of intercultural training that is still relevant today: The emphasis on reflection and awareness of one's own culture, a non-judgemental attitude towards cultural differences whatever they might be, and training contents for actual and everyday encounters with members of other cultures (Pusch, 2004). The rising popularity of the Peace Corps meant a steep increase in intercultural training offered in practice and abetting research about training approaches and methods.

Intercultural training methods

From the mid 1960's onwards, a variety of intercultural training methods was invented, applied, and tested for its effectiveness. Many of the training methods invented in this era are still in use today and provide an abundance of tools and methods suitable for various objectives and target groups.

Many authors have suggested differentiations of training methods according to underlying principles. However, none of the suggested classifications was able to order fully the pandemonium of training methods - arguably due to the lack of theoretical background in intercultural training design per se (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983).

A classical and easy categorisation for training methods is the differentiation made by Gudykunst and Hammer (1983), who employ two dimensions of training approach (university-didactic, behavioural, or experiential) and training content (culture-specific or culture-general).

The university model

The university model of intercultural training is based on the assumption that cognitive understanding is a necessary precondition for intercultural effectiveness and success abroad. Its name is derived from the classic style of university education in the middle of the last century; it does not imply that this is the main model of intercultural training used at universities today. Typically, trainings in this model heavily rely on methods of one-way communication (lecture) to impart information to a group of trainees about one or more cultures: A culture's history, geography, religion, economy, legislation, and so forth. Contents of the university model training are usually derived from books and newspapers, as well as personal experience. Some training also features case studies of certain behaviours or procedures in other cultures, which are to be analysed and compared.

The theoretical argument behind university model trainings is the uncertainty reduction principle (Gudykunst, 1995). This principle states that the most negative aspect about coming to a new culture is increased uncertainty on side of the sojourners, because they are in an unfamiliar environment. This uncertainty leads to anxiety, which in turn hampers cultural adjustment and performance. Thus, anything that reduces sojourners uncertainty should raise their satisfaction and adjustment in the new culture. University model trainings aim to reduce this uncertainty by providing to sojourners as much information about the new culture as possible.

Another theoretical foundation of university model trainings is the development of a cognitive framework for new (culturally different) behaviours (Bandura, 2002). More modern trainings of this type base on the assumption that the cognitive understanding of a situation is a precondition for appropriate behaviour. To develop such understanding not only of a specific situation, but of a whole culture, extensive information about this culture is necessary.

University model trainings have many practical advantages: They are suitable for imparting a large amount of relatively easy information to a big audience within a short time frame, need little preparation and few resources. These are valuable benefits if financial and time resources are scarce. University model trainings are therefore still

widely used. However, as Harrison and Hopkins (1967b) pointed out, such methods are only useful to "cover the ground" in intercultural learning. Their verdict is based on four critiques:

First, the underlying learning paradigm that provides a basis for the university model is learning as the reception of information. However, conceptualising learning as a passive one-way process does not correspond with trainees' real life situation in other cultures, in which the onus of acquiring, structuring, and evaluating valuable and truthful information lies with the trainee. Further, this paradigm assumes that differences in learning outcome are due to differences in trainees' engagement, effort, or basic ability to learn, but cannot be blamed on shortcomings on the side of the trainer. This paradigm is also called "Blame the student" (Biggs, 1999) as faults in learning are attributed to the trainees, not the trainer.

Second, the university model provides a very clear learning environment and a "strong" learning situation. All materials are prepared and the trainee's role and duties are explicit. This is in stark contrast to the ambiguity and uncertainty trainees experience when coming into another culture. University-model trainings are often designed in a way to teach trainees "how to do things right" in another culture, similar to cookbook recipes. However, this does not correspond with the real situations abroad, which are often unclear, or "weak". Sojourners need to find cues to judge a situation and decide for what is the right thing to do before they can think about doing these things right.

Third, traditional classroom environments tend to be depersonalising. Trainees are reduced to their mental capacities; emotional or physical reactions are ignored and regarded as undesirable and useless side effects. However, real-life situations of cultural differences are emotionally charged and highly unpleasant. Moreover, in many difficult cross-cultural situations, the biggest challenge is the management of emotion itself, rather than the choice of appropriate behaviour (Van Glinow, Shapiro, & Brett, 2004).

A forth arguments against the university model is its "paper orientation" (Trifonovitch, 1977). Both learning and assessment are paper based. Most learning happens through reading written documents, either course materials or other information. Similarly, most assessment is done through the writing of reports or even formal knowledge tests. This paper orientation is not aligned to the necessity of building people-skills and interaction skills. Without the need to engage in interpersonal

communication, problems both in verbal and non-verbal communication are not addressed in the university model.

Thus, taken together the university model has the advantages of easy administration and preparation and little needs for resources. However, despite its popularity and its advantages, is not the most suitable model to maximise training gains.

The experiential model

Experiential trainings have emerged as a behavioural reaction against the cognition-based university model. Consequentially, they very much focus on trainees' holistic involvement in the learning process (Black & Mendenhall, 1989). Trainees are immersed into situations similar to those they might experience in other cultures. Such situations could be induced by role plays, simulations, or even field trips abroad. All these situations are designed to elicit learning that comprises the cognitive, behavioural, and affective level.

The experiential approach to intercultural training is based on Kolb's experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984) of a cyclical learning process comprising four stages – concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation.

Learning onset is possible anywhere in this cycle, though in practice, mostly starts with concrete experience. From a concrete experience, e.g. a discomforting incident in a foreign culture, trainees reflect and gather information that allows them to make sense of the experience and associated feelings. At this point, external guidance, e.g. by a trainer, is regarded as helpful and often necessary; otherwise the trainee might often come to wrong conclusions. External help serves to validate the trainee's implicit and explicit explanations of the event and to reach new abstract conceptualisations of the event in particular and the foreign culture in general. These conceptualisations, e.g. theories about the foreign culture's norms and rules of behaviour, can then be tried out in active experimentation, which in turn leads to new concrete experiences that can be reflected upon.

The experiential learning cycle is not tied to situations characterised explicitly as learning environments - it continues when students are abroad. As Yamazaki and Kayes

(2004) point out, trainees need to be equipped with a comprehensive skill set to engage in a successful learning cycle: They need interpersonal skills (necessary in concrete experience), information skills (for reflective observation), analytical skills (to reach abstract conceptualisations), and action skills (to engage in active experimentation). Experiential intercultural training can help build these skills and teach trainees to "learn how to learn" by using the necessary skills at the appropriate stages in their learning experience. Inherent in the experiential model is the notion that cultural self-awareness is necessary to become aware of the culturally strange; therefore the development of cultural self-awareness is often a training goal per se (Kraemer, 1999).

An example of intercultural trainings based on experiential learning is the culture contrast method (DeMello, 1995), in which trainees interact with a fictitious culture of maximal dissimilarity to their own. This individual-based simulation creates intense emotional and cognitive reactions leading to higher cultural self-awareness but not necessarily to understanding of other cultures or behavioural skills. Further, this method necessitates the presence of a skilled actor to personify the contrast culture, which means a huge increase in training costs and organisational effort compared to university model trainings.

Less intense experiences are possible for less cost and effort in group-based simulations like BARNGA (Thiagarajan, 1990). In these simulations, different cultural norms are introduced to groups of trainees without their knowledge about these differences. After a norm-learning phase, trainees from different groups interact with each other. The subsequent reflection is centred on the experienced conflict or clash of norms and on the emotions aroused by this conflict; trainees are also encouraged to evaluate the utility of the cognitive, affective, and behavioural strategies they used to cope with the induced conflict.

Behaviour modification training

Behaviour modification trainings base on Bandura's (1977) social learning theory. Social learning theory, similarly to experiential learning theory, adopts a process view of learning. However, this theory clearly defines, the onset of learning: Learning starts with the intentional observation of the behaviour of significant others (attention). This

observation is cognitively processed (retention) and, if deemed appropriate, imitated (reproduction). Depending on the psychological rewards of this imitation, the newly learnt behaviour is either adopted and rehearsed and refined, or dropped and forgotten.

Social learning theory proved fruitful for intercultural training because both university and experiential model are making little use of the behavioural dimension of cultural competence. In their seminal review, Black and Mendenhall (1990) portray this as a major reason for the disappointing effectiveness of intercultural training. Behaviour modelling training is most relevant for habitual behaviours that people are mostly unawares of (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000). Specifically, behaviours like gestures and physical expression of emotions that underlie huge cross-cultural variation need to be understood, practiced and rehearsed many times before they can be applied correctly in context. Behaviour modification trainings are therefore very long. In practice, such trainings are rare and used only for specific cultural behaviours, e.g. intercultural negotiation skills.

The culture assimilator

The culture assimilator (Fiedler, Mitchell, & Triandis, 1971) is a hybrid training between the university model and the experiential model. It is one of the best-known and most frequently applied methods designed specifically for intercultural training purposes (Brislin, Cushner, Cherrie, & Young, 1986). Also known as the "intercultural sensitizer", it is a programmed learning method based on critical incidents (Flanagan, 1954). The training consists of a range of fictitious scenarios of interactions between people from different cultures. In all these scenarios, the behaviour of the host country national is somehow unexpected from the cultural perspective of the trainees. Each scenario is followed by four or so alternative explanations of why the member of the other culture has behaved in that specific way. Trainees are asked to choose the appropriate explanation - appropriate from the foreign culture's perspective. Whichever answer the trainee selects, feedback is provided whether the answer was appropriate or not and additional information is given about the cultural values, customs and norms of the target culture. This feedback helps trainees to understand the frame of mind of another culture that explains behaviour across situations. The more trainees learn to understand the

cultural values and customs of another culture, the better they get at explaining specific behaviours with reference to these values, customs and norms.

The theoretical basis of the culture assimilator is attribution theory (Albert, 1983). Attributions or causal explanations are formed upon confrontation with unexpected incidents or behaviours; they are employed in the pursuit of making sense of the situation and interpreting other people's behaviour correctly.

The culture assimilator aims to help trainees make so-called isomorphic attributions (Albert, 1983). This means trainees learn to make the same attributions as a member of the other culture would do. For a specific behaviour observed in a scenario, an isomorphic attribution implies that the observer interprets the behaviour such that the actor's intention is recognised correctly. With isomorphic attributions, trainees learn to make correct inferences about the intentions that underlie a person's behaviour. On a broader scale, being able to form isomorphic attributions means being able to understand and interpret behaviour of host country nationals correctly. The implicit assumption in culture assimilator trainings then is that trainees who can interpret cultural behaviours of others correctly are also able to behave in a culturally appropriate way themselves.

From its invention until today, the culture assimilator remained one of the most popular methods for intercultural training (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000). While training practitioners value its flexibility and easy application, participants perceive it as interesting, relevant, and enjoyable (Bhawuk, 2001). Furthermore, the culture assimilator holds advantages for experimental research, as involvement of the trainer or researcher can be minimised to reduce experimenter effects. Due to its objective, standardised knowledge base, the culture assimilator can be successfully applied even if the trainer has no or only limited experience with foreign culture(s).

The culture assimilator combines advantages of the university model and experiential model. Its continuing success is based on many advantages: First, the training content in culture assimilators is derived from actual experiences of prior sojourners. Culture assimilators do not rely on the variable competence of specific trainers; rather, they contain "expert" information that is validated by host country nationals.

Second, the culture assimilator relies on programmed instruction, so that only little facilitation is necessary. Trainees can use the culture assimilator on their own, in their favourite environment, and pace their own learning. However, it can also be used in

group-based trainings where trainees can debate and reflect collectively on their learning experience.

Third, culture assimilators do not need a fixed time frame, trainers can choose to pick only a few situations or deliver the whole training, just as they see fit.

The culture assimilator has proven highly flexible to incorporate new learning and training technologies. While early versions of the culture assimilators in the 1970s and 1980s had been entirely paper-based, the following decade saw the development of computer-based culture assimilators with more options and features to tailor the programme to trainees' needs. Around the turn of the millennium, web-based culture assimilators evolved, combining the advantage of high-quality material with versatility and world-wide accessibility (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000).

Despite changes in learning technology underlying the delivery of culture assimilators, learning contents have remained relatively stable. However, three types of culture assimilators have evolved: Culture-specific assimilators, culture-general assimilators, and theory-based culture assimilators.

Culture-specific assimilators focus on the transition between two specified cultures, e.g., people from the US going to Thailand (Worchel & Mitchell, 1972) or Venezuela (Tolbert & McLean, 1995). Frequently, these trainings have been made available in form of self-instruction books that are widely available – e.g. a training for German managers going to the UK (Schmid & Thomas, 2003). The content of these trainings is derived from collected experiences of previous sojourners between these two countries.

Culture-general assimilators include scenarios from more than one culture. An example is the training designed by Brislin and colleagues (1986). It comprises more than 100 critical incidents taken from different combinations of home and host culture, grouped into themes that are universally relevant. The variety of problems and situations contained in this culture-general assimilator was designed to help trainees internalise a general set of guidelines for successful intercultural adaptation.

The third kind of culture assimilators are theory-based assimilators (Triandis, 1984). These trainings are based on cultural value dimensions rather than on specific cultures, and focus on the behaviour arising from cultural differences in these dimensions. An example of this is the assimilator based on the value dimension of individualism-

collectivism (Bhawuk, 1995) In theory-based assimilators, critical incidents are not based on incidental experiences of former expatriates but on dimensions of culture theory. The advantages of this approach are twofold. First, designing theory-based assimilators requires only a fraction of the time necessary to construct a theory-free, purely empirical culture assimilator . Second, culture theory provides a more reliable basis than random subjective experience with a certain culture to inform intercultural trainings. Therefore the cultural validity of the constructed incidents in theory-based assimilators is higher than in empirical assimilators. With a theoretical basis, culture assimilators provide a meaning system that helps trainees "make sense" of other cultures in a consistent, rule-driven way. This approach could easily be extended to include other cultural dimensions, for example from the works of Hofstede (2005), Trompenaars (Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996), or the GLOBE team (House et al., 2004).

Combination and integration of training methods

Many researchers advocate the combined use of multiple intercultural training methods (Baumgarten, 1995). Especially methods within the university model have been combined with either experiential methods (Earley, 1987) or behaviour modelling methods (Harrison, 1992). Combined trainings use multiple channels for learning, thus increasing stimulus diversity. Participants often perceive such trainings as more enjoyable than single-method trainings. Further, combined trainings are especially useful if trainees prefer different learning styles or if no assessment of learning styles has been made (Barmeyer, 2004).

Effectiveness of intercultural training methods

The effectiveness of intercultural training is well-researched; however, researchers still disagree about it. Opinions about intercultural training range from highly effective (Brewster & Pickard, 1994) to moderately effective (Tung, 1981) to ineffective, or even detrimental Various reviews and meta-analyses have examined the outcomes of intercultural training, mostly examining the relationship between training participation and cultural adjustment or performance abroad.

The first large-scale review of intercultural training effectiveness was Black and Mendenhall (1990). The authors differentiated three types of outcomes that intercultural training should seek to achieve: Intercultural skills, facilitated cultural adjustment, and increased performance abroad. For the 29 training studies they reviewed, the adjustment goal was generally attained, but increases in performance and cross-cultural skills were achieved by only 50%-66% of the trainings.

In a meta-analysis of 21 intercultural training study, Deshpande and Viswesvaran (1992) also found heterogeneous results. Looking at the relationship of intercultural training with self development, perceptual skills, relational skills, adjustment and performance, they found medium overall correlations for all these outcomes. However, only for self development and perceptual skills the amount of variance was large enough to conclude that intercultural training had a positive influence. For cultural adjustment, performance, and relationships with host country nationals no safe conclusions about the positive or negative role of training could be derived because the variance explained was too small.

Reviewing these studies and other research, Landis and Wasilewski (1999) summarise that assumptions about general effectiveness of intercultural training are oversimplified or even right-out wrong.

More recent studies have not been much able to improve the picture about training effectiveness, either. An updated meta-analysis (Morris & Robie, 2001) that examined only adjustment and performance outcomes found the mean correlations with training to be rather low (all adjusted correlations < .23).

The most recent narrative review by Mendenhall and colleagues (2004) showed that the effectiveness of intercultural training varied largely between the types of outcome variable measured. Enhanced cultural knowledge and trainee satisfaction were relatively frequent outcomes of intercultural training initiatives, while behavioural skills, attitudes, and performance yielded mostly non-results. As Mendenhall et al. (2004, p.138) put it, these findings "can be interpreted either as the cup of intercultural training being half full or half empty – depending on one's predilections regarding the value of intercultural training".

Such differing results for intercultural training effectiveness could be explained by methodical flaws of single evaluation studies (Kealey & Protheroe, 1996): Not all studies used untrained comparison groups, some studies trained participants for interacting with subcultures within their own culture, while others trained participants for the much vaster cultural differences experienced when entering another country or even continent. Comparing trainings with such different goals and target groups is not easily permissible. Moreover, differences in training duration and training method were not taken into account in these reviews. Thus, such overall estimates of effectiveness are not very telling.

Another explanation for these inconclusive results is the sole use of distal evaluation criteria. As a review of the expatriation literature shows, adjustment and performance, although important measures of sojourner success, are influenced by many factors other than intercultural training: First, trainee characteristics like prior cultural experience and personality have a relevant influence (Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999). For example, stable personality factors such as openness and self-efficacy (Harrison, Chadwick, & Scales, 1996) and the big five personality characteristics (Caligiuri, 2000a; Ward, Leong, & Low, 2004) determine expatriate adjustment and performance to a large extent.

Further, the interaction with others, such as contact and support from host-country nationals (Caligiuri, 2000b; Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001; Toh & DeNisi, 2005) and the adjustment and the coping strategies of significant others (spouse and family) are relevant for the expatriate success (Bauer & Taylor, 2001; Prudential Relocation & The Interchange Institute, 2004; Shaffer & Harrison, 2001; Stierle, van Dick, & Wagner, 2002).

Even environmental influences are important. Recently, Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, and Luk (2005) found that job stressors (e.g., role clarity and role discretion) and structural support from the organisation (e.g., logistic support for the move) were important predictors, too. Finally, the cultural context , especially cultural distance between home and host country, is another determinant of expatriate success (Waxin, 2004).

Conclusion about the effectiveness of intercultural training

A broad range of methods exists within the realm of intercultural training. The classification of these into university model, experiential model, and behaviour-modelling methods is useful to highlight advantages and disadvantages of each method and help align training methods with likely outcomes. This alignment is important for the design of intercultural training as well as for its evaluation.

Evaluation of intercultural training methods has been patchy and brought forward inconclusive results. This is mainly due to three methodical shortcomings of evaluations: A lack of methodical rigour in the evaluation process, a lack of focus on specific training methods and proximal training outcomes, and the failure to take other variables into account that affect proximal and distal training outcomes.

An approach that gives more substance to conclusions about the effectiveness of intercultural training methods should therefore incorporate the call for methodical rigour by using a controlled, and if possible, experimental design that compares specific training methods with each other and with an untrained control group (Kealey & Protheroe, 1996). Some examples of evaluations with such a rigorous design can be found for the culture assimilator. These will be discussed in the next section.

Second, a good evaluation approach should further ensure a high alignment of training goals with their evaluation. This can be achieved by evaluating not only distal outcomes, like adjustment and performance, but also examining how specific training methods evoke learning, what form of learning they evoke, and how this learning is transferred into practice. Without closely following the process of intercultural learning, learning transfer, and application, no inferences about the usefulness of intercultural training methods can be made.

Third, a thorough evaluation of intercultural training methods should also take into account other factors that the intervention that could influence the distal training outcomes in question, such as adjustment and performance. Many studies have looked into determinants of sojourner success other than intercultural training and have found predictors within the individual, in the interaction with host country nationals, as well as job-related and contextual influences. These results imply that studies about the effectiveness of intercultural trainings, and especially meta-analyses, would necessarily come to different conclusions depending not only on the training goals and methods investigated, but also because the characteristics of trainees, characteristics of the environment, and the interaction between trainees and environment are incomparable. Therefore, these factors must be purposefully measured and accounted for.

Finally, to interpret any results of such evaluations in a meaningful way, an overarching framework of intercultural training is needed that embeds training methods into a larger training context and theories of culture and intercultural learning. Such a framework will be proposed in the next chapter.

Effectiveness of the culture assimilator

Compared to evaluations of other training methods, studies assessing the outcomes of culture assimilator trainings have been more numerous. Culture assimilators have been evaluated for intracultural and intercultural purposes likewise, with samples from the US and other countries, in lab-based experiments and longitudinal field studies. The high methodical rigour of culture assimilator evaluations compared to other methods allows a detailed assessment of the outcomes of this training method.

In the following, studies are summarised that investigate outcomes of the culture assimilator, compare the assimilator with other methods, and assess the utility of theory-based assimilators over and above empirical culture assimilators.

The culture assimilator and isomorphic attributions

Due to its foundation on cognitive psychology, most of all, attribution theory, the evaluation of cognitive outcomes has dominated in culture assimilator research.

In a laboratory study, the effects of a culture assimilator for attribution were examined (Weldon, Carlston, Rissman, Slobodin, & Triandis, 1975). The authors were interested in the shift of attribution patterns from typical white-American lines of thought towards black-American attributions. They found that the culture assimilator could evoke the desired attribution shift as well as positive changes in perception of the other culture and attitude towards the other culture. However, peer judgements revealed no differences in behaviour between trained and untrained subjects, an observation that the authors attribute to increased anxiety and uncertainty directly after the training. Landis, in a review about this article, pointed out that maybe the content of a culture assimilator required time to be learned and consolidated with existing knowledge. Only then behavioural effects could be observed (Landis, cited in Weldon et al, 1975).

Based on this hypothesis, Randolph, Landis and Tzeng (1977) examined how the influences of time and practice impact on learning in culture assimilators. They looked at the post-training development of cultural anxiety. Results showed that attribution patterns of trainees were more similar to the target culture, and that cultural anxiety of trained participants decreased over time, while it remained on a high level for untrained subjects. Trainees also enjoyed the interaction with the other culture more than untrained participants.

The first evaluation of a culture-general assimilator was conducted by Cushner (1989). He trained students going to New Zealand on a high-school exchange and compared them with untrained peers. Trained students were more able to form abstract understanding from incidents in the training, perceived greater control over their environment, solved intercultural problems on a broader knowledge basis, and had a 50% reduced risk to return home early.

Together these studies show that the culture assimilator is an appropriate method to teach trainees isomorphic attributions for other cultures. Further, changes in cultural knowledge, as well as perception and attitude towards other cultures were also found to be direct outcomes of culture assimilator training both in laboratory and field studies.

This can be regarded as strong evidence for the impact that culture assimilators have on processes and mechanisms of cultural cognition.

Evaluation of the culture assimilator against other training methods

Various studies have investigated if, or in which areas, the culture assimilator is superior to other training methods.

Worchel and Mitchell (1972) evaluated culture assimilator trainings for US sojourners in Thailand and Greece. A comparison group received informational training (essay reading). The study showed that the culture assimilator was more effective on self-rated performance, adjustment and interpersonal skills than essay reading. Further, the Greek assimilator proved to be better than no training for self-rated adjustment, interpersonal relations and productivity.

Landis, Brislin and Hulgus (1985) examined cultural anxiety and behavioural competence after either a culture assimilator, a role play task, or the combination of both. They could show that sequential training, first with a culture assimilator, then with a role play task, resulted in lowest anxiety levels. This combination also resulted in the best behavioural competence when interacting with members of the target culture.

Harrison (1992) evaluated the culture assimilator against a behaviour modelling training and provides a theoretical rationale for the expected learning outcomes. Further, he suggested that the two training methods could have synergies. Based on Anderson's (1990) stage model of knowledge development, he argued that the first stage, cognitive memorizing of stimuli, is helped best with the critical incidents of a culture assimilator. The following two stages, associate knowledge development and autonomous response, are best achieved with behaviour modelling. This hypothesis was tested with a six-group controlled design. Outcomes were assessed with a learning test and a behavioural interaction task. Both trainings gained better learning test results than a no-training control group. Participants of the behaviour modelling training and combination training yielded better behavioural results than participants of the culture assimilator or no training; the combined training was generally best in all dependent measures.

Overall, these studies show that the culture assimilator is an effective training tool, but its effects are mainly in the cognitive domain. Its best use in practice is the

combination with other training methods, such as experiential and behaviour-modelling methods, to achieve a holistic learning outcome. .

Evaluation of theory-based culture assimilators

The most recent development in culture assimilators are theory-based assimilators. Elaborating Harrison's (1992) argument about the cognitive development in culture assimilators, Bhawuk (1998) suggested that better learning effects should be yielded by constructing culture assimilators on the basis of sound-and-proven culture theories. He presented a model of cross-cultural competence development through training that differentiates four stages: lay person, novice, expert, and advanced expert. He posits that normal culture assimilators should enable trainees to reach only novice status, while theory based assimilators should help trainees achieve an expert status because they provide a meaningful framework to integrate new knowledge. Advanced expert status could only be obtained through repeated practice. Bhawuk tested this proposition in a study comparing three types of assimilators: a culture-theory (based on individualism - collectivism), a culture-general, and a culture-specific (traditional) assimilator, with a no training control group. Results showed that the theory-based assimilator outperformed to the other two trainings in the development of intercultural sensitivity and cognitive category width, but showed no superiority to other trainings or the control group in measures of cognitive learning or behavioural competence. However, the study design did not allow testing for qualitative differences between novice and expert as suggested in the model.

An in-depth study of the cognitive changes occurring in culture assimilator trainings was conducted by Buerkle (1999). Also basing his arguments on Anderson's model of expertise development, he argued that assimilators targeted to develop cognitive flexibility should outperform a traditional training regarding cognitive learning outcomes and use of strategies for understanding cultural differences. This effect should emerge because flexibility-centred assimilators teach trainees the principles of cultural meta-cognition, thus giving them cultural understanding on a higher level. However, Buerkle's comparison between traditional and cognitive flexibility culture assimilator yielded inconclusive results. The cognitive flexibility training was effective in promoting

the use of more complex attributions for the behaviour of foreigners, but could not enable participants to develop coherent cognitive schemata similar to those of host country nationals.

The latest test of theory-based culture assimilators was conducted by Banatwala (2002). She compared the effectiveness of two different theory-based assimilators with a control group that spent time reading relevant material without further guidance. One assimilator was based on the cultural value dimension of individualism – collectivism (Triandis, 2001), while the other was based on axioms of the theory of anxiety-uncertainty management (Gudykunst, 1995). Results showed that both culture assimilators were better than the control group for affective and cognitive measures, with the assimilator based on anxiety-uncertainty management showing slightly better effects than the individualism-collectivism training. However, no effects emerged for interpersonal and behavioural outcomes.

In summary, these studies bring evidence that culture assimilators based on theories of cultural value dimensions or cultural perception might outperform culture assimilators constructed on a purely empirical basis. However, due to the summative assessment of learning effects, developmental processes of learning and qualitative differences in knowledge development have been left unexplored. In order to derive conclusions about the applicability of Bhawuk's (1998) model, such processes need more detailed examination.

Conclusion about the effectiveness of the culture assimilator

The studies reviewed above show that culture assimilators are a useful training method if cognitive learning outcomes are the main training goal. Not only can assimilators shape trainees' attribution patterns, they also lead to higher cultural knowledge and more positive cultural perceptions and attitudes than trainings based on the university model. Thus, results from empirical studies about cultural assimilators strongly corroborate its positive influence on cognitive learning measures. However, some questions remain unanswered.

First, reasons why and mechanisms how the culture assimilator affects cognition remain unclear. So far, only two studies (Bhawuk, 1995; Buerkle, 1999) looked at the

cognitive processes that might be explain cognitive changes evoked by culture assimilators. While they found that culture assimilators enabled cognitive learning, their results could not shed very much light on the learning process achieving this effectiveness. Even though Bhawuk (1998) presented a multi-stage model of cognitive development in intercultural training, only the results of such a development, not learning per se, was measured in his study. In Buerkle's study, results are too inconclusive to confirm or disconfirm his hypotheses about structural cognitive changes.

Second, the debate about the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the culture assimilator on behavioural outcomes still continues. Most early studies (e.g. Triandis et al., 1971, Cushner, 1989) found culture assimilator trainings to have effects on behaviour in another culture. However, most of the recent studies, which employed a more rigorous design than early approaches (e.g., by inclusion of control variables, control groups and multi-source measurement), did not find behavioural effects. Harrison (1992), who found no evidence of behavioural effectiveness, argues that positive behavioural outcomes found in earlier studies can be explained by the fact that in these studies the culture assimilator was administered to trainees *after* their arrival in the other culture. Thus, trainees had the chance, if not the necessity, of every-day interaction with host country nationals. This in turn provided them with additional practice and might ultimately have been the main factor for behavioural changes (Harrison, 1992, p. 960). Similarly, Bhawuk did not find behavioural outcomes and explained this with the need of more extensive training than a culture assimilator could provide to enable participants to put their knowledge into action. The underlying argument is that a culture assimilator is not an intense enough training to have behavioural outcomes, and that the transition from knowledge to practice is unlikely to happen without practice *in situ*.

These considerations suggest that the questionable behavioural effectiveness of the culture assimilator might be rooted in its design. Albert (1983) points out that the culture assimilator "is generally not designed to produce attitude or behaviour changes. It is designed to increase the reader's understanding of cultural patterns that are different from his/her own" (p.210). This comment implies that behavioural intercultural skills are neither a learning goal of culture assimilators nor an adequate criterion for evaluation.

However, from a theoretical point of view, there is no reason to assume culture assimilators are completely inappropriate to train behavioural competence over and

above the understanding of other cultures. These two learning outcomes are not contradictory; on the contrary, they are often considered complementary.

Even though the culture assimilator is a cognitive training tool and is based on attribution theory, this does not necessarily limit its effectiveness to the cognitive domain or to isomorphic attributions only. Traditional attribution theories suggest that attributions are used to guide behaviour in widespread contexts (Försterling, 2001).

Hastie (1984) elaborates that causal reasoning (attributions) about unexpected events, as occurring in culture assimilators, produces elaborate memory representations of these events. This elaboration leads to an increased chance that the events for which attributions have been made are remembered more easily than other events. Because they are easily remembered, such events and the attributions connected with them are likely to guide one's behaviour in similar situations. This implies that isomorphic attributions learnt in culture assimilator trainings should indeed help trainees behave in a way concordant with norms and expectations in other cultures. Therefore, the argument that culture assimilators cannot evoke behavioural learning outcomes cannot be upheld as a general statement.

Furthermore, empirical evidence is available from training in other domains showing that cognitive trainings can successfully lead to behavioural learning outcomes: Studies about mental practice in sports psychology showed a high effectiveness of cognitive trainings on motor performance (Feltz & Landers, 1983). These results have also fuelled research in clinical psychology(Latham & Heslin, 2003). Even in social skills trainings, cognitive methods can have a large impact on behaviour (Gist & Stevens, 1998).

In summary, there is an abundance of research in various areas showing the positive effects of cognitive training on behavioural skills and performance – why should this not hold for intercultural training, too?

The answer to this question could likely be found by taking a deeper look into the learning processes of the cognitive intercultural trainings. This would help understand reasons and mechanisms behind its effectiveness on cognitive learning, and explain why or why not it could be effective for behavioural outcomes. This question will be addressed and further developed in chapter V, where a cognitive framework of declarative and procedural learning in culture assimilators is developed and empirically measured in an experimental design of two culture assimilators. Chapter VI then looks at the effectiveness

of both trainings for behaviour in intercultural situations. Finally, chapter VII deals with the long-term effects of both trainings once trainees are in the host culture, and contrasts trainees' and non-trainees' adjustment and performance at two points of time during the sojourn.

CHAPTER III:
A THEORY-BASED FRAMEWORK FOR INTERCULTURAL TRAINING

Synopsis

This chapter focuses on what good intercultural training should look like. In order to increase the effectiveness of intercultural training, the influence of individual, social, organisational, institutional and environmental-level variables must be taken into consideration in all stages of the training. Drawing on theories and findings from studies in psychology, communication, anthropology, business, and sociology, this chapter develops a theoretical framework how to conceptualise, design, deliver and evaluate training methods and initiatives.

The present framework is based on Goldstein and Ford's generic model of training, which includes the four stages of needs analysis, training design, training delivery and training evaluation (Goldstein & Ford, 2001). The chapter shortly describes the generic training model before it is modified and extended for the context of intercultural training in business and higher education.

Introduction

As the review of the effectiveness of intercultural training in chapter two has shown, the majority of intercultural training cannot provide trainees with all necessary knowledge, skills, and abilities to succeed abroad. This could be due to a lack of coherence in the training process from the first decision to do a training to its final evaluation.

In their review on all the research published in IJIR since its inaugural issue, Landis and Wasilewski (1999) diagnose a need for overarching frameworks of intercultural training to enhance their quality. A theoretical basis, whether drawn from research into organisational training, pedagogy, or original intercultural theories, could provide guidelines for a coherent training process. Such coherence benefits trainees, who feel more in control over the training process as well as organisations or institutions which holds the trainings, as they have a clear picture of what is going on and why. Even trainers can profit from it, as a coherent framework gives them a proven set of decision rules and training practices on which to orient their activities. Research on the theoretical basis of intercultural training is still emerging (Landis & Bhawuk, 2004). Drawing on influences from psychology, anthropology, sociology, pedagogy, communication and human resources, a rich source of theoretical background information is available to conceptualise, design, deliver and evaluate training methods and initiatives.

From a practical point of view, a theoretical framework can benefit all trainees, expatriates in organisations and students on university level likewise. So far, much of the research into intercultural training has dealt only with training for expatriate employees, who sojourn to other countries for work-related reasons and stay there for an extended, period of time. In organisations, the expenditure per capita on intercultural training is rising, and organisations are beginning to monitor the "return on investment" of intercultural training (GMAC et al., 2005). This practical interest is mirrored in research.

On a university level, though, hardly any monitoring of intercultural training effectiveness takes place, even if numbers of sojourners are much higher. Across the EU, more than 1.2 million students have taken part in the ERASMUS programme to sojourn to other countries during their studies (Directorate-General for Education and Culture, 2005). These students provide a talent pool of culturally skilled, highly educated

employees. Yet looking at the situation in the UK, a picture evolves that provides a negative outlook: Since the mid nineties, the number of UK students going to other European countries with the help of ERASMUS grants has fallen by almost a third (Sussex Centre for Migration Research & Dundee Centre for Applied Population Research, 2004).

Currently, more than twice as many students are coming into the UK compared to UK students going abroad. These figures imply a decrease in UK students' interest to go abroad for study or work experience at a rate that could easily affect national employment markets.

Thus, initiatives and activities to enhance students' willingness to sojourn would be highly desirable. As Laughton and Ottewil (2000) noted, the preparation of students for an intercultural business environment is key to ensure their employability. However, intercultural training at university level is far less frequent and rigorous than in organisations. Evaluations of the impact of such training programmes in Europe are scarce, but evidence of training programmes in the US show that such training programmes are little helpful for students' cultural adjustment(Goldstein & Smith, 1999).

Therefore, due to the lack of empirical evidence about effective training methods, a theoretical framework of intercultural training is even more important for university-level sojourners than for professional expatriates. With such a framework, universities can enhance the attractiveness of their year-abroad programmes and better prepare their students for the cultural challenges they are going to encounter.

This chapter presents a framework of intercultural training that can be applied to both settings: organisations and institutions of higher education. While findings on organisational training can provide a basis for propositions how the quality and effectiveness of intercultural training can be enhanced, little research has been conducted into training in academic settings. It is assumed here that the same generic framework is applicable to intercultural training in both settings. However, details and practical applications of the framework that differ between the two settings are highlighted through various examples and are critically discussed.

A framework for intercultural training

The present framework of intercultural training is oriented on the generic training model proposed by Goldstein and Ford (2001). The generic model differentiates four stages: Training needs analysis, training design, delivery, and evaluation.

In the first stage, needs and expectations of the organisation or institution and the individual trainee are explored and analysed, so that training objectives can be derived and suggestions for training design be made. In the second stage, trainings are designed that fit these needs, and methods are chosen to evaluate training outcomes. It is in the stage of training delivery that the influence of the trainer, training format, and training transfer come into play. In the final stage, trainings are evaluated on criteria previously developed in the design stage. Results of this evaluation can then be used to inform future training approaches.

In addition to these four stages, a continuous improvement orientation should accompany the training process in all stages in order to recognise and satisfy changing needs and enhance the quality of the training as a whole. Included in this improvement process is feedback from former participants about the usefulness of the training as a whole or about certain parts of it, as well the integration of training with other developmental activities in the organisation. In regular intervals, the alignment of the training goal and design with organisational targets should be confirmed. A depiction of such a generic training cycle is given in Figure 3.1.
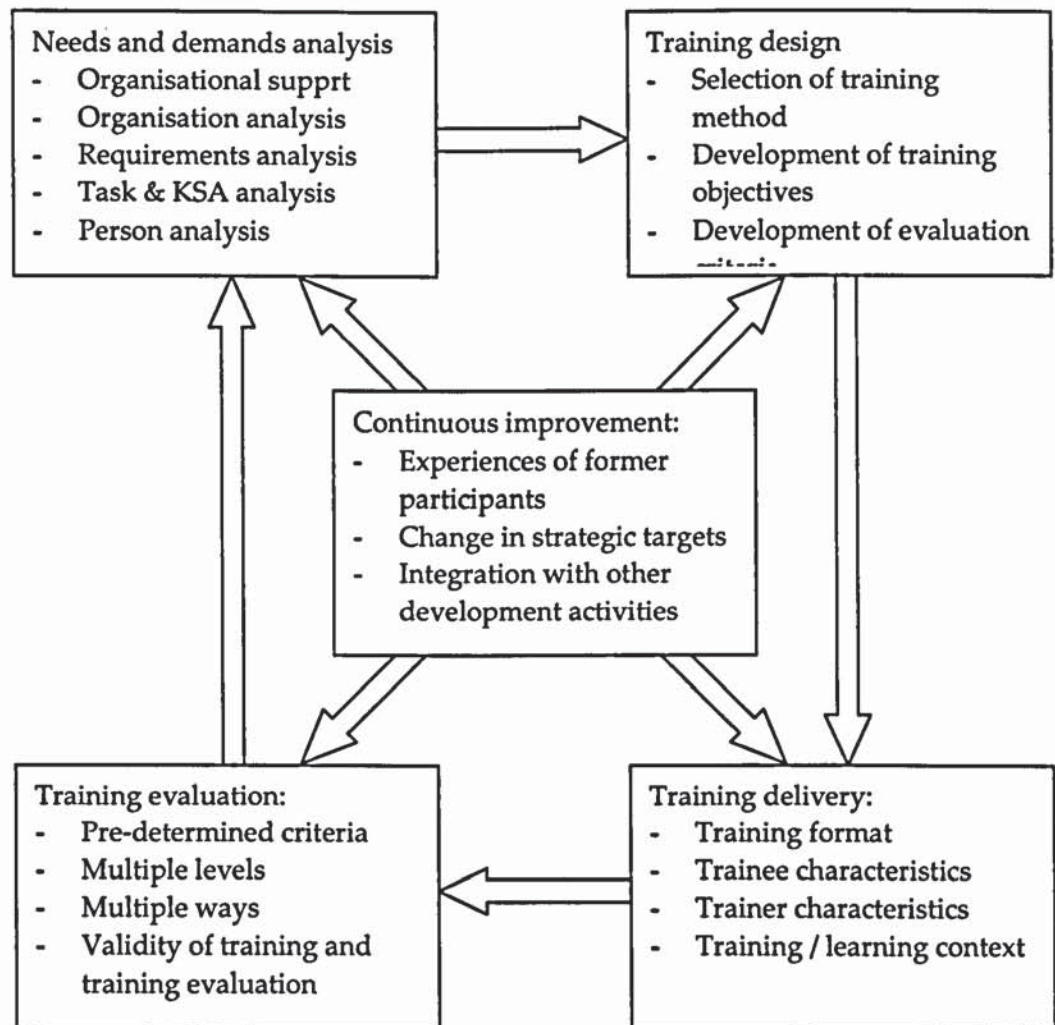
Figure 3.1: A generic model of the training process; adapted from Goldstein and Ford (2001).

The following sub-sections will apply this fourfold framework to intercultural training. For this purpose, research into training in other domains is discussed and, if applicable, included. As the predictors of intercultural training success differ from predictors of training success other domains (Lievens, Harris, van Keer, & Bisqueret, 2003) it can be assumed that the application of the above model in intercultural training will differ from its application in other domains.

Needs analysis and definition of training goals

A training needs analysis is the first step in the training process and helps identify needs and deficiencies. However, a good needs analysis also shows whether a certain need or deficiency can be resolved through training at all: Sometimes other methods (e.g., recruitment) might be more suitable than training (Blanchard & Thacker, 2004). Training needs analysis is neglected in training across domains, even though its benefits for the whole training process are well known. Recently, Arthur, Bennett, Edens and Bell (2003) found that only six percent of the 397 organisational trainings they reviewed employed some sort of needs analysis.

A needs analysis increases the appropriateness and acceptance of training because it involves and includes various stakeholders in the organisation or institution. This involvement in early stages of the training process gives stakeholders a sense of ownership, increases their cooperation, and identifies potential threats and limitations to training implementation and training transfer that could otherwise not be recognised. Intercultural training is most effective when it is designed for a specific trainee group in a specific context (Eschbach, Parker, & Stoeberl, 2001). Without a needs analysis one risks designing a training for inadequate purposes and the wrong target group.

Goldstein and Ford (2001) conceptualise needs analysis as comprising five steps: Securing organisational support, analysing the organisation, evaluating necessary requirements, determining the targeted task and necessary KSA's, and analysing the trainee person(s). Looking at intercultural training, some of these steps might be more relevant than others: These are likely to be the stages and factors that have already shown importance for the success of expatriate assignments in general.

Organisational support and organisational analysis

As Aycan (1997) points out, one precondition for successful expatriate assignments is organisational support, both from the parent company and the local unit. Organisational support in this context refers to the social support of colleagues and co-workers, as well as the help that organisational structures provide to the expatriate. In an examination of 213 expatriates and their supervisors, organisational support showed direct effects on

expatriate adjustment, which in turn had direct effect on performance (Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001). Such support should come from both sides of an expatriate's organisational environment – the home country and the host country. Without support in the home country, preparation for assignments is often not taken seriously and lacks coherence. Without support in the host country, expatriates experience greater difficulty adjusting to new jobs and environments, which increases expatriate failure rates (Toh & DeNisi, 2005).

These findings suggest that organisational support is also necessary for the preparation of sojourners. Without support from top management, necessary training resources will be insufficient. Visible top-management support recognition of training efforts is a strong motivator for trainees to participate and achieve good outcomes, for example if good training performance is seen as instrumental for their career (Santos & Stuart, 2003). Support from the HR units in home and host country is necessary in the stage of requirements analysis, because local knowledge is the best source of information about job responsibilities and role definition of the new position abroad (Ramesh, 2005).

Further, training needs analysis should engage employees and training participants themselves in host and home country. This is important to ensure that intercultural training is perceived as a strategic step in the preparation to go abroad, rather than as a special ailment for individual deficiencies. Encouraging employees to provide input into training decisions further raises their perception of the training as useful for their jobs, which leads on to higher levels of pre-training motivation (Mathieu, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 1992).

Additional research has pointed to the importance of a positive climate for diversity within the organization, work unit, or group of colleagues that the sojourner will join (van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). If employees in the host subsidy and work unit have a positive attitude towards diversity, this can prevent intergroup bias and make the expatriate feel more welcome. A shared climate for diversity is conducive to knowledge management and exchange, because it facilitates the exchange and integration of diverse information, viewpoints, and perspectives (Brodbeck, Kerschreiter, Mojzisch, & Schulz-Hardt, in press).

Organisational support as a structural resource is also important for intercultural training in higher education. However, the mechanisms of support are different to

organisational settings. This is mainly due to the fact that extracurricular training activities are a rather novel endeavour in academia.

Support from top-management in academia is relevant to raise acceptance of intercultural training with university staff and prepare the ground for training be offered to students. Channels of communication are less clear than in commercial organisations, and the support of lecturers and other staff with intense student contact is vital to pass on the message about the availability and utility of such training initiatives. Further, lecturers' knowledge about student needs when abroad can inform the training content and delivery.

Host-country support is equally important for student sojourners as it is for professional expatriates, even if they choose not to work on their sojourn. A study on the effect of climate for cultural diversity in academia (Van der Zee, Atsma, & Brodbeck, 2004) found that students' well-being was higher when they were in an environment where identification with one's personal cultural background was low and identification with one's study group was high. Further, in study groups where members supported each other, students' commitment to their tasks was higher than in groups of little mutual support. This implies that support received by host-country nationals is an important factor for sojourning students.

However, it should be noted that educational institutions have only very limited influence on support in the host country. The ties between sojourning students and their universities are less formal and close than ties between expatriates and their organisations. More specifically, sojourning students temporarily leave their home institution, while expatriates remain within their organisation. Therefore, mechanisms to ensure host-country support are difficult to establish in academia. Practical means of improving host-country support are placement visits by university staff, as well as building long-term relationships with host-country institutions where students sojourn to.

Taken together, it can be argued that support in both locations and on multiple levels, as well as a general climate for diversity, are important preconditions for successful intercultural training.

Task and requirements analysis

Once organisational support is secured and the organisational environment is analysed, a deeper exploration of the targeted task and necessary requirements is recommended. Harzing (2001b) makes the point that expatriate success depends highly on the clarity of job responsibilities and role definition of the expatriate in the new position. Similarly, the success of intercultural training depends on a clear analysis of the task in order to determine the appropriate training content, intensity, and level. In practice, however, job responsibilities and tasks are often vague and undefined. In this chapter, it is argued that this vagueness is connected with a lack of strategic clarity: What are the goals of the expatriation or sojourn for all parties? Explicit and implicit goals are the biggest contributor to defining tasks and responsibilities. Once these are clarified, tasks and requirements are relatively easy to pin down, so that specific training objectives can be derived.

Training goals in organisations

From the perspective of human resource (HR) development, one can differentiate between, organisational training goals and individual training goals. These goals are usually not identical, yet they have a certain degree of overlap, as shown in figure 3.2 below.

Organisational goals:
- Operational goals
- Strategic goals
- Knowledge management goals
- Controlling goals
- Development goals

Individual goals:
- performance goals
- career goals
- personal development goals
- goals of relevant others
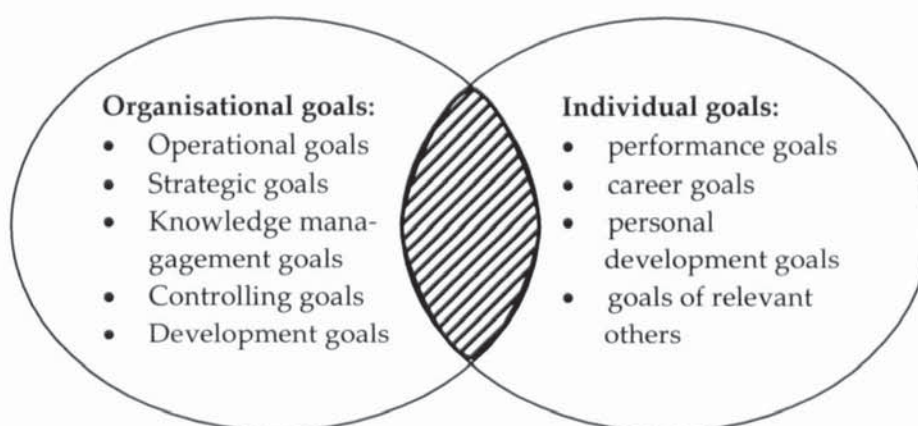
Figure 3.2: Organisational and individual training goals.

To integrate intercultural training into an overarching HR development strategy, these training goals should derive from wider HR strategy of the organisation. For example, strategic aspects determine the purpose of an expatriate assignment as well as its duration and remuneration principles. The following paragraphs examine the nature and relevance of potential training goals on organisational and individual level in more detail.

Organisational training goals. Organisational-level goals can be differentiated into operational and strategic goals. Operational goals enhance job performance, increase the chance of a completed assignment, and secure return on investment of the expatriation process. Strategic goals are based on the international business strategy of the company (whether it is ethnocentric, polycentric or geocentric, for example).

Expatriation and, in turn, intercultural training, need integration with the organization's international HR strategy that provides decision criteria for the use of expatriates or local staff for a specific position. If an expatriate solution is chosen, a rational decision should be made about using a home country nationals or third country national (Gong, 2003b).

In this context, the strategic purpose of the expatriate assignment should be considered. Strategic purposes of the assignment of professional expatriates can be classified with Harzing's (2001a) terminology. Expatriates might be sent to take formal and direct control of a subsidy, like bears. Or they might be sent to integrate and streamline multiple subsidies like bumble-bees who fly from plant to plant, pollinating each of them. Or, if the goal is the establishing and strengthening of informal communication networks, expatriates would act like spiders and weave communication threats between subsidy and headquarters.

Further, HR strategy also impacts on the selection of trainees for intercultural training: If the purpose of a posting is the transfer of explicit knowledge, host-country nationals should be used. In this case, the necessity for intercultural training is reversed - rather, a host country national should be chosen for inpatriation (Bonache & Brewster, 2001). In some cases, however, expatriates are used for the simple fact that their knowledge is immediately available and just has to be geographically relocated, which is

much quicker and easier compared to the time and effort it might take to develop that knowledge locally (Harvey & Miceli, 1999).

For the transfer of tacit knowledge, expatriates are the preferred option. In some cases, expatriation assignments might also be used for the development of new leadership talent and a new generation of subject-matter experts (Kohonen, 2005; Neary & O'Grady, 2000).

These examples illustrate that strategic goals of expatriation determine the character of a specific assignment, and in turn determine the necessary knowledge, skills and abilities of the person who is trained for this assignment.

Individual training goals. Individual-level training goals are the most immediately relevant goals for the design and evaluation of intercultural trainings. If a training is perceived as not conducive for trainees' individual goals, little or no attempts of learning or training transfer are made (Baumgartel, Reynolds, & Pathan, 1984).

Very broadly, intercultural training aims to enhance trainees' knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA's). Knowledge goals might comprise the understanding of other languages, factual information about the target culture and other cultures in general, as well as reflective knowledge about one's own culture. Skills relevant for intercultural interaction are communication skills, cultural sensitivity, interpersonal skills, and social problem-solving skills (Graf, 2004). Intercultural abilities include the commandment of foreign languages, the ability to adjust and function abroad, and others. Intercultural abilities are based on knowledge and skills, as well as on attitudinal training outcomes. These could be an ethnorelative worldview, positive attitude towards of diversity and different cultures, and general motivation and interest to immerse into another cultures (Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004).

However, the above are mere examples from the abundance of possible KSA's that might serve as individual training goals. On a systematic level, they can be differentiated according to their cultural and contextual generality or specificity. Table 3.1 below proposes an overview of KSA's that are targets of intercultural training.

Table 3.1: *Conceptualisation of intercultural KSA's in organisations*

Intercultural KSA's	Culture General	Culture Specific
General	• Knowledge about how cultures function • Self awareness + reflexivity • Open-mindedness • Cultural sensitivity • Knowledge about variations in value orientations • Behavioural Flexibility	• Knowledge about value differences between target and home culture • Knowledge about different norms and behaviours • Reflective action to comply with cultural values and norms • Language skills
Work-specific	• Dealing with diversity in teams • Global leadership skills • Business communication skills • multiple communication styles • International labour law	• Culture-specific business norms and rituals (explicit and implicit) • Culture-specific leadership skills • Knowledge of national labour law • Relevant legal issues & standards • Technical language skills

The selection of KSA's for intercultural trainings depends on individual and organisational goals. For example, if expatriation is used as a tool for global leadership development, culture-general learning goals seem more suitable than culture specific ones (Cassiday, 2005). If an assignment aims to establish networks with local community, learning goals should emphasise KSA's that help the expatriate communicate and integrate with the host society, so that trustful and sustainable relationships can develop.

It can be assumed that most organisation-based intercultural training will target some KSA's in all four fields in order to enable expatriates to be effective both at work and in other environments and transfer their knowledge and skills from one culture to the other. However, the emphasis on specific KSA's will vary from case to case.

The above examination of training goals is highly specific to the organisational context. In educational institutions, most sojourns abroad are intrinsically motivated: students *want* to go abroad to broaden their experience and develop intercultural skills. In some cases, however, their study degree might mandate a stay abroad for either study or work placement. These degrees already offer some cultural education prior to the year abroad. Thus, intercultural training in universities must be attractive and useful to students that are intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to go abroad and have a diverse range of previous cultural experience.

One can assume that institutions of higher education have a high interest in ensuring that students generally do well during their time abroad and acquire relevant skills for study and their career. Study or work placements in other cultures increase students' language skills and help them become more self-reliant, self-aware, and responsible in their professional and personal life. They foster students' competency to work with diverse people in a multicultural environment, a precondition for employability today (NCIHE, 1997). Further, sojourning students often fulfil an ambassador role for their university abroad. Lacking other information, host country nationals base their judgement about the university on the performance and personality of the students. Therefore universities have an interest to send those students abroad who are likely to display a good image of the university.

Due to the relevance of these outcomes, universities have a high interest to encourage a stay abroad for their students, some also offering them financial support. In this sense, intercultural training can be a competitive advantage over other institutions. A well-developed system of study/work abroad placements and intensive preparation is attractive to new students. A recent study showed that 75% of US students find it important that the university of their choice offers study abroad programmes (Hayward, 2000). All these factors can explain universities' motivation to provide intercultural training.

Students are generally less clear about their needs and goals than professional expatriates. This might be because they have a high uncertainty what to expect of their study/work placement abroad in general. Training should help them develop a basis of

cultural understanding and competence on which to draw when abroad. Thus, learning outcomes should tap the three domains of cognitive, behavioural, and affective changes. An exploration of students' training needs could be done by asking students who have already completed their sojourn what kind of knowledge, skills and attitudes they would have found useful to have before starting their journey. Such an approach could make use of the critical incident method (Flanagan, 1954) to arrive at KSA's that are important for students' success or failure in specific situations.

Further, literature in the domains of diversity education and training give some pointers on KSA's that are generally considered useful for intercultural training for students. For example, intercultural training for students should enable them to gain cultural self-awareness and sensitivity (Collins & Pieterse, 2007) and to revise their stereotypes and assumptions about other cultures and develop an open mindset (Rudman, Ashmore, & Gary, 2001). It is also necessary for students to gain the ability to produce culturally appropriate reactions (Cushner, 1989) and lessen their anxiety about the whole experience of study/work abroad (Gudykunst, 1998). Further, some students might like intercultural training that helps increase their grade point average, or specific grades in language- or culture-related modules of their study degree.

Similarly to learning outcomes of academic courses, the formulation of training outcomes can be aligned with levels of learning and understanding (Bloom, 1956). This can be useful for both expatriate and student trainees. Formulated in a language that is meaningful to trainees, learning outcomes provide a guideline for trainees' self-directed learning during and after the training. They can be used by trainees themselves to assess if the training and their learning efforts have led to the desired outcomes.

Person analysis

The last stage of needs analysis looks at trainees themselves. Ample evidence is available to show that individual characteristics, e.g. personality, are influential factors for training success in many settings. But also, personality has been shown to be relevant for the success and adjustment of sojourners in general. The following paragraphs review the research available in these areas to identify those personality characteristics most likely relevant for intercultural training.

Ample evidence is available for the relationship between personality variables and training success in general, including research on the big five characteristics (extraversion, openness to experience, emotional stability, agreeableness, and conscientiousness). Conscientiousness has been shown as positively relating to learning motivation (Colquitt & Simmering, 1998), but, as meta-analytic findings show, this relationship did not lead to positive influences on training outcomes like declarative knowledge and skill acquisition (Colquitt, LePine, & Noe, 2000b). Similarly, in a military training setting, conscientiousness and emotional stability were not significantly related to training success, whether measured in cognitive or behavioural terms or as leadership performance (Atwater, 1992). In a more detailed study assessing learning at multiple stages in the training process, conscientiousness was not related to learning at all (Herold, Davis, Fedor, & Parsons, 2002). In the same study, though, emotional stability and openness to experience were moderate predictors of learning and transfer. Taken together, this evidence is inconclusive about the role of personality for training success.

A clearer picture evolved in studies linking personality with distal outcomes of intercultural training, i.e., adjustment and performance.

Various studies have highlighted the beneficial influence of different personality facets on these outcomes. Caligiuri (2000a) showed that extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, and conscientiousness were positively related to cultural adjustment. Emotional stability was also a positive influence for performance (Caligiuri, 2000a; Stierle et al., 2002). Similarly, research looking at specific personality traits that are important in multicultural settings has shown that social initiative, flexibility, emotional stability, and open-mindedness could positively predict intercultural adjustment (Van der Zee, Zaal, & Piekstra, 2003; Van Oudenhoven & Van der Zee, 2002).

However, only one study examined the influence of personality characteristics specifically for intercultural training success. Monitoring 166 European managers on an intercultural training for Asia, Lievens and colleagues (2003) found that immediate intercultural training performance, measured in cognitive and behavioural terms, was predicted by high openness and low agreeableness. Clearly, this is a starting point for the exploration of personality's influence on intercultural training success, but more research is necessary to enrich evidence in this area by positive (or negative) findings.

Another personality variable affecting cultural adjustment is self efficacy (Bandura, 2002). The role of self-efficacy for intercultural adjustment is closely intertwined with the training process itself. Self efficacy has, on the one hand, been a positive direct predictor for cultural adjustment (Harrison et al., 1996). On the other hand, self-efficacy has been widely examined in training of domestic social skills, but has been conceptualised differently. Across various studies, self-efficacy was shown both as a predictor and outcome of learning and training transfer(Gist, 1989; Holladay & Quinones, 2003; Morin & Latham, 2000; Quinones, 1995): Some studies showed that high self-efficacy had a positive impact on learning outcome and transfer; others showed that learning outcome and good transfer had a positive impact on self-efficacy. Some clarity has been added into these relationships by meta-analytic findings (Colquitt et al., 2000b). These show that self-efficacy, measured before the training, has positive influences on motivation to learn, training transfer, and training outcomes such as declarative knowledge and skills acquisition. It also has positive influences on self-efficacy measured after the training.

A last personality variable likely to influence training outcomes is goal orientation. Goal orientation is conceptualised as a mental framework for interpreting and responding to achievement situations (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999). Dweck and Leggett (1988) differentiate between two broad classes of goal orientations: A learning goal orientation, targeted to the development of competence and competencies by acquiring new skills and mastering new situations, and a performance goal orientation, focusing on the demonstration and validation of competence and competencies. More recently, VandeWalle (1997) proposed a further differentiation between a performance-prove orientation, which concerns the seeking out of situations in which favourable judgement is likely, and a performance-avoidance situation, in which the prevailing motivation is the avoidance of situations that might disconfirm competence and elicit unfavourable judgements.

Goal orientation is a well-examined predictor of training success and academic performance (Dweck, 1996; Schober & Ziegler, 2002; Wild, 1996). Specifically, learning goal orientation has shown positive effects on learning and the acquisition of problem solving skills. Further, learning goal orientation and performance approval orientation have also shown feasible for learning and performance in a work context (Van de Walle,

1997), suggesting that they have an influence on learning across domains. Thus, goal orientation is likely to be influential for intercultural training, too.

In summary, existing evidence strongly suggests that various personality facets are linked to intercultural training success. There might be a certain type of person who could profit most from intercultural training. Looking at results from above, people characterised by high emotional stability, openness to new experiences, self-efficacy and learning- or performance-prove goal orientation might be able to profit more from intercultural training than people who score low in these characteristics.

Training design

Training design combines the selection of specific training methods. The challenge in training design is to find methods that are appropriate for all the goals determined in the needs assessment stage. In the process of training design, characteristics of the trainin as well as trainees should be considered to maximise the potential learning outcome (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). In the following, both these aspects are discussed in detail.

Training characteristics

Not all training methods are equally feasible for all training goals. A review of major training methods, their strengths, weaknesses, and applicability is available elsewhere and is not repeated here. (Fowler & Blohm, 2004). Instead, general characteristics of training methods and suggestions for their improvement are discussed.

As the review of intercultural training methods above has shown, some training methods yield better cognitive results, while others are more apt to elicit behavioural or affective learning outcomes. It has been postulated that the degree to which a method involves and stimulates trainees is paralleled by the depth of learning outcomes likely achieved (Baumgarten, 1995). For surface-level learning outcomes, such as the acquisition of cultural knowledge, change of gestures and behaviour, trainings with low to medium level stimulation are feasible. For deep-level learning outcomes, e.g. changes of stereotypes of other cultures and one's own culture, questioning of values, or reaching an ethno-relativistic worldview, trainings with a high degree of involvement are necessary.

Frequently, the choice about training methods is made under pareto-optimal conditions: While learning goals of individuals, the organisation or institution would recommend one method, practical restraints on time, expenditure, or experience of the trainer necessitate another. The comparison of experiential and cognitive training methods might serve as example: Experiential training facilitates deep-level learning and contributes towards intercultural skill development. However, it carries high development and training costs, necessitates a skilled trainer, and is applicable only for a limited number of participants. Cognitive trainings, on the other hand, are often more cost-efficient and can be administered without much preparation and to a varying number of trainees. Further, they are easily adaptable to the use of new media (e.g., computer-based and web-based trainings).

Due to these advantages, cognitive training methods are often chosen in academic settings. As Harrison and Hopkins (1967, p. 433) point out, "when colleges or universities are approached to design or conduct training for work overseas, the resources made available to work on the problem are often those of the traditional part of the organisation. Training design is usually based upon the university model". However, sticking to traditional methods might actually be an advantage for intercultural training at university level: Students do not have to adjust to new modes of learning, thus might find such trainings easier to understand.

Trainee characteristics

Individual trainee characteristics need to be taken into account before training is delivered. As outlined above, personality characteristics are one important component important for successfully participating in intercultural training. Further, training research in other domains stresses the influence of learning motivation and highlights the influence of control orientation on learning motivation (Colquitt et al., 2000). Yet control orientations vary across cultures, implying that their role for learning motivation might be complex, especially in a cross-cultural context (Yamaguchi, 2001).

Clear pointers about characteristics important for intercultural training can be derived from literature on expatriation. A review of this literature suggests that prior

intercultural experience and family situation should influence the selection of training method and training content.

Prior intercultural experience has shown to be a positive factor for expatriate adjustment on a new assignment(Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun, & Lepak, 2005). Trainees with prior experience of working abroad show better cultural adjustment from the onset of their assignment onwards. They also show higher work adjustment.

Cultural experience might also be helpful for learning in intercultural training: Those with prior expatriate assignments or other types of international experience are likely to have already a mental framework for making sense of cultural differences. Their learning process can be faster because they do not necessarily need to develop a new framework but could integrate new training contents into their existing meaning system.

Prior experience could also be used as an additional source of input in training. Exchanging experiences with other trainees enhances reflexivity about one's own experience and aids social learning on part of the "newbies": Trainees without much prior experience can learn from their more experienced peers. Including personal experiences of trainees in the training can give them a more holistic understanding of cultural differences, so that trainees can easily relate theory-based training content with practical experience and specific situations.

A second important individual characteristic is trainees' family situation. Studies with professional expatriates found that most spouses consider company support for relocation insufficient (Forster, 1997).This decreases the spouses' chances for successful cultural adjustment and endangers the success of the expatriate assignment: Failed adjustment of an expatriate's partner or family is a frequent reason for the failure of an assignment and decision to return home prematurely (Prudential Relocation & The Interchange Institute, 2004; Shaffer & Harrison, 2001; Tucker, Bonial, & Lahti, 2004).

Examining factors for family adjustment, Ali (2003) concluded that the same personality characteristic as for expatriates themselves, (specifically, open-mindedness) can help adaptation to the new cultural environment. Family adjustment is also enhanced by a supportive work environment of expatriates themselves: Good management of home-work interference as well as little or no spill-over effects of work stressors into private life helped families' adjustment as well. These studies show that it is necessary, at least in organisational settings, to integrate an expatriate's family in intercultural training.

A third individual characteristic important for intercultural training is personal learning style. People have individual preferences as to how they learn best. While some people find a reflective or analytic approach more useful, others prefer an active or integrative learning style (Honey & Mumford, 1982; Kolb, 1976). It has already been proposed that personal learning styles make a difference in the ways that expatriates can learn from their social environment once they are assigned (Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Similarly, learning styles will have an impact on trainees' perception of which training method is most useful. Tailoring training methods to trainees' preferred learning style improves the personal learning outcome. However, the variation of learning styles between individuals complicates this approach.

Additionally, learning styles differ not only among individuals but also across cultures. A small study of learning styles of students showed that the variation of learning styles across cultures is much larger than within one - British - culture (De Vita, 2001). A larger study examining students in France, Germany, and Quebec also found cultural variations in preferred learning styles (Barmeyer, 2004).

Together these studies about learning stules suggest that the selected training method should match trainees' learning styles. Moreover, cultural background of trainees needs to be taken into account in these matching process, as this background might determine which of a variety of methods might be most suitable for trainees to attain a specific learning outcome.

Training delivery

The delivery stage of intercultural training is the phase when the training activity is actually conducted. At this stage, all aspects of needs analysis and design have to be completed. Once appropriate training methods have been identified and a complete training has designed, an appropriate form of delivery needs to be found. Similarly to training content, delivery options are also determined based on organisational and individual needs.

The most prominent need of organisations for training design is cost-efficiency. Training expenditure is often critical, regarded as a cost rather than an investment. Thus, some companies will calculate their return on training investment by linking training

expenses and training outcomes (GMAC, NFTC, & SHRM, 2003). Strategies to achieve cost-efficiency will be contingent on the size of the organisation and the number of expatriates an organisation sends to one or more countries.

In-house versus external delivery

One of the major decisions in organisational training delivery is whether they should be delivered in-house, by corporate facilitators, or externally and by professional trainers outside the company. For multinational organisations, the sheer multitude of expatriate assignments often recommends in-house training and the use of local resources to deliver the program. In addition to relatively low facilitation costs, in-house training has the advantage that issues of corporate culture, assignment policies and benefits, career expectations and other company-specific information can easily be included as explicit training contents or as principles guiding the training process. However, in smaller organisations or organisations with few international connections and a limited expatriate force, external facilitation might be more suitable.

The benefits of external training are that participants have the chance to build a network with peers from other companies. In external training, the heterogeneous background of trainees implies that their information and skill base, as a group, exceeds the information and skill base of in-house training groups. If distributed knowledge and skills of the trainee group are used well, external training might even be more effective than in-house training. Furthermore, establishing a network with other expatriates can help participants' adjustment abroad (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001).

In conclusion, it is hard to state a general rule as to whether in-house or external training is the better option. Decisions for one or the other depend on the potential quality of each option and the contingencies of the circumstances in which it will be used.

Training delivery through technology

Another cost-efficient delivery method particularly interesting for smaller companies is technology-based training. This comprises delivery modes such as audio- and video-

tapes, CD-Rom training, web-based training, virtual lecture rooms, interactive chat rooms, and related techniques.

The complementary use of technology-based intercultural training with other delivery methods has increased in the last few years (GMAC et al., 2003). Technology-based training has the advantage of high flexibility in delivery and low administration costs. Usually, trainees work on the training at a time and location of their own choice. Tasks can be timed to fit the trainees' work schedule and the training can be completed at a location of the trainees' choice. No formal training set up, costly rooms, or external trainers are required, making technology-based training very interesting for companies with a medium to large expatriate force, as the costs involved decrease as more people participate.

The material in technology-based training is mostly of high or very high quality. Online-based training can use multimedia and interactive features to provide the trainee with a rich and stimulating learning environment (Cameron & Limberger, 2004; Stewart, 2002; Van Oudenhoven, 2004).

However, when deciding on a training format individual preferences should not be underestimated. An interest in the topic and a willingness to learn are important predictors of the quality of learning outcomes (Schiefele, 2001). The more the training concurs with trainees' wishes and expectations, the more likely that they will become genuinely interested and fully engaged with it. For professional expatriates, full reliance on technology-based training could have a negative impact on trainees' learning motivation, thus limiting their learning outcomes. These trainees emphasise direct contact with a trainer or coach, as well as interactive training methods, as their preferred ways of learning (D'Amato & Deal, 2006).

Training delivery in higher education

Cushner and Karim (2004) differentiate four types of intercultural training that might be offered in higher education: a) trainings that are rather academic and delivered by academic faculty; b) trainings with a religious or fraternal nature, sponsored by charities and non-profit organisations with a (mostly ideological) mission related to study/work abroad; c) private and officially non-profit trainings, mostly offered by foundations,

institutes, or charitable organisations without ideological interests, and d) trainings offered by commercial companies that market travel, study abroad, and exchange programmes.

For the purpose of study/work placements abroad, the academic training model might be the most appropriate. As outlined in the section about training goals above, universities are likely to pursue specific goals by offering programmes with study/work abroad placements. In trainings designed and delivered by external bodies unrelated to the university, their interests will likely not be taken into account.

The biggest challenge for university-level intercultural training is scarce resources: Finding staff with the experience and motivation to design and deliver intercultural trainings to a broad student force is not easy. Internal financial resources are scarce and often don't allow for payment of trainers. However, recent initiatives from government bodies (e.g., the European LEONARDO grants) could provide a start-up funding for training development.

Another important consideration for training delivery in higher education is availability of trainees. Students going abroad on study/work placement schemes often come from a diverse range of degree programmes, therefore their timetables and schedules are very different. Training programmes must show a maximum degree of flexibility and accessibility in order to reach all students interested.

Thus, technology-based training methods might be more suitable for student trainees than for professional expatriates. Methods that address individual learners rather than groups, allow trainees to complete the training at a location and point of time of their own convenience, and are targeted specifically to needs and problems of students are the most promising route for intercultural training at university.

Training transfer

Once the most appropriate mode of training delivery is chosen, further thoughts should be spent on training transfer. Training transfer addresses the gap between the training situation and real life "out there". Contents of in intercultural trainings should be transferable to situations outside the training itself. In the process of training delivery,

transfer-enhancing strategies and mechanisms can be used to facilitate the practical application of newly learnt knowledge and skills.

Although research on transfer in intercultural training is scarce, researchers on domestic interpersonal training have already addressed the transfer problem (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Cheng & Ho, 2001). The majority of transfer research has been undertaken on technical skills trainings, investigating the use of "identical elements" between training and real life situations (Thorndike & Woodworth, 1901). The identical-elements approach is based on the assumption that learning is context-based. High similarity between the context in which learning originally occurred, i.e., the training, and the situation in which it is ultimately applied can facilitate transfer.

While this principle has proven powerful for training of domain-specific skills, intercultural training cannot rely on identical elements to facilitate transfer. Opposed to domain-specific learning, intercultural learning includes has a high degree of ambiguity. Intercultural situation by nature are unclear and stressful. Intercultural encounters are emotionally charged; features of the situation that could allow the selection of an appropriate reaction are subtle and vague. In situations like this, trainees cannot rely on a one-to-one correspondence between situational demands and the implementation of behavioural guidelines. They are confused about what to make of a specific situation and about which situational cues to use for an appropriate reaction.

This problem has already been mentioned in relation to social skills trainings in domestic environments (Gist & Stevens, 1998). However, ambiguity in social situations increases in intercultural environments: Situations are not only unclear, but also differ contextually from the same situations at home. Dealing with a difficult situation at home is already hard – selecting an appropriate response in a foreign culture is incommensurably more difficult. The ambiguity inherent to an intercultural encounter is so high that reliance on identical elements alone cannot help a trainee to decide how to behave. In order to choose the right response, trainee needs to have other, more sophisticated strategies at hand.

Strategies for facilitating transfer in intercultural training can be derived from those proven useful in transfer of social skills, such as stimulus variability, building analogies across social situations, specific training conditions, goal setting, and mental practice. These transfer-enhancing strategies are shortly discussed here.

Stimulus variability and analogy building. Stimulus variability assumes that variable situations require variable responses. Exposing trainees to a range of diverse situations within the training can help them develop cognitive networks and associations more complex than simple if-then relations, thus enabling them to respond more flexibly (Machin & Fogarty, 2003). Further, recommendations can be made regarding how situations should differ and how instruction can maximise learning from these differences. Thomson, Gentner and Loewenstein (2000) show that instruction to build analogies between cases, rather than just exposing trainees to a range of cases, increases trainees' learning in social skills training. Specifically, analogy-building using underlying structural characteristics, rules, and principles is superior to comparison of situations on a superficial level. Enabling trainees to look for the same structural characteristics in training situations and in real life situations showed to be a useful strategy for the transfer of intercultural knowledge into real life situations (Gentner, Loewenstein, & Thompson, 2003).

From this point of view, intercultural training should comprise a range of different situations to maximise training transfer. Specifically, these situations should be superficially different, but rely on structural similarity. Theory-based culture assimilators are one example of such trainings: Critical incidents differ in their superficial themes and might address various aspects of life. However, the underlying value dimensions of cultural differences (e.g., individualism-collectivism) remain the same across incidents. Additional information about these cultural dimensions, for example in the feedback about the correct or incorrect answers for each incident, provides trainees with a cognitive framework to identify structural similarities, thereby increasing their training transfer.

Training conditions. Gist and Stevens (1998) examined which training conditions and designs might be most helpful for transfer of interpersonal skills. Studying negotiation training, they found that participants who experienced stressful practice conditions followed by mastery-oriented supplemental training showed greater skill transfer than participants experiencing no stress in the practice condition and who received performance-oriented supplemental training. Further, they could show that these differences in skills transfer were due to higher cognitive learning and more time spent on the task by those participants with a stressful practice and mastery-oriented follow up training.

Goal setting. In various training settings, ample evidence shows that setting specific, challenging, yet attainable goals leads to higher training performance (Locke & Latham, 1990). Goal-setting in intercultural training is easily achieved by instructing trainees to set themselves goals for performance, learning rehearsal, and reflection.

Mental practice. Mental practice, also called imagery, is one strategy to achieve the goals trainees' have set themselves as described above. Mental practice means the cognitive rehearsal of a task in absence of overt physical movement (Bergen, Soper, Rosenthal, & Wilkinson, 1997). The benefits of mental practice for training transfer and improved performance have been shown in various settings in clinical, sports, and counselling psychology. Mental practice is effective both for motor and cognitive tasks (Driskell, Copper, & Moran, 1994). It can also increase transfer in communication trainings (Morin & Latham, 2000). Mental practice should be as detailed as possible and personally relevant to trainees (Gioia & Manz, 1985). To achieve this, trainees could be asked to rehearse the situation or skill with themselves as the main character, for example visualising themselves act out a task or behave in a specific way.

In summary, transfer of intercultural trainings is currently underutilised. However, strategies from other training domains give many pointers for improvement. The inclusion of transfer strategies is possible in all training settings, both in companies and universities. Enhancing training transfer might also help address the problem of effectiveness of intercultural trainings in general.

Training evaluation

The final stage of intercultural training is its evaluation. Was the training useful? Was it effective? What has been learnt? Where can it still be improved? All the questions regarding changes evoked by a training activity can be answered only by evaluating training after its delivery. In this section, traditional evaluation criteria of intercultural training are critically reviewed and judged as insufficient. On this basis, an evaluation framework is presented that includes multiple levels of evaluation to capture training effects in a comprehensive way.

Traditionally, the effectiveness of intercultural training is evaluated in terms of overseas success of the trainees. Overseas success is expressed in three ways: Sojourners complete the time they had set out to spend abroad, adjust well to living conditions in the new culture, and show good performance on the assigned tasks (Aycan & Kanungo, 1997).

Evaluating intercultural training on the first criterion (completion of assignment) is difficult. While premature termination of an assignment or early return home is easy to measure, many factors that could be held responsible. The quality of training is unlikely to be the main reason responsible for a sojourner's decision to return home early. Studies have shown that other influences, e.g., lack of organisational support (Kraimer et al., 2001), unclear roles and responsibilities (Harzing, 2001a), and unmet expectations (Caligiuri, Phillips, Lazarova, Tarique, & Burgi, 2001) are more likely to lead to intentions to quit. Further, this criterion is hardly appropriate in a university context: Premature return of students is highly unlikely. Forming the intention to quit and putting them into action takes time. For most students, the duration of their stay abroad is less than a year, which might be too short for them to arrive at intentions to leave early. Further, university systems are not very flexibly to accommodate students who return early; students often have to wait until the next academic year to get back in their academic environment. Therefore students might decide to put up with discomfort or distress rather than terminating their stay abroad.

The other two evaluation criteria, adjustment and performance, are harder to measure than early return. Further, they show complex relationships with a multitude of predicting factors, tainting direct influences of intercultural training. Some factors complicating the evaluation of intercultural training on these two variables are discussed below.

Adjustment is generally defined as the degree of psychological comfort a sojourner has with various aspects of a host culture (Gong, 2003a; Harrison et al., 1996; Van Vianen, De Pater, Kristof-Brown, & Johnson, 2004) and might be the most common evaluation criterion for intercultural training (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Harrison et al., 1996; Morris & Robie, 2001; Shaffer & Harrison, 2001).

Despite its popularity, using cultural adjustment as an evaluation criterion has been heavily criticised: First, adjustment is, if at all, a distal outcome of intercultural training. Most research conceptualises it as developing over time (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Savicki, Downing-Burnette, Heller, Binder, & Suntinger, 2004), therefore it cannot be measured before the expatriate has been in the host country for a significant amount of time.

Second, adjustment is a developmental process and the form of this development is still debated. While some researchers assume a non-linear process of adjustment, often connected to the U-curve hypothesis (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Sanchez, Spector, & Cooper, 2000) or even a W-shaped development (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963), others conceptualise it as more or less steadily increasing over time (Gong, 2003a; Morris & Robie, 2001; Selmer, 2005; Tucker et al., 2004; Van Oudenhoven, Mol, & Van der Zee, 2003; Waxin & Panaccio, 2005).

Third, as discussed in chapter II, adjustment is influenced by many other factors than intercultural training alone (Breiden, 2004).

Last, the concept of adjustment has been subject to various definitions and redefinitions, critiques of construct validity and of its importance for the expatriate debate in general (Harzing & Christensen, 2004; Hechanova, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2003; Mol, Born, & van der Molen, 2005; Van Vianen et al., 2004).

These critiques suggest that cultural adjustment, if considered at all, should not be the only criterion to evaluate intercultural training effectiveness. Further, caution should be taken to align the measurement of adjustment with predefined learning outcomes. Otherwise training effects are underestimated due to unspecified measurement of adjustment.

Expatriate performance is, from a monetary point of view, often the most important evaluation criterion. Like common job performance, expatriate performance can be measured on external standards or expectations of expatriates' position. Caligiuri and Day (2000) propose that expatriate performance should be understood as a multidimensional construct and needs to be judged in context (e.g., purpose of performance evaluation, relationship of rater and ratee, and job level). Shaffer and colleagues (Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black, & Ferzandi, 2006) distinguish between technical performance (degree of fulfilment of core job contents to create company assets)

and context performance (aspects of helping and cooperating which are essential to individual and organisational success). Intercultural performance can serve as additional dimension. It includes language proficiency and behaviours such as forwarding information between different countries, fulfilling a mediating function and establishing relationships with host colleagues and official bodies.

In a university context, performance is much harder to measure than in organisations. Study grades from foreign institutions are hard to compare; they might even be a valid criterion to measure training effectiveness because they depend on so many other factors. For students on work placements performance might be a more reliable measure; however, self-ratings and supervisor-ratings of performance are prone to perception biases and not necessarily accurate, similarly to organisational performance ratings (Heslin, Latham, & VandeWalle, 2005).

Thus, while performance is certainly an important factor for sojourner success, it should not be used as the only, or central, criterion to evaluate intercultural training.

An evaluation framework

Goldstein and Ford (2001) point out that the evaluation of training should be directly related to training goals and outcomes identified in the needs assessment stage. The review above indicates that adjustment and performance, although highly relevant for sojourner success, might not be the most feasible measurements of intercultural training outcomes. Both constructs are relatively broad and relate to a whole range of other variables. It is hard to link sojourner adjustment or performance to specific training contents without narrowing them down to more specific, objectively measurable constructs. Furthermore, both adjustment and performance can only be considered distal outcomes of training; one needs to consider also factors such as organisational support (Welch, 2003) and contextual influences on organisational performance (Kealey & Protheroe, 1996).

Therefore it is suggested that training evaluation should be exacted along the training targets determined in the needs assessment stage (Easterby-Smith, 1986; Kirkpatrick, 1996; Warr, Bird, & Rackham, 1976). In addition to adjustment and

performance, intercultural training evaluation should use more proximal outcomes for evaluation.

Models for evaluation of other job-related training can easily be applied to intercultural training. However, specific aspects of the goals of intercultural training should be taken into account when designing the evaluation process and contents. In the following, Kirkpatrick's model of four evaluation criteria: reaction, learning, behaviour and results, will be discussed and applied to intercultural training.

Reaction. Reaction refers to trainees' subjective perception and evaluation of the relevance and quality of the training. It is usually captured immediately after the training with satisfaction questionnaires (reactionnaires).

In practice, reaction is by far the most frequent type of evaluation assessment (Sels, 2002; van Buren & Erskine, 2002). In research, however, most studies seem to reject evaluation on the reaction level and focus on cognitive and behavioural evaluation criteria, possibly because reactions could predict other learning outcomes only to a very limited extent (Colquitt et al., 2000b). Yet Brown (2005) recently examined the structure and validity of reactions and found support for their validity: Training participants were very well able to differentiate domain-specific reactions from each other, yet a general satisfaction factor emerged, too. Further, Brown showed that reactions predicted engagement in the training, intention to continue learning, as well as declarative knowledge learnt in the training.

These results are evidence for the importance of reactions as an evaluation outcome. Further, evaluating reactions, both general and domain-specific, can yield important insights for the future improvement of trainings. Satisfaction ratings about training relevance, quality of material and exercises, the trainer, or location and settings are important information that can be used in consecutive revisions of needs assessment, training design and development.

Thus, the measurement of reactions to intercultural training both in organisations and universities can be a useful form of evaluation.

Learning. The second level, evaluation of learning, measures the increase of declarative, procedural, and meta-cognitive knowledge attained during the training

(Blanchard & Thacker, 2004). For valid measurements of learning, pre- and post training measures need to be obtained (Kealey & Protheroe, 1996; Warr, Allan, & Birdi, 1999). Without a valid pre-training measure of knowledge, skills and abilities it is almost impossible to evaluate the improvements training might have effected.

An issue with learning evaluation is the impossibility to separate learning from assessment. In general, the mere exposure to situations in which knowledge, skills and abilities could be measured constitutes a potential learning experience in itself. This has been recently demonstrated by Roediger and Karpicke (2006). Comparing conditions of extended study versus study and assessment the authors found that the combination of study and assessment is conducive to the retention of learning and, in the long run, is more effective for learning than extended periods of study. A similar effect could occur in intercultural trainings – when learning is assessed, this activity in itself can enhance learning retention.

The inseparability of learning and learning assessment also limits the validity of learning evaluation in general. However, it also strengthens the practical relevance of learning evaluation: Trainings with a proper learning evaluation provide additional learning opportunities and are likely to yield better outcomes than those without good learning evaluation.

Behaviour. The third criterion to evaluate training effectiveness is behavioural changes resulting from the training activity. Behaviour is usually measured by observational data or with self-ratings, supervisor ratings, or peer-ratings (or a combination thereof). In order to reduce variance due to environmental effects, behaviour assessment should best take place in standardised situations (Ostroff, 1991).

Similarly to learning evaluation, evaluation of behaviour should, if possible, include both pre- and post-training measures. However, while behavioural pre-training assessment is fairly easy in domestic skills trainings, it is difficult for intercultural trainings: Except for the rare occasions when trainees are already in contact with a target culture before receiving the training, no pre-training behaviour data are available. Therefore a feasible design to assess behavioural training outcomes could be the comparison of intercultural behaviour of trainees with behaviour of people without

training. Provided these two groups are similar, conclusions about training effectiveness are possible.

Negotiation settings provide an ideal situation to evaluate intercultural behaviour. Negotiation is a ubiquitous activity in interpersonal situations, therefore mastery of negotiations with host country is an important skill for the success of intercultural encounters. However, patterns and successful negotiation strategies show tremendous variation across cultures. Micro-level studies about intercultural negotiation have brought up a detailed knowledge base of this variation across many countries (Weiss, 2006). Evaluating behavioural outcomes of intercultural trainings in negotiation settings can draw on this literature to make solid predictions regarding which negotiation behaviours contribute or compromise negotiation success and measure training success on the frequency with which trainees engage in such successful or unsuccessful behaviours.

Moreover, even traditional evaluation criteria of adjustment and performance could be conceptualised as behavioural outcomes. While adjustment clearly has cognitive, behavioural, and affective components, it ranks around the central theme of getting along with host country nationals, which is mostly a behavioural outcome.
Similarly, performance, whether on expatriate assignments or study/work placements abroad, is based on actual behaviours and actions sojourners exhibits at work.

Results. The final level of evaluation are results. In the framework of Kirkpatrick (1996), results are organisation-level indicators that are likely to be influenced by training outcomes, e.g. profitability, quality, staff turnover, absenteeism, accidents at work and so forth. Kraiger (2002) proposes three main purposes for the evaluation of organisational training: Decision making, feedback, and marketing. Evaluating ultimate training results is relevant for all three purposes.

Evaluation on this level is unrelated to the individual trainee, yet provides evidence whether the training, averaged across all participants, yielded benefits for the organisation. In organisational intercultural trainings, evaluation on the results level is often described as a focus on the "return on investment" (ROI) of expatriation (GMAC et al., 2003). Expatriate ROI puts costs and benefits of expatriation in relation: Costs are caused through of expatriate selection, training, relocation, and bonus packages; benefits are achieved on hard performance levels like sales or turnover, as well as less objective

criteria, like knowledge transfer and stronger networks. It is on this level that expatriate failure, e.g. underperformance or premature return, shows the largest impact. Even though estimates of the costs of expatriate failure are manifold and vary between $100.000 (Black et al., 1991) and $1 Mio (Maurer & Li, 2006), general agreement exists that expatriate failure is expensive and should be avoided by any means. If intercultural training can reduce failure rates, this is a strong argument for continuing investment in it.

Research about results on university level sojourns, so far, is very scarce. However, certain institutional goals relating to year abroad programmes in general might also be valid for the evaluation of intercultural training. As stated earlier, an integrated study/work placement abroad can help university's profile for new candidates and attract students with high potential. Further, the additional skills students gain abroad are likely to increase their attractiveness on the job market, therefore these students should get better jobs than others. A potential reputation gain for the university is another desirable outcome. Finally, through year abroad programmes universities increases their international networks with other universities and multinational companies, fostering esteem and publicity worldwide. These factors suggest that employment rates of students who completed the training, numbers of new student applicants, and general university esteem could serve as very broad reaction measures for intercultural training.

Further, university-internal reactions could be included as well: A university-wide acceptance of cultural differences, interest in other cultures, and readiness to interact with culturally different groups could also serve as a reaction criterion. However, it can be expected that single delivery cycles of intercultural training will not have a very large impact on these criteria. Only a consistent and long-term implementation of intercultural training, including second-loop learning and continuous improvement, might be able to result in changes of the aspects described above.

Relationship between the four levels. Kirkpatrick (1996) points out that the four levels of evaluation – reaction, learning, behaviour and results - are related to each other. Low results in early evaluation measures (e.g., reaction, learning) indicate that trainees did not find the training very useful and have not learnt very much. Therefore, behavioural outcomes are likely rather low, too (Brown, 2005). On the other hand, highly positive reaction and high learning do not necessarily lead to high long-term results of training.

Arthur, Bennett, Edens and Bell (2003) have shown certain process losses: Reaction and learning generally yield higher effectiveness scores than behaviour, while results get the lowest score.

These results imply that behavioural outcomes and training results are the two levels of evaluations that depend most on the implementation of transfer strategies. Good intercultural training should actively address all four levels and include strategies for memorising new learning contents and transferring them into everyday behaviour, so that ultimate results are measurable. Moreover, by evaluating only distal criteria, possible training effects on proximal criteria, like reaction and learning, go unnoticed and unacknowledged. For an objective and scientific evaluation, it is vital to include evaluation criteria on all these levels.

Conclusion

As Kealey and Proteroe (1996) note, most studies on intercultural training effectiveness had severe methodological flaws, either in the design of the evaluation, evaluation procedure, evaluation content, or all of them. Due to these flaws, results on intercultural training effectiveness from previous studies should be treated with caution (Ehnert, 2004).

In this chapter, a comprehensive framework for the design, delivery, and evaluation of intercultural trainings was presented. Within this framework, the four stages proposed by Goldstein and Ford (2001) were discussed and applied to intercultural training in organisational and academic settings. The use of a comprehensive model in the construction and evaluation of intercultural training is an adequate means to ensure a truthful and reliable picture of training effectiveness. The detailed assessment of all stakeholders' needs, the alignment of evaluation criteria and targeted learning outcomes, and the rigorous evaluation on all four levels are necessary steps for a systematic improvement if intercultural training.

In the needs assessment stage, consideration should be given to goals that organisations (or university) and sojourners themselves pursue with a stay abroad. Then trainings should be designed such that these goals are taken as a guideline for targeted training outcomes. Further, in the selection of training methods care should be taken that

these methods provide an optimal stimulation for trainees and are adequate to meet the targeted learning outcomes. The delivery format of intercultural training should be chosen such that an optimal trade-off between accessibility, training intensity and cost-efficiency is achieved. Finally, the evaluation of good intercultural training should include criteria on as many evaluation levels as possible that are aligned with the overall training goals and sensitive enough to capture training-related changes and improvements.

Outlook

While Chapter II and III have presented theory on intercultural training, its design, delivery and evaluation, the following chapters relate to the specific training designed for the purpose of this PhD. Chapter IV describes in detail how the present training was based on the model presented in the current chapter in its design, delivery and evaluation. Chapters V-VII concern empirical hypothesis tests utilising the present training.

From the perspective of the training process, these chapters deal with the evaluation of cognitive learning (Chapter V), behavioural training outcomes in negotiation settings (Chapter VI), and long-term behavioural training outcomes like adjustment and performance (Chapter VII). A reflection on the overall utility of the model presented here is given in Chapter VIII.

Thus, the following chapters altogether serve as an example of how the proposed model of intercultural training can be applied in practice. Special emphasis is given to a rigorous needs assessment of all training stakeholders before the training is designed, aiming for alignment and consistency of training needs, training design and delivery, and its evaluation.

From a scientific view, this process addresses various "blind spots" in intercultural training research: The examination of cognitive learning sheds light on how intercultural learning actually works. The analysis of negotiation behaviours deals with the question of whether the kind of learning that takes place in the particular method of intercultural training actually has an impact on immediate behavioural performance. The evaluation of

long-term adjustment and performance investigates the long-term transfer of training into practical settings.

Moreover, the research carried out in the following chapters was conducted in an experimental setting, allowing for a comparison of two slightly different training types regarding their effectiveness on all these criteria. It also includes a control group for assessing long-term training benefits not only between the two methods, but also compared to the baseline of no training. .

CHAPTER IV: GENERAL METHODOLOGY

Synopsis

This PhD is a piece of intercultural research. This chapter describes the methodical approach of the training design for this PhD. However, before doing this, it is necessary to give a short overview of the basic epistemological and methodical principles and assumptions that guide intercultural research.

The main part of the chapter concerns the practical application of the model proposed in chapter III. Actions and steps taken in all stages of the training process (needs analysis, training design, training delivery and training evaluation) are explained in detail. The chapter finishes with a pilot study that tests the developed training material so that it can be used in scientific studies.

Definition of culture and intercultural research

In order to define intercultural research, a shared understanding of culture is vital. Culture, in the ethno-relative sense, is difficult to define, and anthropologists are still debating about the correct or best definition.

Prominent definitions put culture as the man-made part of the environment (Herskovits, 1948), the knowledge necessary to operate acceptably in society (Goodenough, 1964), a habitual set of problem-solving behaviours (Ford, 1942), or as the communal software of the mind (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). Culture is also often conceptualised as a shared system of values, beliefs, practices and symbols (Schein, 1985).

While all these definitions of culture concern the same concept and have some overlap, they emphasise different aspects of culture. Depending on personal orientations and background, cultural researchers put forward a plethora of definitions: Over 200 definitions of culture were known as early as the 1950s (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952). Since then, even more researchers have come up with their definitions of culture.

A very comprehensive definition is made by UNESCO (2002), which regards culture as "the set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of society or a social group, and that it encompasses, in addition to art and literature, lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs".

The GLOBE Project (House et al., 2004) looked at nature and relationships of societal and organisational culture as well as leadership, and defined culture as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that results from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations" (p.15).

This definition contains core features of culture: that it is shared by others (a nation, society or a collective), that it is symbolic, i.e. relies on the interpretation of meanings, it is learned through experience and passed on from one generation to another. In this thesis, the definition of culture given by the GLOBE project is adopted.

Intercultural versus cross-cultural research

Landis and Wasilewski (1999) refer to the need to differentiate between the terms of cross-cultural and intercultural research. Both research streams apply to the individual, group, organisational and cultural level, yet they differ in the general type of knowledge they aim to create.

Cross-cultural research subsumes approaches to examine similarities and differences between cultures, may it be between only two cultures or across multiple cultures. Generally, the more cultures are compared and the more comparisons are related to universal dimensions of cultural differences, the higher is the value of knowledge gained through this kind of research. However, with the number of culture, complexity increases as well, so much cross-cultural research deals with relatively basic psychological processes.

Intercultural research, on the other hand, focuses on the penetration of one (host) culture by the member of another culture. Intercultural research might take the perspective of the host culture, the home culture, or the individual moving between the two. Some intercultural research also takes a systemic view, focussing on the interactions of individual, host and home culture. Thus, intercultural research is more dynamic than cross-cultural research, is more concerned with acknowledging complexity than with limiting it. The importance of intercultural research arose through globalisation, so, compared with cross-cultural research, intercultural studies are still fairly recent.

Intercultural research

Research in intercultural training is influenced by many disciplines. Intercultural research became a discipline not before WWII (Landis & Wasilewski, 1999), and feeds on various research traditions, e.g. in social psychology (theories of social identity and intergroup relations), communications and linguistics (theory of verbal and nonverbal communicating across cultures), and anthropology (theories about the nature, use, change, and functionality of culture as such). All these disciplines differ widely in their prevailing paradigms and methodology. As Kuhn (1962) points out, paradigms are incommensurable - they are inconsistent with each other and cannot be evaluated against

each other in their concepts, values, techniques, and methodologies, as all possible evaluations will take the viewpoint of one paradigm or another. Rather than establishing universally applicable evaluation criteria, the evaluation of a piece of research therefore comes by standards inherent in the paradigm that this research adopts.

However, as intercultural research and practice show every day, paradigms are not necessarily contradictory. Indeed, they can be complementary to each other under two conditions: a) The field of research in question is mainly problem-focussed, not method-focussed; b) researchers tolerate each other's approach or, on a minimal level, agree to disagree with each other.

In this sense, research in intercultural training benefits from the variety of approaches taken by various researchers. The cross-fertilisation of scientific disciplines is acknowledged by interdisciplinary bodies like IAIR (International Academy for Intercultural Research) or SIETAR (Society for Intercultural Education, Training, and Research).

Similarly, the research reported in this thesis does not dogmatically adhere to one methodological paradigm. Instead, it is influenced by the paradigms underlying previous research that led the author's way of thinking about the topic of intercultural training and of approaching the research topic of intercultural training. Mainly, these are neo-positivistic thougths and methods (Popper, 1934/1969). A positivist position in social sciences entails the following principles (Bryman, 2001):

A) empiricism: Only phenomena, i.e., what can be experienced and confirmed by the senses, can be regarded as knowledge.

B) value-freedom: Knowledge can be judged only on the dimension of truthfulness, not on a value dimension. Science, as the discipline creating knowledge, is therefore innately value free.

C) objectivism: Knowledge is not bound to the person, phenomenon, or method which were involved when it was gathered. Knowledge is intersubjective.

D) Deductivism: The principal use of theories is to generate hypotheses which then can be tested empirically.

E) Inductivism: New knowledge is produced by gathering empirical facts and aggregating them on a more abstract level into general principles and laws.

These five points imply that, within a positivist paradigm, a strict separation can be drawn between theorising and research practice. The role of research practice is to test theoretical knowledge and to provide material for the development of laws and principles.

The research in this thesis is both deducting and inductive. A deductive approach is adopted in chapters V and VII, in which specific hypotheses about intercultural training are proposed and are subjected to statistical tests of falsification. Chapter VI combines a deductive and inductive approach to test a limited set of hypotheses, while including a deeper exploration of the complex data in this chapter than a purely deductive approach would allow.

Intercultural training for International Placements (ITIP)

The training (or specifically, two trainings) designed for this piece of research were addressed to undergraduate students from Britain going abroad for a whole academic year to either work or study. The training was designed to prepare students for the different cultural environment they would enter, familiarise them with difficult intercultural situations, and raise their objective and subjective ability to handle intercultural problems. The ITIP training followed the stage model of intercultural training proposed in chapter III. Before giving detailed information about the stages of needs analysis, training design, delivery and evaluation, details about the training participants are given.

Participants

Participants were undergraduate students at Aston University (Aston Business School and the School of Languages and Social Sciences). All participants were in their second year of study. A range of study courses in ABS and LSS require students to undertake a work and/or study placement abroad, mostly in France or German-speaking countries (Germany, Austria, Switzerland). Additionally, students in other courses that are required

to do work placements are encouraged to complete these outside the UK to gain intercultural experience.

Usually, these placements require students to undertake either an academic year of study at a university abroad, complete a year in an educational setting (e.g., as teaching assistant), or work for a minimum of 10 months in an organisational environment. In some cases, combinations of these options are possible. For example, a student of International Business and Modern Languages (IBML) might decide to spend 4 months studying in Germany before working for 6 months in a French company.

For three consecutive years (2003/4 – 2005/6), the present intercultural training was offered free of charge to all students interested in taking it as a preparation for their placement year. Within the university, the training was marketed under the name of ITIP (Intercultural Training for International Placements).

Students who signed up for ITIP volunteered their data to be used for scientific purposes (See Appendix 1 for the sign-up sheet and information leaflet). Participants were randomly and blindly assigned to one of two training conditions which differed in instruction and learning goals as described in the section on training design below. This randomisation allowed for testing the effects of the two training types in an experimental setting.

The numbers of students signing up for ITIP varied: Sign-up numbers in 2003/4, 2004/5 and 2005/6 were 30, 52 and 36, respectively. As ITIP was a multi-session training and voluntary, considerable drop-out occurred in all years. Some few students only signed up for ITIP but did not participate; some participated initially but dropped out of the training due to various (personal) reasons. Altogether, numbers of students who completed the training were 10, 29, and 20, respectively.

It is important to mention that initial IT problems in the first year of delivery hindered some students participating and resulted in partial data loss. Also, the longitudinal nature of this study led to some "losses on the way" in terms of participants. This resulted in unequal sample sizes and sample characteristics depending on what aspect of training (learning processes, behavioural competence, or long-term effect) was focussed on. Therefore, in addition to the general sample description below, each of the empirical chapters contains a detailed overview of the sample used for the analyses conducted in these chapters.

Participant characteristics

Age. Age ranged from 19 years to 22 years, with a mean of 19.78 years. Data about age from 16 students are missing.

Gender. Most participants were female (n=66). Only 15 participants were male with missing information from 16 students.

Ethnical background. The vast majority of participants (n= 69) described their ethnic background as white-British. Some other students were other white-European (5), African-British (2), Indian-British (2), Asian-British (1), Caribbean-British (1), and Singaporean-Chinese (1). 18 students gave no information. The ethnical background of these participants can be considered as additional cultural experience. In order to ensure that no participant had advantages in their training due to their cultural background, data from two students with a background involving French or Germanic cultures were not included in the analyses. However, these students completed the training as normal participants.

Target culture. Not all students had decided yet which country they would like to go to. Of those who already knew their destination, 32 students stated to go to France, 27 to Germany, and two to Austria. Fourteen students wanted to go to both Germany and France, one student wanted to go Austria and France, while two students wanted to spend a year in Belgium. Further, one student aimed to go to the Netherlands, and another student aimed for China. The data of all these students were included in the analyses of cultural learning in chapter V. However, in the later analyses about negotiation with French and Germans and long-term cultural adjustment and performance, data from the students in the Netherlands and in China were not included.

Training needs analysis

A major aim of the research reported here was the competitive evaluation of two forms of training. However, both training interventions were designed to prepare students for their year abroad in the best way possible. Therefore, a needs analysis according to the model described in chapter III was carried out.

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First, organisational support was ensured. Top-level management in ABS and LSS support comprised access to centrally held student data, permit to use the university's IT facilities and rooms free of charge, and included financial support for training-related expenses. Further, top-management were helpful in the negotiation with relevant gate-keepers (e.g., lecturers, placement office staff) about the marketing of ITIP, access to students and encouraging students to participate.

Second, institutional training goals were analysed. Formal and informal talks with various members of the university revealed a high need for external recognition as an institution fostering multiculturalism and developing multicultural competence in their students. This was related to a strategic goal of accreditation by international bodies, and the need of cultural competence for employability of students in general.

In order to obtain information on what type and content of training might be most suitable, a status-quo analysis of the support offered to placement students was made. Students perceived the administrative support for finding their placement and accommodation abroad as very good. Further, a system of continuing contact and support of students on placement abroad was well established. However, this system was perceived as very labour-intensive for admin staff, as personal contact had to be maintained with placement students on an individual basis. Administrators and lecturers had to spend a lot of time visiting and monitoring placement students.

Developmental activities for intercultural encounters consisted in some general pre-departure information and personal support about coping with cultural differences. However, they were provided only on a minimal level (a two-hour lecture-based session in which previous placement students shared their experiences with the audience). This preparation was not targeted to enhance students' cultural skills and attitudes in a way that could be beneficial for their overall adjustment and performance. On a theoretical level, the existing preparation could mostly be classified as "orientation" training with the goal to enhance general information about other countries, rather than cultural values. No significant budget could be allocated to the development or delivery of intercultural training.

In summary, the institutional training needs derived from this analysis were that additional intercultural training was both necessary and desirable. It should be an initiative of high visibility to people within and outside the university, be applicable for

students from various courses and schools, focus on pre-departure information and skills development, and should best be delivered at virtually no cost to the university.

An analysis of the universities official material about placements (regulations, learning outcomes, assessment) showed a high complexity of the knowledge, skills and abilities students would need for their placements abroad, mainly because their tasks varied according to personal choices.

According to the conceptualisation of intercultural KSA's given in Figure 3.1, participants' needs centred mostly on society-general KSAs that were both culture-general and culture specific. Further, for the benefit of their academic assessment, students should learn to apply theoretical knowledge in practice and be able to reflect about their placement experience with reference to scientific concepts.

Besides this institutional needs analysis, participants were also directly questioned about their needs. Specifically, participants were asked about their expectations regarding their year abroad in five areas: Expectations about the foreign environment, their friends and social life abroad, and the implication of the year abroad for their academic, professional, and personal development. These questions were open-ended, so responses were grouped into thematic categories. Table 4.1 below gives an overview of students' expectations about their year abroad:

Table 4.1: *Students' expectations about their work/study placement abroad*

Expectations	Freq	Expectations	Freq
Academic expectations:		Expectations about social life:	
Enhance language skills	41	Generally meet new people	23
Increase cultural knowledge	17	Friendship with host nationals	19
Develop business skills	14	Challenge to integrate	10
Develop technical skills	7	Loneliness	4
Gain self-confidence	6	Initial problems	4
Develop research skills	3	Explore the country	2
Develop presentation skills	2	Stay in touch with current friends	2
Professional expectations:			
Increase business knowledge and skills	23	Expectations about foreign environment:	
Develop clarity of career plans	8	Different and challenging	12
		Different in a positive way	9
Enhance team-working skills	8	Not much difference	8
Boost CV	7	Professional environment	7
International Business knowledge	6	Social, friendly environment	6
Put theory into practice	5	City-life	5
Networking	5	Sunny	3
Learn to work under pressure	3	Personal expectations:	
		Self-confidence	29
Broaden horizon	1	Independence	20
		Personal growth	15
		Problem solving skills	11
		Open-mindedness	5
		Assertiveness	4
		Enjoyment	2

Table 4.1 above shows that students' expectations about their study/work placement abroad were high - and very diverse. Besides beneficial effects on language competence, students aimed to gain a lot of practical knowledge and understanding of foreign culture(s), build friendships and long-term relationships with people from other cultures and undergo major personal development. Most importantly, many students felt the need to develop self-confidence and confidence in their language skills, as well as independence and the ability to adjust easily to new environments. Many students (presumably those who were going on to work placements) wanted to acquire "business skills" while working abroad.

From these data, the following demands for intercultural training were derived: It should provide basic knowledge and information about the cultures students will go to. It should be designed to help students deal with uncomfortable situations in foreign cultures. Some reference to business should be contained for students working abroad, and, through incorporating self-reflection, the training should generally enhance students' personal development.

Training design

Training research differs from other research in such that a benefit resulting participation is not a side effect, but the core goal. Therefore, it would be of little scientific and ethical value to train participants with a method that is not considered to be beneficial for them. Even if, like in many intercultural training studies, the first research aim is the evaluation of one or more training methods, care must be taken to maximise benefits of all parts of the training for all participants. This is an important issue in comparative training designs, in which multiple training methods or types of delivery are evaluated against each other. In these cases, the researcher should ensure that *all* interventions offered are genuinely beneficial for participants. Thus, each of the trainings used in this study was designed with the aim to maximise its beneficial effects for participants.

Taking these considerations into account, the developed ITIP training comprised two phases. In the first phase, a cognitive mode of training was chosen. Students would learn about cultural differences between home and host cultures, mostly through critical

incidents. For this phase, two sets of training were designed that varied in learning goals and instruction.

The second phase featured an experiential mode of learning and was equal all participants. In this phase, students would come together in small group workshops and apply what they had learnt previously in an intercultural role-play with host country nationals.

Training content of the first phase

One of the major scientific purposes of this doctoral thesis was to gain insight into the processes of intercultural learning and determine which learning (declarative or procedural) are more conducive to behavioural and long-term effectiveness of intercultural training. Therefore, two trainings were designed that varied learning goals and instruction.

To assure maximal benefit for all trainees, the two compared trainings were designed with the same content, delivery mode, and duration. They only varied in overall learning goals and instruction type. Moreover, the intercultural role-play scenario was identical for both trainings.

Culture theory in intercultural training

In chapter II, various studies were reviewed to show that trainings based on culture theories are superior to theory-free trainings (e.g., Bhawuk 1998). Therefore the content of both trainings in this research was based on culture theory. They were centred on cultural differences between Britain and the main target countries: France, Germany, Austria and Switzerland. In order to provide students a coherent theoretical framework to make sense of cultural differences, the theory and results adopted from the GLOBE study (Brodbeck, 2000; House et al., 2004) was used.

GLOBE mapped the societal and organisational culture of 62 cultures, with Britain, France, Germany, Austria and Switzerland among them, on nine culture dimensions: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Assertiveness, Performance Orientation, Institutional Collectivism, In-group collectivism, Gender Egalitarianism, Future

Orientation, and Humane Orientation. On each dimension, GLOBE differentiated between societal values and societal norms and practices. Societal value scores expressed what level in each dimension members of a culture perceived as ideal for their culture. Societal practice scores related to the actual level that members of a culture perceived their culture to have.

For the purpose of this study, societal practice scores were used for two reasons: First, trainees would stay abroad for a maximum time of one year. Within such a short time frame, differences in cultural norms and practices were likely to have a larger effect on trainees' adjustment and performance than deep-level differences in cultural values (Van Vianen et al., 2004). Second, GLOBE itself showed a higher impact of cultural practice scores on societal phenomena like economic health, life expectancy, and the Human Development Index (Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, & Sully de Luque, in press), which are characteristics that trainees would come into contact with on a daily basis.

Therefore, GLOBE mean scores of cultural practices and country cluster scores were compared for Britain, France, and Germanic countries. Additional country-specific information was drawn from in-depth chapters of the GLOBE project in England, France, Germany, Austria, and Switzerland (Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2007).

Relevant differences between Britain and the target cultures emerged on many, but not all dimensions. For the training, only those dimensions were used in which relevant differences emerged. An overview of the content basis is given in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: *Training contents according to dimensions of cultural differences between France, Germanic countries, and Great Britain.*

France	Germany	Austria & Switzerland(in addition to Germany)
Power Distance > GB	Assertiveness > GB	Gender egalitarianism < GB
Future Orientation < GB	Uncertainty Avoid. > GB	
Humane Orientation > GB	Humane Orientation < GB	
In-Group Collectivism > GB	Inst. collectivism < GB	
	Perf. Orientation >GB	

Notes. > means a dimension is more pronounced in this country than in Britain

< means a dimension is less pronounced in this country than in Britain

Besides these culture dimensions, general adjustment problems were also included in the training. Contents in this area referred to general psychological and physiological correlates of the adjustment process (Berry, 1990; Ryan & Twibell, 2000; Ward, 2004), which are not dependent on the target culture and at some stage are experienced by almost all sojourners. This was included to make students aware that they might feel stressed or depressed in the initial stages of their sojourn, but that this feeling was normal and transitory.

To summarise, the basis for training content was identical for both trainings. Also, the learning method in both trainings was identical and was based on the critical incident method(Flanagan, 1954) and the culture assimilator (Fiedler et al., 1971).

Development of critical incidents

The procedure to develop critical incidents was followed suggestions by Albert (1983) and Triandis (1984).

First, existing critical incidents from similar trainings were collected. This collection comprised 100 incidents from Brislin et al (1986), 36 incidents from Bhawuk (1995), 34 incidents from Schmid and Thomas (2003), 29 incidents from Neyer (2002) and 16 incidents from Buerkle (1999).These incidents were then critically reviewed regarding

the cultural difference they related to. Those incidents portraying a dimension of cultural values or practices, rather than environmental or incidental factors, were categorised into one of the nine GLOBE dimensions.

After this stage of material gathering, incidents that pertained to dimensions relevant for the transition between Britain and France or Britain and Germanic countries were selected to be adapted for the current training. Care was taken to keep a variety of incidents that would cover the cultural differences from Table 4.2. The adaptation comprised the translation of some critical incidents into English and, if necessary, the adaption of the cultural frame of reference to fit with a typical British background. For example, an incident from Schmid and Thomas (2003) about the difficulty of Germans to understand the more connotative communication in Britain was rewritten to fit the perspective of a British student who is confronted with a very direct, assertive communication style in Germany.

After the training material had been prepared in this way, a third of all incidents were randomly selected for double-rating by the author and a confederate who was familiar with the GLOBE dimensions. The rating task was to sort each incident into the appropriate culture dimension. Results of this procedure showed an interrater-agreement of $\kappa = .57$ ($p < .001$), which, according to Fleiss, Cohen and Everett's (1969) classification is sufficient given the complexity of the task and material.

Finally, each incident, including answer alternatives and feedback, was evaluated by a panel of bicultural experts: French and German students who had experience with their own and British culture. In order to be retained, the panel had to judge an incident as typical for cultural differences between Britain and France/Germany and as credible regarding the depicted situation. The panel also made judgements about the correct answers to all critical incidents and about the appropriateness of the feedback provided for each of these answers. The answer that was rated as most appropriate by the panel was declared as the "correct" answer for later use in the training. Specific suggestions from the panel about the adaptation of incidents, answer alternatives, or feedback were taken up and integrated.

All in all, this procedure yielded 41 incidents relating to cultural differences and 9 incidents for general cultural adjustment. In the training, incidents were presented in pairs: For each culture dimension, two incidents were given in sequence, so that trainees

could learn about the dimension from the feedback of the first incident, and immediately apply this knowledge in the second incident.

Learning goals and instruction

While training content was largely identical for both trainings, learning goals and instruction differed. The one training, which will be called *single-mode training* in this thesis, adopted the learning goals of traditional culture assimilators. The other training, which will be called *concurrent training*, included traditional learning goals as well as behavioural learning goals targeted at skills development. This design was chosen to assess the two training types against each other and investigate whether the methodical approach of the culture assimilator would indeed be inadequate to generate behavioural outcomes, as Albert (1986) had suggested, or whether the shortcomings of earlier culture assimilators in the behavioural domain were due to the learning goals that these trainings addressed. Both learning goals are described in detail.

Single-mode training. In traditional culture assimilators, the learning goal is to form isomorphic attributions (Albert, 1983; Fiedler et al., 1971). Therefore, the single-mode training aimed to give students practice in the correct attribution process and let them explain the behaviour, emotions or thoughts of host country nationals. For each cultural dimension, two incidents were presented in direct sequence which instructed participants as follows:

> *"Your general task is it to find out what the underlying problem in each situation is: Why did the host person behave that way? How come that the situation evolved differently than expected? How can you explain what happened?"*

After reading an incident, participants should first come up with their own explanation for what had gone wrong in the situation. This open-answer approach was adopted because various studies had shown a memory advantage of material that learners create for themselves, rather than predetermined learning material (Burns, 1992).

After giving an open answer, participants were asked to rate the appropriateness of four given answer alternatives on a scale from 1 = "not at all appropriate" to 7 =

"absolutely appropriate". This instruction was chosen because the activity of rating of all answers, rather then choosing the single best answer, had shown superior for learning of complex cultural issues in previous research (Malpass & Salancik, 1977). Immediately after the rating, participants received feedback about the correctness of each answer alternative. The correctness of answers was determined from the ratings that bicultural experts had given on earlier drafts of the training material. This feedback also contained information on the cultural difference behind the critical incident, so that students could have a meaningful learning experience and understand why certain answers but not others were appropriate.

Concurrent training. Instruction in the modified training exceeded the instruction in the single-mode training. The learning goal in the modified training was twofold: First, as in traditional assimilators, participants should learn to understand other cultures and form correct attribution patterns.

However, based on this understanding they should develop appropriate strategies for coping with cultural differences. This double-step process was ensured by presenting two incidents in direct sequence for each culture dimension. In all these pairs, the first incident had an "understanding" learning goal and asked participants to explain what was going on. The instruction of these incidents was identical to the single-mode training above. The second incident had a "coping" learning goal. The instruction for these incidents asked students for a creative response to a difficult situation. Its wording had little variations to match it with the situation displayed, but generally was put along the following lines:

> *"Your general task is to think how would you behave if you were the foreigner in*
> *the respective situation? What would you do, and why? Would you change your*
> *behaviour, and what would you focus on?"*

The sequence of generating original answers before rating four pre-determined answer alternatives was parallel to the single-mode training, only that in this case, participants were asked to rate the appropriateness of four presented behaviour or problem solution strategies. Their answers for this were used as an objective index of learning, as described in more detail in the report on the pilot study below.

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Rehearsal and subjective learning

At the beginning of session 2 and 3 and after all contents of session 3 had been completed, students received a rehearsal section that reviewed the training contents they had been working on in the last session. This review was organised into cultural dimensions rather than critical incidents to facilitate knowledge generalisation and application. After reviewing each of the cultural dimensions that the previous training session had dealt with, students were asked for their subjective learning on a 7-point scale from 1 = "not at all good" to 7 = "very good". Subjective declarative learning was measured with the following item: "How would you judge your understanding of cultural differences in this dimension?" subjective procedural learning was measured with the item: "How would you judge your strategies for coping with cultural differences in this dimension?". These ratings were averaged across cultural dimensions in each session, separately for declarative and procedural learning.

Additional material in the first phase

In addition to critical incidents, the training material in the first phase should help students to acquire self-knowledge that enabled them to reflect about themselves and enhance their personal development. Therefore this phase also comprised questionnaires about personality characteristics relevant for cultural transitions. These questionnaires pertained to the following aspects:

Multi-cultural personality. Multicultural personality was measured with a 46-item version of the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire MPQ (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). The MPQ comprises five scales assessing personality traits important in multicultural settings: cultural empathy, emotional stability, social initiative, flexibility, and open-mindedness. Participants rated their agreement to personality statements on a scale from 0 = "totally not applicable" to 4 = "completely applicable".

General Self-efficacy. Self efficacy was assessed with a 17-item scale from Harrison, Chadwick and Scales (1996). The items measured self-efficacy on a Likert scale from 1= "strongly disagree" to 6 "strongly agree".

Social self-efficacy. Social self-efficacy was measured with a 6-item measure from Harrison, Chadwick and Scales (1996). The items measured self-efficacy on a Likert scale from 1= "strongly disagree" to 6 "strongly agree".

Self-monitoring. Self-monitoring was measured with an 18-item scale from Harrison et al (1996), using a Likert scale from 1= "strongly disagree" to 6 "strongly agree".

Goal orientation. Goal orientation was measured using 13 items adapted from Van de Walle (1997). The dimensions of goal orientation captured with these items were learning orientation and two facets of performance orientation: Performance-prove orientation and performance-avoidance orientation. Items were slightly rephrased to fit the context of study and work placement instead of work context only. Answer scales ranged from 1 = "completely disagree" to 5 = "completely agree".

A complete listing of items for all scales is given in Appendix 2. Due to varying sample sizes, the reliabilities of these instruments are reported as preliminary results in the hypothesis-testing chapters.

Students received personalised feedback on their answers to these questionnaires in the second phase of the training. This feedback included information on their scores and profiles, how their profiles on these questionnaires expressed personal strengths and weaknesses, and how they could use their strengths in intercultural encounters.

Training contents of phase two

The second phase of the training could be classified as experiential. Face-to-face workshops with 2-5 students and a French and/or German confederate were held 7 to 14 days after the first training phase was completed. All training participants, disregarding of which training they had received in phase one, underwent the same workshop procedure. In these workshops, the author and confederates were unaware of which training type participants had received before.

Workshops were about 90 minutes in duration and contained a short warm-up exercise of difficult critical incidents, a negotiation role play, and a group-based debriefing.

First, participants were asked to complete a set of four critical incidents as a warm-up task. Answers to these incidents were discussed between participants, the researcher and confederates. This was followed by a more general discussion of cultural differences and expectations about the year abroad.

After the warm-up phase, participants completed the core part of the workshop: Individual role plays with a host country confederate in the language of their choice (German, French, or English). The role play scenario was a workplace setting, in which the participant, as a placement student, had to negotiate with the host country national, who played the student's boss, about the permission to take a voluntary language course during normal office hours.

Prior to the role play itself, participants received a briefing and had time to develop a negotiation strategy. In order to provide a standardised and challenging task, role plays were limited to 10 minutes per participant: After this time, the student's boss finished the role play because he had to take a phone call. Negotiation role plays were videotaped with written permission of the participants.

After the role play, participants shared their experiences with each other and received developmental feedback from the host country confederate about how appropriate or inappropriate their negotiation strategies had been. The author also gave them feedback about their personality profile.

Participants received material for further self-study that rehearsed and complemented what had been learnt in the first training phase. Participants were also informed that they would be contacted twice during their placement to fill in some questionnaires on how they were coping with cultural differences and their general situation abroad.

Training delivery

In the present study, training delivery had to respond to participants' availability for the training. Due to the diversity of subjects studied and unsystematic variation in timetables, direct contact between students and with the trainer had to be limited.

A pilot test of the training in the summer term 2003/4 revealed that the benefit of training close to departure did not outweigh the negative sides of exam stress and general confusion that students found themselves in during this time. Thus, in order to ensure that students would indeed have sufficient time to participate in the training, the delivery of the ITIP training was re-scheduled to the spring term.

Therefore, the first training phase was delivered entirely online. Training material for the first phase was arranged into three weekly sessions of approximately 90 minutes duration. In the three sessions, students completed 12, 12 and 10 critical incidents, respectively. Personality questionnaires served as a break-filling task in the middle and at the end of each training session.

Online delivery ensured that all students had access to the training material wherever and whenever they could find the time to do the training. The only restrictions were that students had to complete each session within the weekly schedule, keep the sequence of incidents in each session, and complete of each training session in one go. The online programme monitored IP-Addresses to exclude double submission and did not allow for breaks. SUN number served to link participants' responses from various sessions.

To enhance learning and transfer, rehearsal sections were devised in later sessions about the contents already learnt, so that participants were reminded about the situations and culture dimensions they had already worked on. Rehearsal was structured into cultural dimensions that the incidents of the previous session referred to. After reading a rehearsal text for each dimension, students were asked to judge their own learning for this dimension. Specifically, they should rate a) their ability to understand and b) their strategies to cope with cultural differences in each dimension on a scale from 1 = "not at all good" to 7 = "very good".

Training evaluation

Training evaluation followed the four levels model of reaction, learning, behaviour and results(Kirkpatrick, 1996).

Reactions towards the training were measured anonymously directly after the workshop. A copy of the reaction questionnaire is given in Appendix 3.

Learning measures were differentiated into objective and subjective learning. For each training session of phase one, knowledge about cultural differences and how to cope with them was measured by the correctness of participants' responses to critical incidents. In this index, participants' answers for a critical incident were compared with the model answer that the expert panel of German and French students had devised. An exact computation of this index is described in the section about the pilot study below.

In a second step, correctness indices were aggregated within each session for all incidents with understanding goals and separately for all incidents with behavioural goals. Thus, participants in the single-mode training had only one correctness index per session, while participants in the concurrent training had two.

Perceived learning was derived from participants' answers to the rehearsal sections. Participants' ratings of their perceived competency to a) understand and recognize cultural differences, and b) handle differences in each cultural dimension in everyday life were averaged for all cultural dimensions into two subjective learning indices for each of the three sessions. Evaluation of learning is the subject of chapter V.

The measurement of behavioural outcomes was twofold. On the one hand, students' performance and behaviour in the second phase of the training served as an evaluation for the immediate effectiveness of the first training phase. Thus, the transfer and application of cognitive learning gained in the first training phase was evaluated by examining the negotiation behaviour and negotiation success that students exhibited in the second training phase. This stage of evaluation is extensively addressed in chapter VI.

On the other hand, long-term behavioural outcomes of the whole training were measured once participants had departed for their year abroad. Four months and eight months after their departure, all placement students were invited by email to complete questionnaires about how they were doing on their year abroad. This included students who had participated in ITIP and those who had not completed such a training. SUN numbers served as identifier to link data. Students who had not participated in ITIP, but also were on placements in French or Germanic cultures served as control group. These students were comparable in age, gender, and study experience to the ITIP participants.

This procedure allowed objective comparisons between training participants and students who went on placement without prior training, as well as comparisons between

participants in the single-mode and those in the concurrent training. Behavioural outcomes in this stage were cultural adjustment and perceived performance.

Cultural adjustment was measured with the 14-item scale proposed by Black and Stevens (1989). This measure, in unison with the 3-facet concept of adjustment (Black et al., 1991), differentiates the dimensions of work, social, and environmental adjustment. This scale was chosen to align the measurement of adjustment with the training goals in the present study. These goals were enhanced understanding of other cultures and international business, ability to cope with cultural differences, and the building of new social and work relationships with host country nationals. These goals were covered in the three facets of adjustment proposed in Black and Stevens' (1989) measure of culture-general adjustment, work adjustment, and social adjustment.

Performance was assessed with two measures designed for this study. Due to the diversity of settings students were placed in (e.g., working in an office, as a teaching assistant, or studying at university), existing scale versatile enough to be applicable to all participants. Further, despite their potential bias, self-ratings of performance were used to ensure comparability of performance ratings amongst all students, disregarding of whether they were on work or study placements. Performance was measured in two aspects: Relative performance compared to expectations of the student and others, and summative performance. The long-term evaluation of the single-mode and concurrent training is addressed in depth in chapter VII.

Pilot Study

An important outcome variable of this thesis was objective learning in training phase one. This was measured by the correctness of trainees' responses to each critical incident.

All incidents provided four answers of which one (in two instances, two) had been determined by the native expert panel to be the most appropriate answer from the perspective of the host culture. On a scale from 0 = "absolutely not applicable" to 6 = "very highly applicable", participants had to rate how applicable they regarded each of the four presented answers. Correctness for each incident was computed as the difference in applicability scores given to right and wrong answers:

$$c_i = \frac{\sum x_{corr}}{n_{corr}} - \frac{\sum x_{false}}{n_{false}};$$

Notes. x = score for answer; n = number of right answers for incident i; $\sum n_{corr} + n_{false} = 4$

The theoretical range for this correctness index was between -7 (maximal misfit with the culturally appropriate answer) and +7 (maximal fit with the culturally appropriate answer). Within this range, a score of 0 compared to a random answer pattern.

In order to be able to interpret these correctness scores as indicating participants' learning, it was useful to regard each critical incident as a test item for intercultural learning, and as such examine its item characteristics. Specifically, the most relevant characteristic to assess for this purpose was item difficulty. Due to the way they were constructed, it could not be assumed that all critical incidents would have the same item difficulty - some of them might be easier to respond to than others.

Moreover, the possibility of a systematic variation of item difficulty between items in the single-mode training and concurrent training would render the trainings incomparable. This was most important in the development of objective learning scores across training sessions. For example, while a rise in correctness scores over time would intuitively be interpreted as objective learning, it could actually be that this was due to a decrease in item difficulty over sessions, rather than an increase in participants' learning.

Therefore, item difficulty of each incident needed to be assessed and then controlled for when looking at objective learning.

For this purpose, a pilot study was conducted with a separate sample of first year business students in order to derive item difficulties. Participants in this study were 307 first-year students (159 male, 144 female) from Aston Business School enrolled in a course covering the foundations of management. A large majority (n = 215) of students had a British cultural background, the rest came from various cultures all around the globe. On average, participants were 18.76 years old and had been in contact with one other culture than their own (cultural experience varied with students' cultural background). Participants completed three critical incidents as part of a tutorial about intercultural awareness. Students received three critical incidents each, for which they should rate the four answers, but did not get feedback in order to control for possible learning and transfer between incidents, which would have led to an underestimate of item difficulty. Critical incidents were randomised in selection and sequence for each student to control for any possible serial effects. As this exercise was voluntary, not all students completed their assigned incidents or agreed to their data being used for scientific purposes. Thus, the calculations of item difficulty were based on answers from eleven to twenty-five students per incident (median 18).

The optimal computation of item difficulties follows an item response theory (IRT) model. For continuous items like correctness, IRT devises a confirmatory factor analysis for all items to derive item difficulties from the intercepts of each item loading on a common factor (Mellenbergh, 1994). However, confirmatory factor analysis requires a high person to item ratio, at least 5:1 (Bryant & Yarnold, 1995). Further, the use of IRT models requires items have to be locally independent (Embretson & Reise, 2000). This could not be guaranteed in a learning setting: If participants receive multiple items, they are likely to take some learning from early items which will influence their responses to later items. Thus, a low number of incidents would have to be presented to each participant in order to avoid learning effects. Assuming that three incidents per person would be a sufficiently low number, this procedure would have increased the necessary sample size to N_{crit} = 4250 for the 50 items in the training. Such a large sample was not feasible in the frame of this training, therefore a proxy calculation of item difficulty was compiled as follows:

The correctness of students' ratings for answers to each incident was computed by the formula above. Then correctness indices were averaged for each incident across students, providing a proxy of item difficulty. These difficulties ranged between - .83 and 2.25 on a possible scale from -7 to +7. Thus, it can be concluded that the incidents did not vary extremely in their difficulty but provided a relatively homogenous training material. Item difficulties for all items are listed in Appendix 4. Average difficulties were 0.93, 1.06 and 0.96 for the three sessions in the single-mode training, and 1.27, 0.43 and 1.20 for the concurrent training, respectively. A paired-sample comparison revealed that item difficulties for the second session differed between training types ($t(11) = 2.25$; $p < .05$). This implies that comparing raw correctness scores of participants across trainings would result in a distorted finding, at least for session two. Thus, calculations of the correctness scores for training participants were adjusted by taking the difficulty score obtained for each incident into account. This was subtracted from participants' raw item correctness scores. All calculations on correctness scores in the following chapters use these adjusted scores.

Summary and outlook

This chapter has provided detailed information about the methodology of the training conducted in this thesis. Epistemological basics relevant for intercultural research have been presented and discussed, arguing that pieces of intercultural research do not adhere to one research paradigm only and thus have to be judged on criteria inherent in the paradigm they are adopting. In this case, a neo-positivist paradigm was adopted with a value-free definition of culture. In line with this paradigm, an empirical, but theory-based approach to intercultural training was chosen.

In all stages, the ITIP training follows the model for intercultural training design developed in chapter III. The training was designed for second-year university students who sojourned for one academic year to pursue either work or study activities abroad. A training needs analysis from the institution and participants identified the needs for both cognitive and behavioural learning outcomes, with an emphasis on culture theory due to the academic nature of the training setting. It also showed a demand for high flexibility

and low cost. Empirical evidence recommended a combined training of culture assimilator and experiential methods to achieve these learning outcomes. From a scientific perspective, the exact evaluation of cognitive and behavioural learning was important.

Therefore, ITIP was designed as a two-phase training of which the first phase, similar to a culture assimilator, was delivered entirely online. This phase used critical incidents to facilitate situated learning and enhance stimulation during the training. Critical incidents were based on meaningful theory-driven dimensions of cultural values. Within the first phase, two training types were designed: A single-mode training with the learning goal to understand and interpret other cultures correctly, and a concurrent training which, in addition to the understanding goal, included the goal of developing behavioural strategies and coping skills for difficult intercultural situations. In order to ensure adequate interpretation of learning results in the first phase, the difficulty of critical incidents was tested in a pilot study.

The second training phase, which was identical for all participants, consisted of an experiential role play. Based on previous studies, an intercultural negotiation setting was chosen for this role play to provide a realistic and intensive learning experience. This phase functioned as part of the training for the participants, while at the same time giving the opportunity to evaluate the behavioural impact of the first training phase.

The evaluation of ITIP comprised the three levels of reaction, learning, and behaviour. Care was taken to use a variety of measures, especially for learning and behaviour, in order to increase confidence in potential results about the effectiveness of ITIP on these criteria. Cognitive learning scores comprised both objective and subjective measures. Behavioural learning for the first training phase was measured by participants' performance in the second training phase. Long-term behavioural learning of the ITIP trainng as a whole - including learning transfer- was evaluated at two points of time during participants' sojourn.

Taken together, the ITIP training provides an example how the model of training design from chapter III can be applied in practice. From this chapter, it can be concluded that the model is useful in so far as it provides good guidelines for rigorous intercultural training design. However, empirical data about the effectiveness of ITIP are necessary to judge whether the model is useful to design intercultural trainings that are not only methodically rigorous but also effective in achieving the targeted learning outcomes.

The next three chapters set out to provide pieces of an answer to this question. Chapter V addresses the development of intercultural learning in the first phase of the ITIP training. Chapter VI looks at the behavioural cultural competence resulting from the first training phase by scrutinising negotiation strategies and outcomes of participants in the experiential role play. An overall evaluation of the long-term effects of both training phases is given in chapter VII.

The integration of these findings is provided in chapter VIII. A critical discussion of the effectiveness of the ITIP training, based on these results, offers judgement about the quality of the intercultural training model used for designing ITIP and identifies further areas that should be integrated in the model.

CHAPTER V: THE TEMPORAL DEVELOPMENT OF INTERCULTURAL LEARNING

Synopsis

Many reviews and meta-analyses have looked at the effectiveness of intercultural trainings regarding cultural adjustment and performance abroad. A detailed overview of these can be found in chapter II. From this review, it can be taken that some intercultural training methods have some positive effects for trainees, but how methods and effects align is yet unclear.

Moreover, while various studies have examined whether a certain training method is effective or not, the questions of why this method is effective and what exactly is learnt in intercultural training has not been addressed. Specifically, insights into the learning processes occurring in intercultural training are very limited. What learning processes do occur in intercultural training and how are they related to training design and learning instruction? What role do trainees' individual characteristics play for these processes? These questions have not been addressed in prior research. However, their answers are necessary to understand the effectiveness – or lack of effectiveness – of specific intercultural training methods.

This chapter focuses on the cognitive learning processes involved in culture assimilator trainings. The theoretical background for this chapter is cognitive learning theory. Assumptions about intercultural learning processes are tested with the ITIP training for students who spend a year abroad for work and study. Employing a controlled design with 2 parallel training groups, this chapter examines influences of training design and personality on intercultural learning processes.

Learning processes in intercultural training

Many intercultural trainings evaluate cognitive learning outcomes at the end of the training, but few studies give details about the kind of learning that they evaluated and the method used to do so (Ehnert, 2004). The author believes that it is necessary to specify which kind of learning is evaluated, and how this is done, in order to derive conclusions about the effectiveness of intercultural training on cognitive learning. For this purpose, the present chapter differentiates between objective and subjective learning, and between declarative and procedural learning. The conceptualisation of these forms of learning will be explained in more detail and related to intercultural training, before specific hypotheses are made how learning in intercultural training develops.

Objective learning as defined in cognitive psychology is the augmentation or re-organisation of knowledge structures resulting from some practice or experience that results in an enduring change in an individual's behaviour or ability to do something (Day, Arthur, & Gettman, 2001; Shuell, 1986). In contrast to simple remembering, objective learning requires a deep understanding of what is being learnt, so that the acquired knowledge can be used productively in new environments (Kintsch, 1994). Objective learning can be measured with cognitive or behavioural learning tests.

Subjective learning, on the other hand, is based on the personal perception of learning. This perception is influenced by trainees' learning experience and subjective evaluation of this experience. Therefore it does not necessarily match objective learning. Usually, perception-based measures are employed to capture subjective learning.

For successful intercultural training, it can be assumed that both types of learning are relevant. Perceived subjective learning without actual objective learning will not enable trainees to enhance their performance in the desired domain. Similarly, objective learning without subjective learning will result in little self-confidence and little conscious application of what has been learnt in real life situations. In the following, the nature and development of both kinds of learning in general, their similarities and differences in development are discussed.

Objective learning: Declarative and procedural learning

From a cognitive perspective, learning is the development of knowledge. Cognitive psychology differentiates two basic kinds of knowledge: declarative and procedural knowledge. These two forms of knowledge differ in the way they are acquired, stored, and retrieved from memory (Walker, 2005). as well as in their physical location in the brain (Gabrieli, 1998).

Declarative learning

Declarative knowledge may be considered as conscious knowledge of fact-based information (i.e., knowing "what") and is usually acquired with relatively few exposures to the information, for example, reading a textbook or watching news on TV.

Once this knowledge is learnt, it is stored as declarative memory in medial-temporal and diencephalic regions of the brain. In the cognitive model ACT-R, declarative knowledge is conceptualised as chunks, separate units encoding small independent patterns of information (Anderson & Lebiere, 1998). This conceptualisation is widely accepted. Declarative knowledge can be consciously and intentionally recollected (Gabrieli, 1998) and differentiated into several subcategories, e.g., episodic memory for events of one's past and semantic memory containing general knowledge (Tulving, 1972).

Procedural learning

The other category of knowledge is procedural knowledge, (i.e., knowing "how"), which is at the core of learning actions, habits and skills. The process of procedural learning is different from declarative learning in that it takes much longer to develop procedural knowledge. For example, the learning of motor and perceptual skills takes many practice sessions and repetitions until a good command of these skills is achieved (Poldrack & Packard, 2003). Further, procedural knowledge is domain- or task-specific and cannot easily be generalised and applied in other domains . For example, procedural knowledge of how to play tennis will not be of much help for other ball games,like football or baseball.

Once procedural knowledge is learnt, it is stored in procedural memory located in the basal ganglia, cerebellum, and task-specific neocortex. In ACT-R, procedural knowledge is derived from declarative knowledge by re-analysing and compiling knowledge chunks into production rules for behaviour (Anderson & Lebiere, 1998).Thus, ACT-R regards declarative knowledge as a precondition for procedural learning. This assumption has received empirical support in a correlational study of declarative and procedural learning in a sequence-learning task, revealing a sound connection between both forms of learning (Feldman, Kerr, & Streissguth, 1995).

However, not all research supports this idea. Various studies using neuroimaging methods or studying patients with brain lesion have shown that declarative and procedural learning can happen unrelated to each other,which explains, for example, why patients with anterograde amnesia are still capable of procedural learning (Cohen & Squire, 1980; Gabrieli, 1998). Therefore, the relationship between procedural and declarative knowledge still awaits clarification.

Declarative and procedural knowledge in intercultural training

The differentiation between declarative and procedural learning can also be applied to intercultural trainings, where learning centres on various aspects of other cultures. These can be historic and demographic information about other cultures or skills for successful interaction with host country nationals.

As line with the differentiation above, declarative cultural knowledge in intercultural trainings is conceptualised as semantic knowledge. It concerns facts about cultures: A culture's historical background, knowledge about the political and social system, information about cultural values, norms, and other general rules that help understand a culture in all its ways.

This knowledge is unrelated to personal experience or specific events, it is objective and general information that is stored in semantic memory. This is not to say that declarative cultural knowledge is not derived from personal experience; however, the content of the knowledge refers to abstract and objective facts. Declarative cultural knowledge is information that can be retrieved from memory (activated) for specific purposes, but, on its own, is purpose-free. For example, the knowledge that a certain

culture is highly uncertainty avoidant can be activated to explain why people have so many insurances, or to predict the degree of codification in business negotiations. Declarative cultural knowledge can be used for multiple goals; however, it has to be contextualised and processed to be useful.

Procedural knowledge, on the other hand, is the "knowing how" about other cultures: How to behave in a novel social setting, how to communicate and discuss with other people, how to deal with the basics of life in other cultures. The most famous example of cultural procedural knowledge is the restaurant script (Bower, Black, & Turner, 1979): The knowledge about how to behave in restaurants, how places are found and taken, how food is ordered and eaten, and conventions of tipping varies tremendously across cultures. For example, in Germany guests choose their own table, and the waiter comes to them once they are seated to present the menu. Everyone chooses their food rather quietly and orders for themselves. Commencing the food is a joint activity involving a set phrase, and guests wait for each other to be served. Fork and knife are used for eating all the time and food is cut bit by bit as it is eaten. After the meal, every guest pays for their own food and drink, except if one group member invites others explicitly. The waiter receives a small tip from every individual guest, the tip depends on the waiter's service performance. In Britain, in contrast, guests wait to be seated. The waiter leads them to an appropriate table, often with the menu already in hand so guests receive it immediately when they arrive at the table. Guests discuss about their choices before ordering to reassure their choice is commensurate in price with other people's choices. Everyone orders for themselves. It is appropriate to start eating one's food when it arrives, without a set phrase. Food cutting and eating can separate activities. The fork is the preferred tool for eating. After the meal, one person heads the bill and divides the sum in equal parts for all guests. The waiter is tipped only once and receives a more generous tip, even for bad service performance.

These procedures are usually not learnt in a formal setting but through experience and observation. Thus, procedural cultural knowledge is likely more difficult to learn in intercultural trainings. The majority of intercultural trainings employ a conscious learning process in a formal learning setting. Pre-departure trainings, which are the most common training form, take place in the trainees' home country and can therefore not draw on the host culture environment to support procedural learning. Further, the learning process of

procedural cultural knowledge is implicit, often unconscious, and usually requires some exposure to a relevant setting.

All these factors together make it a challenge for intercultural training to evoke procedural learning. As the review of training effectiveness in chapter II has shown, especially trainings that do not contain experiential or behavioural elements often fail to yield such learning. However, the utility of procedural knowledge practical intercultural endeavours is so large that all efforts should be made to ensure that procedural learning is achieved, no matter what method of training is chosen.

Differences in learning development

Declarative learning

Both declarative and procedural learning are processes. However, these processes unfold in different ways over the course of training. Following ACT-R(Anderson et al., 2004; Anderson & Lebiere, 1998), declarative knowledge is the augmentation of factual knowledge, or chunks. This declarative learning is very fast. Its basic process is the creation of a new chunk of knowledge from a single internal or external stimulus and storing the chunk in the appropriate place in semantic memory; a process similar to creating a file and storing it in an existing folder (Eichenbaum & Cohen, 2001).

Declarative learning is facilitated if semantic relationships between old knowledge and new information can be found, so that associations between old and new chunks are built (Anderson, 1990). For intercultural training, this explains why declarative cultural knowledge is learnt more easily when contrasting home and host culture on specific dimensions, rather than presenting information only on the new culture.

Further and more importantly, declarative learning is depends on learning opportunity. Evidence from experiments using repetition priming showed that an increase in learning opportunity by repeating the information more often helped the acquisition of new declarative knowledge (Woltz & Shute, 1993). Thus, it is reasonable to assume a similar relationship in intercultural training. The learning of declarative cultural knowledge should be enhanced if more opportunities for such learning are offered, e.g. by repeating cultural information. The more opportunity an intercultural training

provides for new declarative knowledge to be learnt, the more knowledge is likely to be learnt.

Hypothesis 1: Declarative learning in intercultural training increases with learning opportunity.

For longitudinal training programmes, the absolute amount of cultural information provided increases from session to session. Therefore, the overall opportunity for declarative learning increases over time, too. Due to the dependence of declarative learning on learning opportunity, this implies that declarative knowledge should increase from session to session. For example, comparing two trainings of similar quality and content, but different duration, the longer training should evoke more declarative learning than the shorter training.

Hypothesis 2: Declarative learning in intercultural training increases from session to session.

Clinical research has shown that declarative learning, as a conscious learning process, makes extensive use of the working memory system (Kirasic, Allen, Dobson, & Binder, 1996). Therefore, it is subject to those influences and biases that affect working memory processes in general. Most notably, this pertains to the effect of recency.

As stated above, declarative learning is the acquisition of new knowledge chunks and their meaningful integration with existing knowledge. Logically, the easier this meaningful integration is, the higher the chance that this new knowledge is stored and retained, i.e. actually learnt, and not forgotten. The integration of new and existing knowledge is easier if the two are similar (Thorndike, 1901). Thus, the acquisition of new cultural knowledge is easier once some basic cultural knowledge has been obtained. Moreover, the sort of knowledge that is most important for integration is the knowledge that is most salient. Studies about the recency effect (see, for example, Anderson, 1990) have shown that recent knowledge is more easily recalled and more often used for cognitive tasks than older knowledge. For example, a recency effect has been shown in person categorization (Higgins, Rholes, & Jones, 1977) and social judgment (Srull & Wyer, 1980). In both areas, the information provided last about the person or social situation had the highest impact on the decision and categorisation.

This effect should also occur in intercultural learning. When learning to understand cultural differences (declarative learning), participants draw on their knowledge acquired in earlier sessions. The knowledge that has most recently been learnt is the one that is most likely to be used to integrate new knowledge. While older knowledge is probably still used for declarative learning at later stages, it is likely that the most recent knowledge is more important. Thus, in the long run, the most recently learnt declarative culture knowledge should mediate positive influences of knowledge learnt at earlier points of time.

> *Hypothesis 3: The influence of early declarative cultural learning on declarative learning at later stages is mediated by the most recently learnt declarative knowledge.*

Procedural learning

The process of procedural learning is fundamentally different from the process of declarative learning. While declarative cultural learning can be conceptualized as the accumulation and integration of knowledge about other cultures, procedural learning is based on a sequences of cognitive reorganization and procedure compilation (Willingham, 1998). Further, procedural learning, in contrast to declarative learning, is domain-specific - a procedure learnt for a specific purpose is of little use for other purposes. When learning a procedure, declarative knowledge chunks are re-arranged, associations are established, and chunks are combined in such a way that a set goal is achieved (Byrnes, 1992). In this sense, the process of procedural learning is much more complex than the relative simple acquisition and integration process of declarative learning. Consequently, it is much slower than declarative learning.

Procedural learning is based on two processes, production generalisation and discrimination. Generalisation is the transfer of a learnt production to a new domain. Once the transfer has been tried, feedback is obtained to see if the production could be usefully generalised to other domains or not. If it cannot be generalised, new productions for this domain have to be learnt as described above.

Discrimination comprises the differentiation between various procedures and the development of new procedures, which enables people to select the most appropriate procedure for a specific situation. Together, generalisation and discrimination are the

inductive components of procedural learning. Initially, the interpaly of these components produces inappropriate or incorrect productions, e.g., overgeneralisations, or useless discriminations (Shuell, 1986). A well-developed feedback mechanism is therefore relevant to inform learners about their errors and enable them to learn appropriate generalisations and discriminations.

Studies into language acquisition have shown that both processes, generalisation and discrimination, are used in sequence. Grammar learning, as a form of procedural learning, is achieved by generalisation of a "regular" grammatical rule to new words and sentences (Ullman, 2004). If feedback shows that this generalisation was not applicable, discrimination kicks in and a new grammatical rule is formed. This sequence is repeated until the errors of overgeneralisation and unnecessary discrimination are minimised (Taatgen & Anderson, 2002).

The following story gives an example of cultural procedural learning: Annika from Denmark goes to Morocco for a year to do social work. Anna is naïve about culture and therefore believes that behaving naturally, the way she would behave at home, is the best thing to do (over-generalisation). However, this behaviour might cause problems. Especially when Annika speaks her mind about upcoming decisions, her hosts seem offended or even angry (feedback). Annika decides to ask a friend what mistakes she made, and gets the answer that in Morocco, people show high respect to power differences and that her behaviour lacked this respect (feedback). Annika is grateful for this new information (declarative knowledge) and makes sure to leave decisions to others and show respect and devoutness in her general behaviour (over-discrimination). However, a few weeks later her friends asks her why she has become so distanced and shy (feedback). Talking to her friend, Annika discovers that her hosts welcome her to contribute to decisions, but not in a way that would be seen as questioning the authority of her bosses, family elders, and people who are in important positions. This feedback helps Annika to fine-tune her behaviour depending on whom she interacts with (appropriate discrimination) and enjoy her time in Morocco much more than before. She builds good relationships with many people (positive feedback).

Interestingly, when indexing the correctness of such sequences of such learning sequences, including overgeneralisation and over-discrimination, a u-shaped learning curve emerges. The downward slope coincides with the false application

(overgeneralisation) of regular rules to new settings. The upward slope signifies the discrimination process and gradual mastering of new norms and rules over time, until hardly any mistakes are made anymore (Taatgen & Anderson, 2002).

Such a learning curve is characteristic of procedural tasks for which a lot of cognitive effort is necessary (Taatgen & Wallach, 2002). In areas of procedural learning with less of a cognitive challenge, e.g., perceptomotoric learning, the learning curve is rather linear. Intercultural procedural learning, however, puts high demands on cognition rather than on sensor or motor activity. Therefore, it is likely that procedural cultural learning shows a u-shaped learning curve due to the interplay of generalisation and discrimination. At the onset of intercultural skills training, domestic skills are generalised and applied with limited success, with over-generalisation as the predominant type of mistake. As soon as more intercultural knowledge is acquired, attempts at forming new procedures for other cultures are made. However, these are not always appropriate.

Further, the process of discrimination is initially erroneous, too: In some situations, discriminations are formed based on the wrong criteria, or they are made in cases where they would not actually be necessary. With increased feedback about the correctness of newly built procedures, as well as ample cultural knowledge, trainees will ultimately be able to generalise and discriminate appropriately, resulting in a performance increase in intercultural skill.

Hypothesis 4: Procedural learning in intercultural training shows a u-curve development over time.

Interrelations between declarative and procedural learning

The above paragraphs have addressed structural and developmental differences between declarative and procedural cultural knowledge. However, relationships between both learning forms are still unclear and should be investigated. It would be of theoretical interest and practical relevance to know if either form of learning can occur independently of the other, or if they are necessarily co-occurring.

For the question whether declarative learning necessitates procedural learning, suggestions can be derived from previous evaluation studies of cognitive intercultural trainings. As discussed in chapter II, most cognitive trainings are targeted towards the

development of declarative knowledge. For example, area studies focus only on information-giving about a culture's historical background, social system and economic facets. In culture assimilators, the learning focuses on isomorphic attributions (Albert, 1983), meaning to recognise values, norms, and personal intentions correctly as they can be inferred from exhibited behaviour in other cultures. As outlined in the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge above, declarative knowledge on its own is not helpful for behavioural decisions and skiills because it does not include behaviour-producing components. Indeed, evaluation studies about the culture assimilators have shown that traditional culture assimilators, although effective for declarative learning, are not effective in raising behavioural competence (Bhawuk, 1995; Harrison, 1992). Therefore, it can be assumed that declarative cultural learning can occur without accompanying procedural learning.

However, singular occurrence of procedural cultural learning without declarative learning seems less likely. While no results exists about these relationships in the domain of intercultural learning, research in social skill learning consistently posits declarative learning as a necessary condition for procedural knowledge development (Kraiger, Ford, & Salas, 1993; Tracey, Hinkin, Tannenbaum, & Mathieu, 2001). Further, Willingham and colleagues (Willingham, Nissen, & Bullemer, 1989; Willingham, Salidis, & Gabrieli, 2002) have shown in various studies that procedural sensomotoric learning is usually accompanied by some declarative learning. In fact, the authors suggest that declarative and procedural learning could complement each other and maximise learning outcomes, even if targeted outcomes were procedural only (Willingham, 1998). This is also in line with ACT-R (Anderson & Lebiere, 1998),which conceptualises procedural learning as establishing links and networks between declarative knowledge chunks. Logically, these declarative knowledge chunks have to be created before links between them can be established.

A beneficial influence of declarative learning on procedural learning emerged also for other domains: In second-language learning, the learning process includes a shift from mainly declarative learning at the beginning towards mainly procedural learning once a certain level of language proficiency is achieved(Ullman, 2004). Similar results emerge from mathematics learning: Byrnes (1992) found that a high level of previous declarative knowledge can help the development of procedural knowledge in mathematics. Also

Rittle-Johnson and Alibali (1999) could show that declarative knowledge of mathematics had a greater influence on the development of procedural knowledge than the reverse.

The consistency of these effects across domains suggests similar relationships for intercultural learning: The presence of declarative cultural knowledge will facilitate subsequent procedural learning.

Hypothesis 5: Declarative knowledge attained in early training stages predicts procedural learning at later stages.

Subjective learning in intercultural training

As stated earlier, subjective learning is the perception of learning. Opposed to objective learning it is not based on absolute changes in cognitive structures but on individual perception and subjective experience of the learning process. Subjective learning is based on the feeling of knowing something. If this feeling of knowing something has increased over the course of learning or training activities, subjective learning has taken place.

Feeling of knowing is related to actual knowledge, but can systematically deviate from it (Reder & Ritter, 1992). Various studies have found that feeling of knowledge is based on other factors than actual knowledge, for example, positive or negative feedback and pace of learning (Koriat, Sheffer, & Ma'ayan, 2002).

While much research about the differences between objective and subjective learning has been conducted with children and in laboratory settings (Ryan & Deci, 2000), an empirical investigation of this relationship in an adult training setting is still scarce. This might be partly due to methodological difficulties in gathering multiple assessments of subjective and objective learning over a period of time. Yet it is also partly a theoretical problem in as much as predominant conceptions of adult training subsume the evaluation of subjective learning under the category of training reactions, not of learning (Brown, 2005; Warr et al., 1999). Conceptualising subjective and objective learning on different evaluation stages has the advantage that each of them is acknowledged on its own. However, it does not address the question of possible relationships or comparisons in the development of both forms of learning.

This lack of research is unfortunate, as available evidence suggests that the dissociation between subjective learning and objective learning is especially high for

complex learning activities. Specifically, in studies with undergraduate students, Metcalfe (1986) found a high dissociation between the two types of learning for tasks that were based on understanding a complex issue or solving problems. For simple recall questions, however, dissociation between objective and subjective learning was lower.

Intercultural learning is a very complex learning activity with high cognitive demands. Thus, the present study captures both objective and subjective learning. Specifically, it examines the development of subjective learning over the duration of intercultural training and contrasts this with the development of objective learning.

Subjective feeling of learning is influenced by various mnemonic, intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Mnemonic factors are cognitive factors, such as ease of recall of an knowledge chunk, ease of processing the chunk or familiarity with it (Reder & Ritter, 1992). Intrinsic factors concern the learning material itself: its interestingness, difficulty and novelty. Extrinsic factors can be differentiated into conditions of learning (e.g., duration of learning, number of representations) on the one hand, and encoding strategies (e.g., level of information processing, imagery, mental practice) on the other. These strategies are employed by learners themselves and can depend on learning instruction (Koriat, 1997).

Experimental research found that subjective learning increases with the duration of learning activities: The more time people spend on learning a subject, the higher they judge their competence in this subject (Mazzoni, Cornoldi, & Marchitelli, 1990). The dependence of learning outcome on learning time is a widely held implicit theory of learning (Koriat, 1997). Thus, it should also apply to intercultural learning: Subjective perception of learning should be proportional to the time spent on learning. In other words, the level of subjective learning in intercultural training depends on learning opportunity. Further, this implicit theory should hold for various kinds of learning, both declarative and procedural. Intercultural training providing much opportunity for declarative learning should yield higher ratings of subjective learning in declarative aspects about culture. But also, training providing many opportunities for procedural learning should result in higher ratings of subjective procedural learning. So, from the implicit theory that learning depends on learning opportunity, the following can be argued:

Hypothesis 6a: Training with many declarative learning opportunities results in higher levels of subjective declarative learning.

Hypothesis 6b: Training with many procedural learning opportunities results in higher levels of subjective procedural learning.

Furthermore, learning opportunity should impact on the development of subjective learning in similar ways as for objective learning. If training input remains constant over the training time, absolute learning opportunities show a steady increase. Given that relationship between learning opportunity and perceived learning upholds, this should lead to a steady increase in subjective learning over time, both in declarative and procedural aspects.

Hypothesis 7a: Subjective declarative learning in intercultural training shows a linear increase over the duration of the training.

Hypothesis 7b: Subjective procedural learning in intercultural training shows a linear increase over the duration of the training.

Personality and intercultural learning

Various studies have shown that personality is not only important for expatriates' performance and adjustment once they are abroad (Caligiuri, 2000a, 2000b), but can already predict success and learning in intercultural trainings prior to departure (Lievens et al., 2003). This has been discussed in detail in chapter III. Specific personality variables that are likely to play an influential role for learning in intercultural trainings are goal orientation (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996) and self efficacy (Bandura, 2002).

Goal orientation

Goal orientation originates from educational psychology. It suggests that individuals pursue goals in a non-random fashion that corresponds with their underlying orientation.

Specifically, two broad goal orientation can be differentiated: Learning goal orientation, meaning the pursuit of skill development and mastery of new situation, and performance goal orientation, which reflects the desire to demonstrate competence to others and be positively evaluated (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). The construct has then been refined to discriminate between performance-prove and performance-avoidance orientation, relating to either a focus on proving one's competence and earning recognition, or avoiding to show incompetence and earning negative feedback or critique(VandeWalle, 1997).

Motivation research has shown that goal orientation is a relatively stable disposition (Dweck, 1999). Button, Mathieu and Zajac (1996) concur that goal orientation is stable and evokes characteristic response pattern in individuals' behaviour. They also state that it might be influenced by certain situational features, but Brett and VandeWalle (1999) found that, even in situations where external goals are set, stable individual differences on goal orientation are present and important.

Goal orientation has been extensively researched regarding its antecedents and consequences. For the present study, previous research on goal orientation as a consistent influence on learning and training success is most important. In studies focussing on children in achievement situations, Dweck and colleagues (Dweck, Hong, & Chiu, 1993; Dweck & Leggett, 1988) have shown that goal orientation determines how individuals respond to task difficulty and failure. Specifically, individuals with a learning orientation showed higher persistence facing failure, adopted more complex learning strategies, and chose more difficult and challenging tasks than children with a performance goal orientation.

Similar effects have been proposed for adults (Button et al., 1996): A learning goal orientation should be conducive for the motivation to engage in learning, for learning performance, and for learning transfer. Various studies have confirmed the beneficial influence of learning goal orientation on training performance (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). For academic settings, empirical evidence of students in higher education has shown that learning goal orientation is consistently positively related to exam grades while performance orientation is a less reliable predictors of academic achievement and training success of adolescents (Diefendorff, 2004; Schober & Ziegler, 2002). Specifically, performance-prove orientation tends to impact positively to academic achievement, while

performance-avoidance orientation tends to show a negative impact (VandeWalle, Cron, & Slocum, 2001).

Further evidence has shown that goal orientation is a relevant concept also for intercultural learning. Gong (2003a) and Gong and Fan (2006) found that learning goal orientation is positively and performance goal orientation is negatively correlated with cross-cultural adjustment. Cross-cultural adjustment is one of the most important outcomes of intercultural learning, as it is the subjective perception of trainees how they are coping in another culture. The influence of goal orientations on this construct implies similar effects in the process of intercultural training, both in declarative and procedural aspects. However, performance-prove and performance-avoidance orientation will likely have opposite effects.

Hypothesis 8a: Learning goal orientation and performance-prove orientation relate positively to subjective and objective cultural learning.

Hypothesis 8b: Performance avoidance orientation relates negatively to subjective cultural learning.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is the core belief that one has the power to produce desired results (Bandura, 2000). Self-efficacy has been widely examined in training of domestic social skills. It has been shown to be both an outcome *and* a predictor of the process stages of immediate learning outcomes and training transfer (Gist, 1989; Holladay & Quinones, 2003; Morin & Latham, 2000; Quinones, 1995): Some studies showed that high self-efficacy had a positive impact on learning outcome and transfer; others showed that high learning outcome and good transfer had a positive impact on self-efficacy. An extensive study simulating air traffic controller training found that self-efficacy is an effective predictor of learning, especially at early stages of the learning process (Mitchell, Hopper, Daniels, George-Falvy, & al, 1994). A longitudinal study of a flight simulation training found that self-efficacy was indeed a predictor of performance, but that this effect was mediated via the kind of goals trainees choose in their task and the effort they put into pursuing these goals (Chen, Thomas, & Wallace, 2005). Self-efficacy was also the only motivational construct to facilitate performance results in mathematics of adolescents (Pajares & Graham, 1999). All

these studies suggest that self-efficacy is an important facilitator for objective declarative and procedural learning of complex tasks.

Further, self-efficacy is conceptually related to subjective learning. The perception of learning something, or one's judgment about learning, is closely tied to overarching beliefs about one's abilities and competencies, as measured by general self-efficacy.

Besides its positive relationship with learning, self-efficacy has proven a valuable predictor of cross-cultural adjustment and academic performance. For professional expatriates, social self efficacy has shown a positive direct predictor for cultural adjustment (Harrison et al., 1996). Gong and Fan(2006) found that social and academic self-efficacy were positively related to social and academic adjustment of undergraduates going abroad for their study. Academic adjustment, in turn, predicted objective academic performance.

In summary, these results indicate that high self-efficacy facilitates intercultural learning, both in objective and subjective terms.

Hypothesis 9: High self-efficacy is positively related to objective and subjective learning.

Methods

Participants and procedure

Participants were 69 second-year undergraduate students. They were enrolled in business and/or language degrees that comprised a one-year international placement, either working in a business or education environment, or studying abroad. The large majority of students in these programmes complete their placements Germany and France, due to language requirements of their studies. Participation was completely voluntary and not related to any course requirements or course credits. The training was held approximately four to six months prior to the international placement. All participants were briefed extensively about the scientific study involved in the training and agreed that their data be used for scientific purposes. Personal data gathered in addition to training data were

age, gender, and grade point average of their academic performance of their current year of study.

Participants were randomly assigned to one of two training conditions: The single-mode training ($n = 33$), featuring only a declarative learning goal, asked participants to recognise cultural differences correctly and explain "strange" behaviour of foreigners correctly in terms of their cultural values, norms and practices. The concurrent training ($n = 36$) had declarative and procedural learning goals. It alternated in the instruction between requested students to explain cultural differences, like in the single-mode training, or respond to a cultural dilemma with their own behavioural strategies and creative solutions that were appropriate from the foreigner's perspective.

Both trainings comprised three sessions of approximately 90 minutes. Sessions consisted of critical incidents of cross-cultural encounters between British students and French or German nationals. Participants had to rate four possible answers for each incident on a scale from 1 = 'not at all applicable' to 7 = 'very highly applicable'. The correct answer had previously been identified by a panel of French or German students. The design of both trainings is described in detail in chapter IV.

Measures

Objective learning

For each training session, declarative and procedural knowledge about cultural differences was measured with a correctness index as described in chapter IV. For the computation of learning scores of trainees, baseline item difficulty as calculated in a pilot study was subtracted from individual item scores for all incidents (for a description of the pilot study and baseline difficulties see chapter IV).Then learning scores were averaged for all declarative items and separately for all procedural items in each training session.

Subjective learning

Subjective learning scores were derived from perceived competence ratings students reported when rehearsing contents of the three training sessions. Students were asked to

rate their perceived actual competency to a) understand and recognize cultural differences, and b) handle cultural differences in everyday life. These ratings were averaged into subjective measures of declarative and procedural learning for each session.

Goal orientation

Goal orientation was measured using 13 items adapted from Van de Walle (1997). The dimensions of goal orientation captured with these items were learning orientation and two facets of performance orientation: Performance-prove orientation and performance-avoidance orientation. Answer scales ranged from 1 = "completely disagree" to 5 = "completely agree". Internal consistencies were acceptable: learning goal orientation (9 items, α = .81), performance avoidance orientation (4 items, α = .76), performance prove orientation (4 items, α = .81).

Self-efficacy

Self efficacy was assessed with a 17-item scale from Harrison, Chadwick and Scales(1996). The items measured general self-efficacy on a Likert scale from 1= "strongly disagree" to 6 "strongly agree" and revealed good internal consistency (α = .80).

Results

Methodical considerations and checks

Randomization

Before making hypothesis tests, systematic differences between participants assigned to the training groups were tested for. Training groups did not differ in age ($m_{single-mode}$ = 19.63 years, $m_{concurrent}$ = 19.89 years, $t(67)$ = -1.33, p = n.s.), grade point average ($m_{single-mode}$ = 59.55, $m_{concurrent}$ = 59.40, $t(38)$ = .08, p = n.s.), or gender distribution ($\chi^2(1,46)$ = .63, p = n.s.). Participants in both training groups had comparable average scores on all personality scales (all t's < 1.55, p's > .13).

Drop-out and sample size

Despite efforts to fit all students' timetables and work schedules, some students dropped out of the training after the first or second session. A table of dropout and completion numbers is given in Appendix 5. Average dropout was 16.5 percent per session and did not differ significantly between trainings or sessions ($\chi^2 = .45$, $p =$ n.s). As a result, complete training data are available only for 23 participants of the single-mode and 25 participants of the concurrent training. For the hypothesis tests on learning development, only complete datasets were used. A missing data analysis of learning development and personality scales revealed no systematic pattern, indicating that, statistically speaking, training dropout took place at random (Little's MCAR test: $\chi^2(67) = 74.505$, $p =$ n.s.).

Normality of scales

All scales were analysed for their univariate normality across all training participants. All scales showed univariate normality except learning orientation, which had exceptionally high skew. However, scale transformation showed no substantial improvement, so the original scale was retained. Descriptive statistics of scales are given in Appendix 6.

Relationships between scales.

Correlations between all measures are shown in Table 1.

Table 5.1: *Descriptives and Correlations*

Variables	M	SD	1[a]	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Training group			—	-.53***	-.21†	-0.25	b	b	b	-.25†	-.23	-.29†
2. Objective Declarative learning 1	.76	.91		—	.41***	.49*	.30	.09	.44**	.30*	.31*	.44*
3. Objective Declarative learning 2	1.62	.88			—	.78***	.38†	-.33	.60***	.20	.27†	.49**
4. Objective Declarative learning 3	1.90	.97				—	.36†	-.02	.67**	.09	.32*	.51***
5. Objective Procedural learning 1	1.03	.70					—	-.21	57***	-.01	.13	.35†
6. Objective Procedural learning 2	-.16	.93						—	-.27	-.04	.01	-.02
7. Objective Procedural learning 3	1.01	.99							—	.07	.40*	.60**
8. Subjective Declarative learning 1	5.18	.77								—	.67***	.56***
9. Subjective Declarative learning 2	5.24	.74									—	.74***
10. Subjective Declarative learning 3	5.44	.80										—
11. Subjective Procedural learning 1	4.77	.90										
12. Subjective Procedural learning 2	4.82	.83										
13. Subjective Procedural learning 3	5.08	.88										

Table 5.1: *Correlations cont'd.*

Variables	14	15	16	17
1. Training group	.27†	-.15	-.18	-.05
2. Objective Declarative learning 1	.13	.23	.20	-.14
3. Objective Declarative learning 2	.02	.04	-.08	-.07
4. Objective Declarative learning 3	.02	-.01	-.08	-.03
5. Objective Procedural learning 1	.28	-.24	-.35†	.12
6. Objective Procedural learning 2	-.34†	.01	.16	-.13
7. Objective Procedural learning 3	.06	-.03	-.05	-.04
8. Subjective Declarative learning 1	.14	.35*	.32*	.15
9. Subjective Declarative learning 2	-.02	.06	.21	.23
10. Subjective Declarative learning 3	-.11	-.03	-.05	.01
11. Subjective Procedural learning 1	.14	.12	.24	.04
12. Subjective Procedural learning 2	.09	-.10	.14	.30*
13. Subjective Procedural learning 3	-.10	-.05	-.09	.10
14. General self-efficacy	—	.25†	.05	.03
15. Learning orientation		—	.62***	.15
16. Perf. prove orientation			—	.47***
17. Perf. avoidance orientation				—

Notes. ª Correlations in this column are non-parametric. Singe-mode training was coded 1, concurrent training was coded 2. ᵇ Cannot be computed because only measured in the concurrent training.

† p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001

Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis tests are reported in three steps. First, results pertaining to objective intercultural learning (hypotheses 1-5) are reported. Then, results for subjective learning (hypotheses 6-7) are reported, before the final section focuses on the role of personality characteristics (hypotheses 8-9).

Objective declarative and procedural learning

Training effects. According to Hypothesis 1, declarative intercultural learning depends on learning opportunity. This should lead to higher declarative learning the more learning opportunity is offered. This hypothesis was tested in by a comparison of declarative learning in the single-mode training with declarative learning in the concurrent training. The two trainings differed in the amount of incidents with a declarative learning goal. Specifically, the single-mode training offered twice as many incidents for declarative learning as the concurrent training. Thus, declarative learning should differ between training types.

Training type effects on differences in knowledge for each session were tested with linear hierarchical regression analysis. Declarative knowledge for session 1 was regressed on training type. To control for previous knowledge effects on later sessions, declarative knowledge for session 2 and 3 was regressed first on training type, then also on knowledge from previous session(s). Previous procedural knowledge in the concurrent training was not controlled for as there were no significant correlations of procedural learning with subsequent declarative learning. Results of this analysis are presented in Table 2.

Table 5.2: *Regression Analysis for Training type effects on Declarative Knowledge*

			Declarative Learning in Session 1				Declarative Learning in Session 2				Declar
Model	Step	Variable	β	R^2	Δ R^2	ΔF(df)	β	R^2	Δ R^2	ΔF(df)	β
1	1	Training[a]	-.50 ***	.25		15.59 (1,46) ***	-.24†	.06	.06	2.80 (1,46)†	-.27†
2	1	Session 1					.41**	.17		9.41 (1,46)**	
	2	Session 1					.39*	.17	.00	.08 (1,45)	
		Training					-.04				
3	1	Session 1									.49***
	2	Session 1									.21*
		Session 2									.69***
	3	Session 1									.21*
		Session 2									.69***
		Training									.01

Note. [a] Influence of training type. Single-mode training was coded 1, concurrent training was coded 2.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Results show that training type had a significant influence on declarative learning in the way that participants in the single-mode training developed more declarative knowledge about other cultures than participants in the concurrent training. Specifically, the relationship of learning in session 1 with training type ($\beta = -.50$) mirrors the difference in learning opportunities given in each training type. For the second and third session, previous learning becomes the more important predictor. When controlling for previous knowledge, training type augments the explained variance only marginally.

These results are in harmony with hypothesis 1 about the dependence of learning on learning opportunity. However, they also show that this dependence is most striking at the beginning of the training when students are still in a novice status. Once they have gathered some knowledge, learning opportunity becomes less relevant for successive learning while previous learning becomes increasingly important.

Hypothesis 2 stated that declarative learning should show a linear increase over time. To test this, a repeated-measures MANOVA was conducted. In a repeated measures MANOVA, the focus of the analysis lies in within-subject changes across measures, e.g. in the development of knowledge over time. Learning scores in the three online sessions served as indicator of knowledge development over time. A constant effect, indicating stability of knowledge over time, a linear effect, indicating steady growth, and a quadratic effect, which would indicate learning increase in a non-linear fashion (Duncan, Strycker, & Duncan, 1999) were tested for in the repeated-measures MANOVA procedure in SPSS.

For this analysis, learning scores were submitted to an orthogonal polynomial transformation. Data showed sphericity (Mauchy's $W = .77$, $\chi^2 = 11.94$, $p < .01$), therefore the Greenhouse-Geisser correction was used for further analyses. Multivariate F was significant ($F = 44.97$, $p < .001$), indicating a general change in learning across sessions. Within-subject contrasts showed a high constant effect ($F(1,47) = 291.97$, $p < .001$), which means that participants did have a considerable significant baseline knowledge. Furthermore, the linear effect was highly significant ($F(1,47) = 30.95$, $p < .001$), indicating that declarative knowledge showed a linear increase over time. However, also the quadratic effect, corresponding to a curvilinear development of declarative knowledge, though much smaller than the linear effect, became significant ($F(1,47) = 2.64$, $p > .01$).

The high linear effect confirms hypothesis 2 about the development of declarative learning. The non-linear effect was unpredicted. Figure 1 gives an illustration of the development of declarative learning, growing from session to session with a slight bulge at session 2.

Development of Declarative Knowledge
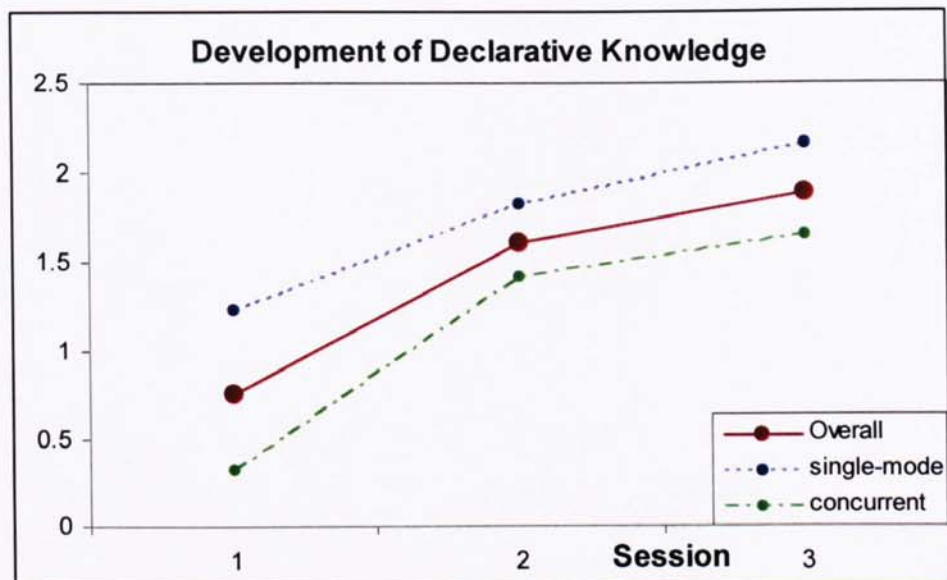
Figure 5.1: Development of declarative knowledge over time.

Hypothesis 3 addressed the relevance of previous declarative knowledge for learning in consecutive sessions. It was hypothesised that the most recently learnt knowledge should mediate the influence of prior knowledge on successive learning. This hypothesis could be tested for as the necessary precondition, linear development over time, had been found. Hypothesis 3 was tested with a mediation analysis.

Two different approaches to test for mediation are in use today: A regression-based approach as described by Baron and Kenny (1986) and a structural equation modelling approach as devised by James and Brett (1984). Although these two approaches have many assumptions in common, they differ on some basic assumptions about the data structure and nature of mediation (Schneider, Ehrhart, Mayer, Saltz, & Niles-Jolly, 2005). Most important in this case are differences in the baseline model for mediation: The Baron and Kenny approach requires a significant relationship between independent variable and dependent variable before mediation can be tested for, which is equivalent to a presumed baseline model of partial mediation. The SEM approach, in contrast, employs

a baseline model of full mediation, in which no direct relationship between independent and dependent variable is expected. This method is advised when examining distal mediation processes in which independent and dependent variable have only weak theoretical and temporal links (Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

In this study, the traditional regression-analytic test of mediation was employed for three reasons: a) the expected effect is equivalent to a partial mediation model; b) the temporal lag between sessions was rather small; and c) there is a theoretical argument to assume that the influence of prior learning might decrease, but not completely vanish when taking into account more recently attained knowledge.

Correlations in Table 5.1 show that the three variables in question are correlated as required. Additionally to this, Baron and Kenney (1986) propose three conditions: First it must be shown that learning in session 1 predicted learning in session 3, which was the case (β= .49, $t(1,47)$= 3.85, $p < .001$). Second it had to be demonstrated that learning in session 2 predicted learning in session 3, which was also satisfied (β= .78, $t(1,47)$= 8.34, $p <$ .001). Finally, it was necessary to show that the relationship between learning in session 1 and session three is eliminated or substantially attenuated when the effect of learning in session 2 is controlled for. For this purpose, learning in session 3 was first regressed on learning in session 1, and then regressed on learning in sessions 1 and 2 simultaneously. An overview of the results is given in table 3.

Table 5.3: *Mediation Analysis for Declarative Learning*

Step	Variable	Declarative learning session 2				Declarative learning session 3			
		β	R^2	ΔR^2	$\Delta F(df)$	β	R^2	ΔR^2	$\Delta F(df)$
1	Decl. learning 1	.41**	.17		9.41 (1,46) **	.49***	.24		14.79 (1,46) ***
2	Decl. learning 2					.69***	.64	.40	49.08 (1,45) ***
	Decl. learning 1					.21*			

*p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

For the proposed mediation, the influence of learning in session 1 was substantially reduced, but still significant when learning in session 2 was entered. A Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) carried out for this mediation resulted in an Aroian z-value of .10, $p >.10$, indicating no full mediation. These results corroborate the hypothesis of a

that most recent declarative learning has the highest influence on subsequent declarative learning. However, they also show that older declarative knowledge is still influential for subsequent declarative learning.

After the hypotheses about declarative learning were tested, development of procedural intercultural learning was examined next. Hypothesis 4 proposed a curvilinear development of procedural learning over time. As for hypothesis 2, this was analysed with a repeated-measures MANOVA with polynomial transformation of learning scores that tested for constant, linear, and quadratic effects. As with declarative learning, data showed sphericity (Mauchy's $W = .61$, $\chi^2 = 11.25$, $p < .01$) and Greenhouse-Geisser corrected scores were used.

The multivariate effect was highly significant ($F = 14.91$; $p < .001$), and again a large constant effect emerged ($F(1,24) = 24.43$, $p < .001$), indicating that participants had a considerable knowledge already in the first session. Opposed to the results for declarative knowledge, no significant linear effect emerged ($F(1,24) = .01$, $p = $ n.s). Instead, the quadratic effect became highly significant ($F(1,24) = 19.09$, $p < .001$). Figure 5.2 shows the development of procedural learning over time.
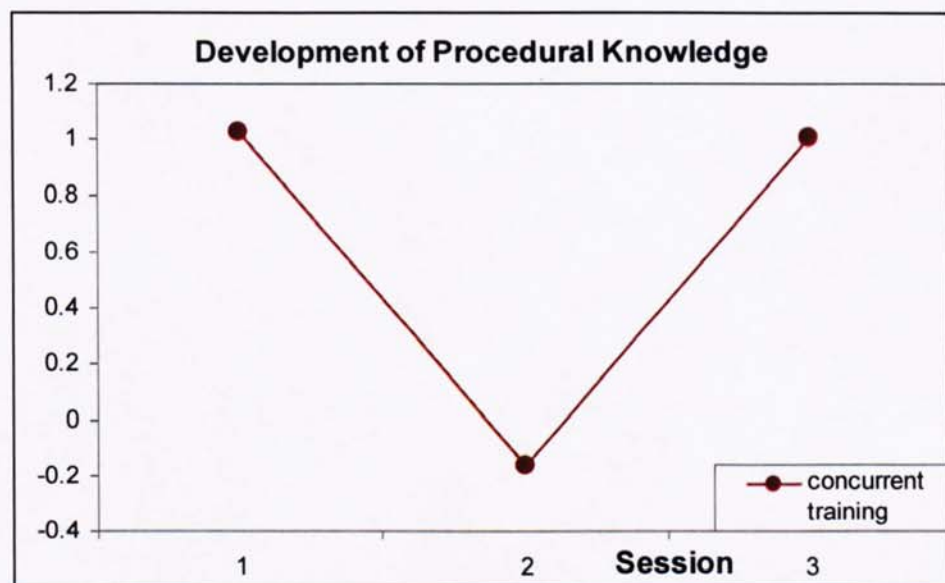
Figure 5.2: Development of procedural learning over time (concurrent training only)

These results are in line with the hypothesised development, as they indicate a curvilinear development of procedural knowledge over time: participants undergo a "dip" in their performance on procedural incidents in session 2 before their performance rises steeply again in session 3.

To summarise, the results obtained so far mostly confirmed the hypotheses. They show that declarative and procedural learning have very different trajectories. While declarative knowledge mostly shows a linear development and increases from session to session, procedural knowledge clearly decreases before rising again at the end of the training. They also show that declarative learning is a stepwise process that profits from knowledge acquired in earlier stages.

At this point, the relationships between declarative and procedural learning were examined. Hypothesis 5 stated that declarative learning should have a beneficial influence for subsequent procedural knowledge. This was tested with a regression analysis of declarative learning on subsequent procedural learning. The procedure was similar to the approach taken for hypothesis 3, with prior procedural learning serving as control. An overview of the results is given in table 5.4.

Table 5.4: *Mediation of Procedural Learning by Declarative Learning*

Step	Variable	Procedural learning session 2				Procedural learning session 3			
		β	R^2	ΔR^2	$\Delta F(df)$	β	R^2	ΔR^2	$\Delta F(df)$
1	Proc. learning 1	-.21	.04		1.02 (1,23)	.57**	.32		10.98 (1,23)**
2	Proc. learning 1	-.26	.07	.03	.57 (1,22)	.48*	.40	.08	2.90 (1,22)†
	Decl. learning 1	.16				.30†			
3	Proc. learning 1					.29†	.60	.20	10.15 (1,21)***
	Decl. learning 1					.34*			
	Decl. learning 2					.48**			

† $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

The results show that procedural learning in the final session was positively influenced by declarative learning in both prior sessions. Interestingly, the influence of declarative learning in the first session was not diminished when declarative learning in session 2 was entered. On the contrary, it was the influence of procedural learning in session 1 that was lowered. These results corroborate the hypothesis that declarative

learning facilitates procedural learning and does so independently of how long ago this declarative learning took place. This result is in unison with findings from learning in cognitive and sensomotoric domains.

Subjective declarative and procedural learning

The next set of analyses pertains to subjective learning scores. According to lay theories about learning and competence development, people believe that their level of learning increases with the time they spend on learning activities, permitting their effort and the difficulty of the task remains stable (Koriat, 1997). Thus, it was hypothesized that the subjective perception of learning, both in declarative and procedural aspects, depends on the amount of learning opportunity. As all three sessions in both trainings were of approximately the same length, subjective learning should show a linear development over sessions.

Further, possible differences between the training types were explored because learning opportunity for declarative and procedural learning varied between single-mode and concurrent training. The concurrent training provided an equal amount of learning opportunities for declarative and procedural learning. The single-mode training provided twice as many opportunities for declarative learning, but no opportunities for procedural learning.

To test the development of subjective learning over time and level differences in between trainings, a repeated-measures MANOVA was employed. The three sessions served again as within-subject factor. Training type was added as between-subject factor.

For this analysis, learning scores were submitted to an orthogonal polynomial transformation. Multivariate effects for training (Hotelling's $T^2 = .27$ $F_{(4,41)} = 2.76$, $p < .05$) and time (Pillai's $T^2 = .11$, $F_{(4,176)} = 2.61$, $p < .05$) were significant, although the interaction term was not. Data for both declarative (Mauchy's $W = .89$, $\chi^2 = 5.25$, $p < .07$) and procedural learning (Mauchy's $W = .77$, $\chi^2 = 11.21$, $p < .01$) showed sphericity, therefore a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was used for univariate analyses.

Both declarative ($F_{(2,41)} = 4.17$, $p < .05$) and procedural learning ($F_{(2,41)} = 4.68$, $p < .01$) showed change over time.

Specifically, the predicted linear effect emerged for both learning types ($F(1,44) =$ 5.47, $p < .05$, resp. $F(1,44)=5.76$, $p < .05$). Curvilinear effects were not significant. Pairwise comparisons of means for each session showed that for declarative learning the difference from session 1 to session 3 ($\delta = .26$, $p < .05$) and session 2 to 3 ($\delta = .22$, $p < .05$) were significant. Similarly, subjective procedural learning showed differences between session 1 and 3 ($\delta = .34$, $p < .05$) and 2 and 3 ($\delta = .29$, $p < .01$). Changes from session 1 to 2 were not significant for either learning domain.

For training type as between-subjects variable, pairwise comparisons revealed that participants of the single-mode training rated their declarative learning as higher than participants of concurrent training ($\delta = .42$, $p < .05$). No difference between training types emerged for perceived procedural learning.

Figure 5.3 below shows the development of subjective learning over time.
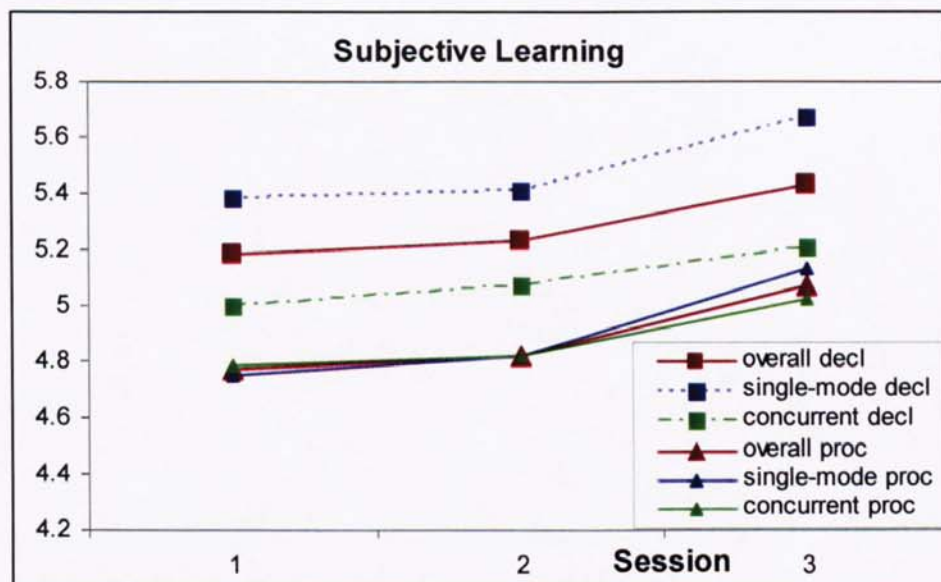
Figure 5.3: Subjective declarative and procedural learning over time.

Personality and intercultural learning

The third area of interest in this study was personality. As previous studies on goal orientation and self-efficacy have shown, these variables are important influences on objective and subjective learning in various areas. Thus, their influence on intercultural training was examined.

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Hypothesis 8 stated that goal orientation should be related to subjective and objective learning. Controlling for training type, correlations showed that learning goal orientation was related to subjective declarative learning in the first training session ($r = .35; p < .05$). Also, performance prove orientation correlated with subjective declarative learning ($r = .34; p < .05$) and slightly also with subjective procedural learning ($r = .28; p < .10$), both in session 1. Contrary to the hypothesis, performance avoidance goal orientation positively correlated with perceived procedural learning in session 1 ($r = .30; p < .05$). Overall, no relationship between goal orientation and objective learning emerged.

In parallel to results of learning in other domains, hypothesis 9 suggested that general self-efficacy is positively related to objective and subjective intercultural learning. This hypothesis was tested for both declarative and procedural learning measures controlling for training group. General self-efficacy correlated with objective declarative learning in session 1 ($r = .31; p < .05$), but not with other learning measures. Exploratory tests of self-efficacy as a moderator of the relationship between objective and subjective declarative learning yielded no further results.

Discussion

In line with the structure adopted in the literature review in this chapter, findings will be discussed separately for objective learning, subjective learning, and effects of personality variables before addressing limitations of this study and suggesting avenues for further research.

Objective learning

By and large, hypotheses about objective declarative and procedural learning were confirmed by the results of this study.

In both trainings, objective declarative learning showed an incremental development, increasing continuously from the first session to the second and third session. Procedural learning measured in the concurrent training showed a curved development with a dip in the middle.

Further, two interesting characteristics of declarative learning were discovered. First, declarative learning depends on learning opportunity, especially at the onset of the learning process. Second, the development of declarative learning is such that the most recently learnt information is the most important predictor of further declarative learning.

Together, these findings hint at fundamental differences and interesting relationships between the two kinds of learning. While declarative knowledge can be learnt through adding new information to already existing information, procedural knowledge involves a substantial re-categorisation of cognitive structures in order to integrate new information with existing knowledge. As analyses failed to reveal a linear effect for procedural knowledge, it could not be ascertained that participants achieved a quantitative increase in procedural knowledge at the end of the training than in the first session. However, the curvilinear effect shows that definitely a qualitative increase in procedural knowledge occurred.

This finding is in line with conceptualisations of procedural learning as a process prone to errors of over-generalisation and over-discrimination. In early learning stages, errors can be so large and numerous that they negatively affect on net procedural skill performance, resulting in an initial performance decrease. Yet, over time errors will be minimised and performance gains unfold. Research in motor skills has shown that the gain of procedural performance is very slow and heavily relies on timing and feedback (Anderson et al., 2004), suggesting that training duration is a crucial factor. It is likely that, had the present training been longer, participants would have shown slow but robust increments in procedural learning over time.

The results also show two important characteristics of declarative learning: Firstly, declarative learning depends on learning opportunity. The more opportunity training provides for declarative learning, the more declarative learning actually occurs. However, this effect diminished over training sessions, so that, in the last session, the influence of learning opportunity per se became less important than the actual level of cultural knowledge obtained in early sessions. Learning opportunity is more influential when a topic is new and the learner has little prior knowledge. The more cultural knowledge a learner has, the less learning opportunity plays a role in future learning.

In summary, this suggests that for cultural novices, training design has a major impact on the amount of declarative knowledge that trainees will learn. Over time,

however, the mere presence of learning opportunity cannot guarantee for learning: Ultimate declarative learning depends more on the transformation of learning opportunity into actual knowledge which participants can utilise,

Another interesting aspect of these findings is that participants in the concurrent training, who had opportunity for procedural learning but less opportunity for declarative learning achieved the same end levels in declarative knowledge as participants in the traditional training.

Two theoretical explanations for this finding should be discussed. First, the procedural knowledge participants developed enabled them to draw synergies and use their procedural knowledge to develop declarative knowledge more rapidly. This is in line with observations regarding children's learning of mathematical skills (Rittle-Johnson, Siegler, & Alibali, 2001) and fits well with the finding that declarative learning in early training sessions had a large effect on procedural learning at later training stages.

Second, participants in the concurrent training applied more meta-cognitive self-regulatory strategies that enabled them to learn "smarter" than participants in the traditional training. This explanation is supported by research into highly stimulating learning environments and self-regulated learning (Boekaerts, Pintrich, & Zeidner, 2000).

However, these explanations are not mutually exclusive, so the "smarter" learning of participants in the modified training could be due to both mechanisms.

In summary, participants in concurrent have an advantage over participants in traditional training because they profit from their declarative cultural learning to attain cultural skills. It would be interesting to investigate in future studies how this smarter learning of participants in the concurrent training is actually achieved, and how synergies between declarative and procedural learning can be maximised. This could have important implications for the practical design of intercultural trainings to enhance their effectiveness.

Subjective learning

Results for subjective learning were in concordance with hypotheses derived from lay theories of learning. Both declarative and procedural subjective learning showed a linear development over time, indicating that participants felt a general knowledge increase

from session to session. Further, differences in learning opportunity for declarative knowledge between single-mode and concurrent training were mirrored in participants' perceptions of their declarative knowledge. The single-mode training provided more learning opportunity, and consequently participants perceived higher declarative learning than in the concurrent training.

These results strengthen the assumption of an implicit theory that learning depends on learning opportunity. Similar results have already been shown in learning experiments for vocabulary lists and behaviour (Koriat, Ma'ayan, & Nussinson, 2006) . It seems that cultural learning is a similar process to learning in other domains.

However, a possible alternative explanation for the increase in subjective perception of learning over time should be mentioned. The assessment of subjective learning was similar in all three sessions, making participants increasingly familiar with the assessment format. Previous studies have shown that subjective feelings of knowing are, in some instances, more influenced by the familiarity of the question than by the actual knowledge of the answer (Reder & Ritter, 1992; Schwartz & Metcalfe, 1992).

It might be argued that the increase in subjective learning ratings does not so much reflect trainees' familiarity with the training content but rather with the format of assessment. However, this explanation seems unlikely as the subjective learning assessment in this study was very much concerned with general cultural competency, not simple knowledge retrieval. Participants were asked to decide about their competence to understand or behave appropriately in a foreign culture; they were not asked to remember specific knowledge chunks or procedures. The process leading up to a decision on how to answer subjective learning questions should therefore contain a reflection of trainees' learning process rather than a memory search for the correct answer. Therefore the familiarity bias observed in previous experiments is likely very weak here.

Further, the relatively long duration of the training also speaks against such an explanation. Pacing adult training over a longer period of time resulted in less subjective learning than massed training in a short period of time. However, the opposite effect was found for objective learning (Simon & Bjork, 2001). These findings imply that the longitudinal character of the present intercultural training would counteract subjective perceptions of learning. Taking this effect of training design into account, the present

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ratings are rather an under- than overestimation of subjective learning and the observed increase in subjective learning over time gains even higher validity.

Personality and learning

Finally, this chapter also examined personality influences on intercultural learning. However, results about the role of personality are rather inconclusive. Only in the very first training session, general self-efficacy was related to objective declarative learning. Evidence for the hypothesised relationships of goal orientation with learning were only found for subjective learning, and also mostly at the beginning of the training. This is in contrast to findings in domestic training settings, in which self-efficacy and goal orientation have proven consistently good predictors of learning (see Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001, for a review).

The present findings suggest that the role of personality characteristics for intercultural learning is not stable, but depends on the duration of a training activity and/or prior intercultural knowledge. Personality characteristics like self-efficacy and goal-orientation, similar to learning opportunity, might have a bigger influence on initial learning, but in following sessions, it could be that intrinsic factors (actual intercultural knowledge, intrinsic motivation) that become more important. This implies that in longitudinal trainings, personality variables are less important predictors. Moreover, tentative evidence exists for a negative long-term effect of personality variables that are argued to enhance learning in the short term: In a longitudinal study, Cao and Nietfield (2005) showed that a very high self-efficacy hampered the accuracy of personal judgments of college students about their learning progress. Thus, while self-efficacy might have an initial positive influence on the perceived level subjective learning, the match between subjective and objective learning is higher for people with less extreme self-efficacy. Therefore future research should address the complex relationships of self-efficacy, goal orientation and intrinsic variables on learning outcomes over the course of even longer intercultural trainings.

Future research should also take into account the most recent developments regarding goal orientation. The construct of goal orientation has received further scrutiny, and the area of learning orientation has been the subject to a similar differentiation into

approach and avoidance focus (van Dam, 2006). Such a learning avoidance focus might, for example, be triggered by effects of social desirability in children and youths ("knowing too much is not cool"), thus impeding maximal learning outcome. It would be interesting to investigate if such a learning-avoidance orientation exists in the domain of intercultural learning, and if differential relationships of the two learning goal orientations emerge in intercultural training.

Further, the role of goal orientation should be explored in self-directed intercultural training settings, where trainees can repeat training units as often as they want or quit the training at any point once they feel they have learnt enough. The current training was designed in line with a programmed learning approach: Participants did not have much choice how much training they wanted to receive, they were instructed to always complete the whole training session and couldn't repeat single sessions.

Experimental research on self-paced training has shown that learners continuously monitor the increase in encoding strength that occurs as more time is spent in training. They cease to study when a desired level of strength has been attained (Dunlosky & Hertzog, 1998). This finding implies a link of goal orientation with subjective and objective learning in cases where trainees have decision power over their learning activities. Trainees with a learning-goal orientation should set a higher level for their desired strength of encoding, whilst performance-goal oriented trainees should set the desired level of encoding strength at just the level necessary to perform well (or avoid performing poorly). Due to these differences, participants with a learning goal should attain a higher level of encoding strength before they quit their training efforts. Ultimately, comparing such findings of self-paced trainings to the results in this chapter might reveal important points for the choice of self-paced or pre-defined training formats.

Limitations

This study has various limitations that are mostly due to the design of the training and the availability of data. An obvious limitation is the absence of an explicit baseline measures for declarative and procedural knowledge prior to the training. While it could be argued that all participants, due to their equal education level, would be comparably knowledgeable about cultural differences and competent to cope with different cultures,

no explicit learning test was made. Thus, it could be the case that cultural competence of participants in the single-mode training was systematically higher than of participants in concurrent training (or vice versa). This would have an impact on the interpretation of the effectiveness of the two trainings compared to each other. This omission mostly affects the validity of results pertaining to learning opportunity (i.e., training type differences in declarative knowledge): These effects could also be explained by baseline differences in cultural experience or other relevant competencies. However, randomization checks revealed that the training groups were comparable in all aspects hinting at such baseline differences (gender, age, GPA, target country, personality characteristics). GPA data, in particular, should be related to cultural competence, as cultural knowledge and language was an integral part of students' curricula. Due to the fact that no differences in any of these variables emerged, systematic baseline differences in prior cultural competence are relatively unlikely.

Another possible limitation that should be discussed is an experimenter effect on participants' learning. The training was designed, conducted and evaluated by the same person who also developed the hypotheses. The author had repeated interaction with many participants prior to and during the training. However, trainer influences were minimized by choosing an online delivery format and by being unaware of which participant received which training type when communicating with them – even after the training. Nevertheless, it is theoretically possible that differential training effects are due to other differences between the two training types that were not intended and that the author is unaware of.

The generalisation of the present findings is limited by three aspects. First, complete data were available only from 48 participants; therefore statistic estimates might be overly conservative. Especially in regard to the role of personality for intercultural learning, a bigger sample might have provided more meaningful insights.

Second, most students in this study were British. As reviewed in chapter III, cultures differ in their preferred learning styles (De Vita, 2001). This implies that the same trainings, provided to students in other cultures, could yield slightly lower learning outcomes, especially in cultures that have less preferences for case-based instruction than Ango-American cultures (Yamazaki, 2005). Thus, similar studies in other cultures are necessary to consolidate the present findings.

Finally, generalisation of these results to a professional expatriate population is debatable. Although Deshpande, Joseph and Visvesvaran (1994) argue that the use of student samples rather under-estimates than over-estimates the effects of intercultural training, sample homogeneity and controlled experimental design make this study quite different from most expatriate research. Furthermore, expatriate professionals differ from students in the duration, purpose, and locations of their assignments. Therefore these findings should be transferred to other populations or countries only with great care.

Conclusion and outlook

This chapter has focussed on the learning processes that occurred in the first phase of ITIP. Results of this chapter show how objective and subjective learning develop over the duration of cognitive intercultural training. Different learning processes were discovered depending on whether the learning concerned declarative or procedural elements. Further, the influence of personality variables and external factors like learning opportunity were investigated and found most relevant in early stages of intercultural training.

Yet intercultural training in general, and the ITIP training in particular, did not focus only on cognitive learning outcomes as the sole training goal. It was also a goal to enable students to come up with behavioural cultural skills that would help them act and respond appropriately in their interactions with host country nationals. Looking at the effectiveness of the single-mode and concurrent training for different cognitive outcomes, the question arises how the differential learning goals would enable trainees to cope in actual intercultural interactions. In intercultural negotiations, for example, it could be assumed that declarative knowledge about other cultures is an advantage, yet procedural knowledge about culturally appropriate behaviours would be necessary for actually conducting such negotiations successfully. Therefore, the next chapter investigates the effectiveness of the two training types on participants' behaviour and outcome in an intercultural negotiation setting. It compares the negotiation outcome achieved by students and their use of negotiation strategies across the two training types. The chapter also considers the role of personality for students' negotiation performance.

Further, before any definitive conclusions about the effectiveness of the two trainings can be made, the question of long-term effects of both trainings for participants' acculturation and performance in other countries need to be addressed. Only then a comprehensive picture can emerge about how and why intercultural training prepares students for international experiences and enhances the cultural competence they develop during their time abroad. Chapter VII looks at the long-term outcomes of adjustment and performance of training participants during their year abroad. Self-ratings of adjustment and performance at two points of time during that year are compared across the two training groups and a group of students who received no training at all.

Taken together, the results of these chapters, in combination with the present chapter, will give a comprehensive picture on the effectiveness of the intercultural training ITIP that is to be discussed in chapter VIII.

CHAPTER VI: INTERCULTURAL TRAINING, PERSONALITY, AND INTERCULTURAL NEGOTIATION SKILLS

Synopsis

This chapter examines the impact of two different intercultural trainings on practical cultural competence as displayed in intercultural negotiation settings. It investigates how student trainees, who had completed a training to either understand other cultures, or to understand other cultures *and* behave appropriately, could apply their knowledge to perform in an experiential intercultural negotiation.

Additionally to training effects, it looks at the impact of trainees' multicultural personality for their negotiation behaviour and negotiation outcome.

Results showed that training type had little influence on the negotiation outcome and negotiation strategies of participants; however, personality variables showed to be influential both for the negotiation process and outcome. Further, differences emerged regarding which negotiation strategies were successful in different intercultural settings.

The discussion puts forward further thoughts on the skills and strategies that are necessary for successful intercultural negotiations and discusses the implications for intercultural training.

Introduction

Negotiation is one of the most frequent types of intercultural interaction. Whether business parties from different cultures debate a deal, immigrants apply for new jobs, or diplomats meet terrorists about a hostage situation, they are all engaging in intercultural negotiation.

When going abroad, many expatriates and students are not aware of the difficulty of the social situations they encounter and of the implications it has for themselves and their organisation if they fail to succeed in such situations. The ultimate success of expatriates is more often than not based on their ability to influence the goals and values of host country nationals to reflect the goals and values of their parent company (Maurer & Li, 2006). Some other sojourners are aware of these differences and their importance, but do not have the adequate skills to cope with them.

As reviewed in chapter II and III, intercultural training is the most frequently used tool to equip sojourners with the cognitive, behavioural, and attitudinal skills to succeed in intercultural interactions. As negotiation situations are such a frequent and important subset of intercultural interactions, the mastery of these situations gives a good estimate of the sojourner's chance to master other difficult intercultural encounters. Therefore negotiation situations are an ideal means to evaluate whether intercultural training yields the desired behavioural outcomes.

This thesis evaluates the cognitive training in the first phase of the ITIP training by examining trainees' ability to apply their learning in an intercultural negotiation setting. Specifically, the two types of cognitive training that participants received are contrasted and compared with each other to determine whether a declarative learning goal, or a mixed declarative/procedural learning goal would yield better negotiation performance.

Further, in line with previous research showing that negotiation behaviour is not only influenced by training but also by personality characteristics of the trainee, aspects of multicultural personality, self-efficacy and goal orientation are taken into account as well.

Research on intercultural negotiation

Despite its practical relevance in politics and economy, intercultural negotiation has experienced only limited attention in psychological research. Most research has focussed on homocultural negotiation, specifically on the negotiation strategies and tactics that people use, and factors that determine negotiation success. Behavioural, social, and cognitive facets of motivation have been investigated in detail, with the majority of research examining these issues in the US and Australia(Bazerman, Curhan, Moore, & Valley, 2000).

Few studies have looked beyond these cultures to find whether results about negotiation from the US and Australia could be replicated in other cultures.

Most of the few studies in this area have adopted a cross-cultural, comparative approach, contrasting how negotiations and conflict management vary across cultures, or examining the interaction effect of culture and situational constituents (e.g., negotiation roles) on negotiation behaviour and outcome. These studies provide insights about how cultural value dimensions, e.g., individualism-collectivism, power distance, and conception of time, impact upon conflict management in general and negotiation behaviour in particular (Gelfand & Dyer, 2000; Huang & Van de Vliert, 2004). They can provide important information for how behavioural patterns in intercultural negotiation could be influenced by the cultural values of the negotiation parties. In the following, the findings most relevant for this purpose are reviewed.

Studies contrasting the US and Asia have mainly looked at differences between individualistic and collectivistic cultures in their approach to conflict resolution. Leung (1997) found that they differ in their overall negotiation goals: In individualistic cultures, conflict management focuses on the conflict at hand and is dealt with directly through competition and problem solving. In collectivistic cultures, the emphasis lies on the preservation of the relationship between parties. Differences also extend to specific behaviours: In collectivistic cultures, deception is a frequently used means to maintain harmony between negotiation parties and can therefore be regarded as positive. In individualistic cultures, deception is almost exclusively seen as negative no matter for which purpose it is used.

Chan (1992, cited in Gelfand and Dyer, 2000) proposed a moderating influence of individualism-collectivism on concession making in negotiations. He argued that negotiators from collectivistic cultures, where the distinction of in- and outgroup is salient and important, should adapt their behaviour in negotiations depending on whether the other party can be considered as ingroup (same culture) or outgroup (other culture). Negotiators from individualistic cultures, however, should not make such a distinction. He found this effect comparing US-American and Chinese negotiators' concession making behaviour: Chinese negotiators made more concessions in intracultural than in intercultural negotiations, while US-American negotiators showed no such variation in their concession making.

Individualism-collectivism is also suggested to impact on other negotiation behaviours. Gelfand and Dyer (2000) propose that negotiators from collectivistic cultures should be more likely to engage in tactics like social exchanges, questions, and reflective listening, as their overarching negotiation goal includes identity and face saving. In contrast, negotiators from individualistic cultures, emphasising instrumental goals, should engage more in formal argumentation and information exchange.

Power distance is another dimension of influence on negotiation. Research within the US (Michener, Vaske, Schleifer, Plazewski, & Chapman, 1975) has shown that relative power of negotiation parties shapes their negotiation behaviour: Negotiators with high powers make less concessions and more threats than those with low power. This finding is mirrored on a cultural level: In high power distance cultures, people tend to have fewer open conflicts with their superiors and, in case conflict between equals or inferiors occurs, superiors are more likely to intervene and mediate in settling conflicts (James, 1993).

The cultural dimension of masculinity-femininity (Hofstede, 1984) has also been found to impact on negotiation behaviour and outcome. Natlandsmyr and Rognes (1995) found that negotiation outcomes in the highly masculine culture of Mexico were less integrative than in the highly feminine culture of Norway.

Also, perception of time has a heavy impact on how the negotiation process unfolds. Cultures with monochronic conceptions of time progress in their negotiations in highly structured fashion. In cultures with a polychronic perception of time, however, multiple phases of the negotiation can happen simultaneously and multiple issues are

considered contemporarily. Frequently, conversational turn-taking is ignored and parties speak at the same time or interrupt each other (Foster, 1992).

Although these studies provide an informative contrast of negotiation behaviour and strategies across different cultures, they are of limited use to explain or predict processes and outcomes in intercultural negotiation between different cultures. But as cross-national and intercultural negotiations are becoming more and more frequent, it is important to explore these areas (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007).

In situations where partners from two or more different cultures are negotiating, they incur a high chance that norms and behaviours appropriate and effective for negotiation in their own culture will not match with each other. To achieve an effective negotiation with a comfortable process and satisfying outcome, both parties need to be aware of cultural influences. Effective intercultural negotiation does not involve bargaining or bludgeoning the other side into submission, but jointly finding a solution where all parties feel as though they have benefited (Ferraro, 2006). In this sense, effective intercultural negotiation is a collaborative process of parties with (potentially) diverging interests. It is not a competitive process in which one party tries to gain disproportional advantage over the other.

However, this task is not easy. Friction and misunderstanding due to cultural differences between parties have shown a larger negative effect on negotiation outcomes compared to domestic negotiations. A comparison of intercultural contracting negotiations between Norwegians and Mexicans with intracultural negotiations in Norway showed that intercultural negotiations achieved less profitable outcomes for both parties than intracultural negotiations(Natlandsmyr & Rognes, 1995). Studying a hypothetical negotiation setting with all-American and American-Japanese dyads, Brett and Okumura (1998) found that negotiation outcomes of the intercultural dyads were inferior to those of homocultural dyads. Brett and Okumura attribute this result to the conflicting use of negotiation strategies and different styles of information exchange that resulted in less mutual understanding of the each other's priorities.

These studies show that intercultural negotiation is a plethora of misunderstandings, described as a dance where one does a waltz and the other does a tango (Adair & Brett, 2005): Even though both parties share understanding of the basic stages of negotiations, their appreciation and use of negotiation rules, behaviour norms

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and tactics differs. Metaphorically speaking, the biggest challenge in the intercultural negotiation dance is to find a tune that enables a harmonious dance of both partners. This means, both parties have to find a process of the negotiation, comprising a shared set of negotiation rules, norms and tactics that they feel comfortable with.

Brett and colleagues (e.g., Adair & Brett, 2005, Brett & Okumura, 1998) have been the first to investigate in detail the specific difficulties of intercultural negotiation. They did not only compare negotiation across cultures, but looked at negotiation dyads with partners from different countries and contrasted this with homocultural negotiation. Adair and Brett (2005) videotaped these homo-cultural and intercultural negotiations and coded the frequency of two important negotiation behaviours (information and influencing) displayed by both negotiation partners. Analysing the occurrence of these behaviours over time, the authors concluded that large variation exists in the rules, norms and specific types of strategies used in different cultures during the negotiation process. However, all negotiations, whether homo- or heterocultural, were characterised by similar stages or phases that negotiators go through. The authors named these stages relational positioning, problem identification, solution generation, and agreement (Adair & Brett, 2005).

These findings are important because they show that, despite the multitude of cultural differences in negotiation, basic structures of the negotiation process are relatively universal. This gives hope to efforts to develop intercultural negotiation skills, because basic rules of the negotiation process as learnt in domestic negotiation can be applied to intercultural negotiation, too. Yet, even with structural similarity, prescriptive recommendations about which rules and norms to agree upon are hardly possible. Practical suggestions vary from adopting the norms of either culture to abiding by the rules of a "negotiated" third culture that both parties are familiar with, to constructing situation-specific rules and norms for the particular negotiation (Brannen & Salk, 2000). Yet in reality it is hard for negotiators to change their routine, to step "out of their own culture" and use unfamiliar rules and norms (Van Glinow et al., 2004). Familiar strategies and behaviours fail. Even the well-known advice to separate person and issue in negotiations (Fisher & Ury, 1981) might be harmful in intercultural settings: While this strategy yields good results in cultures high on autonomy and performance orientation like the US, most cultures place a higher value on relationships and emotions (George,

Jones, & Gonzalez, 1998). Separating task and person is nonsensical in these cultures. Thus, trying to negotiate in a way considered best practice in the US is unlikely to lead to success abroad (Gelfand & Dyer, 2000).

In summary, research has just begun to highlight issues and problems in intercultural negotiation. While authors agree that intercultural negotiations are more difficult than domestic negotiations, specific evidence of how to negotiate successfully across cultures is still patchy.

Even less attention has been drawn to the question how people can be prepared for intercultural negotiation (Weiss, 2006). This is an important question, because it cannot be expected that negotiators know intuitively how to behave. Training targeted to develop understanding of other cultures, awareness of one's own culture, and behavioural adaptation in intercultural situations is vital to develop intercultural competencies necessary for intercultural negotiation (Ferraro, 2006).

The present study investigates the effectiveness of intercultural training for behaviour in intercultural negotiation settings. Specifically, it investigates the impact of two different types of intercultural training on trainee's use of negotiation strategies and the outcome they achieve in intercultural negotiations. As there is no empirical evidence regarding intercultural negotiation trainings so far, this study draws on evidence from domestic negotiation trainings and intercultural trainings in general to form assumptions about the possible impact of such training.

Negotiation training

Early negotiation research has shown that negotiation is a complicated task for both parties involved. People's mental models of negotiations, i.e., their cognitive representation of the expected negotiation, comprise the understanding of the self, negotiator relationships, attributions about the other, and perceptions and knowledge of the bargaining structure and process (Bazerman et al., 2000). These mental models are developed over time, are dependent on socialisation and are therefore emic.

Many studies focussing on the mental models about negotiation found that how parties understand the negotiation game is critical for how the negotiation starts out and

evolves over time. For example, the relevance of information for a negotiation, and decisions of sharing information, are determined by mental models (Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992).

Research on negotiation training has mainly focussed on cognitive learning, often using case-based learning methods to teach relevant negotiation skills. Thompson, Genter and Loewenstein (2000) studied the effectiveness and development of mental models about negotiation. Using a case-based training, they found that most participants use surface cues, opposed to structural similarity with other situations, to develop their understanding of a negotiation setting. This was especially true for participants who did not have ample experience with negotiations and who might lack the knowledge of which cues are relevant and which are not (Gentner, 1989). However, for conclusions and inferences about a target situation, structural similarity of previous situations is more useful than surface similarity (Gentner, Rattermann, & Forbus, 1993).

These findings imply that the cues most frequently used when learning about negotiations are not actually the most useful ones. Thus, the trainings designed by Gentner and colleagues to enhance negotiation skills focus on discovering structural similarity (rather than surface cues) to enhance trainees' negotiation skills (Thompson et al., 2000). In three experiments of case-based negotiation training, Gentner, Loewenstein and Thompson (2003) examined how structural information aids the learning of negotiation strategies. They could show that a case study training in which learners compare two examples to understand structural similarities between cases yielded better understanding of underlying principles of negotiation situations than no training or training without comparison of cases.

In intercultural training, similar methods as in negotiation training have been advocated, most of all, case studies. Especially cognitive training methods like the culture assimilator (Fiedler et al., 1971) have perfected the use of small cases, or critical incidents, to raise trainees' awareness of cultural differences (Albert, 1983). In his cognitive model of intercultural learning, Bhawuk (1998) proposes a process of intercultural learning similar to Thompson et al's (2000) model: Providing a theoretical framework that enables trainees to make sense of each cross-cultural case and discover the cultural values dimensions underlying these cases should advantage their learning process more than individual case studies without theoretical information. Bhawuk found some evidence for his model

when he compared a theory-free culture assimilator (basically a collection of cross-cultural critical incidents) and a culture assimilator based on the dimension of individualism – collectivism (Bhawuk, 1995).

Taken together, these two research streams suggest that a case-based approach to intercultural negotiation focussing on structural similarities would be an effective training strategy. Mental models based on structural similarities, rather than surface clues, are more likely to be applicable in unfamiliar negotiation situations such as negotiations across cultures. However, their application is not always easy due to the transfer of training problem.

The transfer-of-training problem

Training effectiveness is a much debated topic both in intercultural training and negotiation training. In both areas, most research shows that trainings are not as effective as they should be (Gelfand & Dyer, 2000; Kealey & Protheroe, 1996). Therefore, theory-based inputs are needed to enhance the effectiveness of training and minimise the transfer-of-training problem.

One interesting study examining how negotiation training could be enhanced is the third experiment reported by Gentner and colleagues (2003): They evaluated two differential instruction methods for case based negotiation training on their effectiveness in real life negotiations. Specifically, they looked at the use of guided analogy and simple comparison training for reaching contingent solutions to a salary negotiation problem. Guided analogy training differed from simple comparison training in such that it included theoretical information on negotiation principles, thus providing trainees with structural cues they could use to compare cases. Simple comparison training only asked participants to identify similarities without providing them with structural cues. When trainees were put into a time-limited, stressful salary-negotiation setting, those who had received guided analogy training came to better solutions to the negotiation dilemma than those who had simple comparison training. Both training groups achieved better results than a no-training comparison group. From these results, the authors conclude that transfer of learning from negotiation training into real negotiation settings is enhanced by case-based instruction that emphasises comparisons between the cases.

However, there are some caveats to the assumption that teaching knowledge about structural similarity of negotiation per se equips trainees with everything necessary to become effective intercultural negotiators.

Similarly, the use of theory alone increases intercultural training effectiveness only slightly. Bhawuk's (1995) results regarding the superiority of theory-based culture assimilators over normal assimilators are rather weak. While Bhawuk does not offer a theoretical explanation for this, an examination of the types of mental models actually learnt in culture assimilators could provide clarification for these results.

As research in cognitive psychology has shown, two types of knowledge exist, declarative and procedural. Declarative knowledge is fact-based knowledge accumulated from personal experiences and learning experiences, such as education and teaching. For example, declarative knowledge about the structural features of negotiations allows their classification as similar or dissimilar from each other, which has implications for the applicability of certain behavioural strategies..

The second category of knowledge is procedural knowledge, which is based on cognitive reorganization of pieces of declarative knowledge and their re-arrangement in such a way that a useful procedure or script emerges (Willingham, 1998). As found in chapter V, the development of procedural knowledge is fundamentally different from (but necessitates some) declarative knowledge.

These findings can be used to derive assumption about the effectiveness of intercultural training on negotiation skills, depending on what type of knowledge has been trained.

In traditional culture assimilators, the training focus lies on discovering structural similarities between cases and thereby reaching a deep understanding of cultural value differences (Albert, 1983). This instruction is targeted only towards the understanding of cultural differences, therefore developing declarative knowledge (single mode training). As argued in previous chapters, declarative knowledge alone does not suffice to provide the trainee with the necessary skills to cope effectively in intercultural situations. Even though declarative knowledge provides information for which strategies might be effective or uneffective in negotiation situations, the ability to apply these strategies needs to be developed separately.

Procedural knowledge is required as well in order to develop behavioural strategies for intercultural negotiations. Thus, a training focussing on the recognition of structural similarity as well as the production of appropriate behavioural reactions (concurrent training) should better enable trainees to negotiate successfully in intercultural situations than a training focussing only on structural similarity.

Trainees of such a programme should have an advantage when it comes to face-to-face situations compared with trainees who have the declarative knowlede to discover structural similarities, but not the procedural knowledge how to apply them. Therefore, they should be able to perform better in face-to-face intercultural encounters. This line of reasoning is examined in the current study, which compares a single mode training focussing only on discovering structural similarities and a concurrent training focussing on discovering and applying structural similarities in intercultural encounters regarding their effectiveness for the outcome achieved and strategies used intercultural negotiation.

Hypothesis 1: In face-to-face intercultural negotiations, trainees from a concurrent intercultural training should achieve better negotiation outcomes than trainees from a single mode training.

Besides the outcome of negotiations, intercultural training focussing on the discovery of structural similarities and their application in real-life situations should also have an effect on the way trainees behave in intercultural negotiations and the types of strategies they use in such situations.

As detailed in the review of cross-cultural negotiation above, the use of negotiation strategies varies across cultures. Assuming that training to apply structural similarities should equip trainees to adapt their behaviour to different cultural norms, they should also be able to use negotiation strategies that are more appropriate in their counterparts' culture than in their own. In practice, specific expectations about how the behaviour of participants of both trainings differs depend on what culture they negotiate with. For example, adequate strategies would differ between negotiations with a French and a German partner.

However, generalised for all intercultural negotiations it could be assumed that participants of a behaviour-oriented training show a more proactive approach to negotiation. This assumption is based on trainees' role during such intercultural training.

A training focusing only on understanding other cultures, like the single-mode training, keeps trainees in a mainly responsive mode of programmed instruction: It only requires that trainees use their analytical skills to explain intercultural cases correctly. They need not show any initiative about what to do in such a case. Single-mode trainings do not encourage trainees to engage in creative thinking how to resolve the case in practice and how to behave adequately in other cultures. Therefore, a single-mode training implicitly teaches trainees to be more passive in interactions, focussing on their own sense-making of intercultural encounters and less on taking action. A concurrent training, however, that has both an understanding and behaving goal, encourages trainees to be more active and take the initiative to solve intercultural problems. In all likelihood, this difference between trainings should also show in face-to-face intercultural negotiations.

Hypothesis 2: Trainees of the concurrent training show more initiative during intercultural negotiation, while trainees of the single-mode training negotiate more reactively.

Personality and negotiation

Various studies have suggested that training is not the only factor for negotiation success. Personality variables have attracted wide attention in their relationship with negotiation, even though their overall influence remains unclear. Reviewing various studies, Bazerman and colleagues (2000) note that, overall, personality variables do not explain much variance in negotiation success, and even if they do, small changes in situation features can easily obscure these influences.

While this statement referred mainly to variables typically captured with the big five, other studies have found evidence that some personality characteristics might indeed shape negotiation behaviour in various situations in a predictable pattern. Specifically, these are self-efficacy, goal orientation, and multicultural personality.

Self-efficacy is the belief about one's capacity to perform at designated levels, or accomplish specific tasks (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is an effective predictor of training performance and training transfer. The degree to which self-efficacy is generalised across

tasks and domains increases far transfer of training contents into real life (Holladay & Quinones, 2003).

This has also been found for negotiation trainings. Gist, Stevens and Bavetta (1991) found that self-efficacy predicted skill acquisition and maintenance. This beneficial effect also generalised across gender: The same authors found that, while the absolute value of negotiation outcomes differed between men and women, the influence of self-efficacy after a negotiation training was equally positively related to increases in negotiation outcomes both for female and male trainees (Stevens, Bavetta, & Gist, 1993).

Further, self-efficacy is important in intercultural settings. High sociocultural self-efficacy helps expatriates adjust more easily, socialise happily with host country nationals, and perform better during their time abroad (Harrison et al., 1996; Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999).

Taken together, these studies suggest that self-efficacy should have a beneficial impact on intercultural negotiations as one form of intercultural encounters.

Hypothesis 3: High general and high social self-efficacy should lead to better outcomes in intercultural negotiations.

Another variable likely relevant for intercultural negotiations is achievement goal orientation. This refers to someone's desire to either develop and shape, or demonstrate competence at an activity (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Two major classes of achievement goal orientations can be differentiated: A learning goal orientation, which focuses on enhancing one's competence and uses feedback to improve future performance, and a performance goal orientation, that focus not on the development of possible competencies but on the display of existing competence. Within the broader construct of performance goal orientation, one can further differentiate between a performance-approach orientation, which focuses on demonstrating one's ability to achieve certain tasks or perform at designated levels, and performance-avoidance orientation, which is concerned with avoiding to show lack of competence or insufficient skills to perform desired tasks or at specified levels (Van de Walle, 1997).

Dispositional goal orientation is a relevant predictor of training performance: People with learning goals often perform better in trainings than people with a

performance-goal orientation, especially when they adopt training goals that centre around skills improvement (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999)

Goal orientation is also important in negotiation trainings. Stevens and Gist (1997) found that goal orientation predicted how many skill maintenance activities trainees performed after a negotiation training, and to what degree they planned to engage cognitively in a follow-up negotiation exercise. Trainees with a learning-goal orientation engaged in more skill maintaining activities and planned to engage in higher cognitive effort than performance-goal oriented trainees.

These differences in post-training activities might increase long-term transfer of learning-oriented trainees, such that they yield better performance in real-life negotiation tasks (Stevens & Gist, 1997). Specifically, this can be explained through cognitive withdrawal as a consequence of performance-avoidance orientation. Confronted with a difficult task, performance-avoidance oriented trainees withdraw their effort (Dweck, 1996). Such withdrawal, although it might serve as a defence mechanism, likely decreases the chance of success. Thus, people with a high performance-avoidance orientation should yield lower outcomes compared to people with high learning or performance-approach orientation.

Hypothesis 4: Learning goal orientation and performance-approach orientation should yield higher outcomes in post-training intercultural negotiation than performance-avoidance orientation.

Some evidence suggests an interaction of self-efficacy and goal orientation. In a study that induced goal orientation experimentally, trainees' self-efficacy moderated the influence of goal orientation on post-training performance in negotiation tasks (Stevens & Gist, 1997). When performance goals were set, trainees with low self-efficacy performed more poorly than trainees with high self-efficacy. However, when learning goals were set, no differences emerged for various levels of self-efficacy. Due to the similarities of intercultural negotiations and domestic negotiations, I expected to find similar effects for intercultural negotiations.

Hypothesis 5: Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between goal orientation and negotiation outcome such that performance-oriented trainees with high self-efficacy yield

better negotiation outcomes than performance-oriented trainees with low self-efficacy. For
trainees with a learning orientation, however, self-efficacy should not make a difference.

While these hypotheses are important to identify stable personal characteristics that make effective negotiators, the processes leading up to effectiveness itself remain unclear. This is an interesting and important gap to fill. Even though various studies of domestic negotiations found that personality is not necessarily a good predictor of negotiation outcomes (Bazerman et al., 2000), cognitive research implies that this does not necessarily generalise to intercultural negotiations.

The more experience people have with a task, the more expert they become in this task. This means, a larger share of their actions in these situations are routines, and routines are based on previous experience (Anderson, 1995). For negotiation, this means experienced negotiators will use negotiation strategies more expertly and conduct negotiations according to their experiences about what works well and how they can reach their negotiation goal. Thus, the influence of experience outweighs influences of personality. Experienced negotiators use strategies not because they correspond to their personality, but because they are proven to work.

In all likelihood, people will have less experience in intercultural than domestic negotiations. Even people who are experienced domestic negotiators will likely have few routines for intercultural negotiation. Therefore, the predominant influence of experience over personality on negotiation behaviour might be less pronounced, or not present at all, depending on the individual.

On the contrary, this means that in intercultural negotiation, personality influences are more likely to be present than in domestic negotiation. They determine which strategies are used when and how frequently. If meaningful relationships between personality and negotiation strategies could be found, this implies that personality indeed impacts on negotiation behaviours. Such results, in turn, might explain variation in negotiation outcomes.

Another personality aspect likely of influence for intercultural negotiation is multicultural personality (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). While similar in structure to the big five, multicultural focuses more narrowly those personality traits that are relevant in multicultural environments. It comprises five facets of personality:

Cultural empathy is the ability to empathise with the feelings, thoughts and behaviours of members from different cultural groups. Open-mindedness is the unprejudiced openness towards out-group members and different cultural norms, customs and values. Emotional stability is the tendency to remain calm in novel or stressful situations, while flexibility includes the ability to learn from mistakes and adjust one's behaviour to situational demands. Finally, social initiative refers to the tendency to actively seek out new contacts and build social networks.

Evaluation studies have shown that the MPQ could predict aspirations for international assignments over and above the predictive power of the FFM (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000; Van der Zee et al., 2003). The instrument to assess multicultural personality could also show good reliability and high convergence of self- and other-ratings (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2001). A high multicultural personality is a positive predictor of cultural adjustment of university students in the Netherlands (van Oudenhoven & van der Zee, 2002) and Singapore (INSERT SOURCE, LEONG 2007), of expatriates and in Taiwan (van Oudenhoven, Mol, & van der Zee, 2003), and of children in the Netherlands (Ali, 2003). Thus, the positive influence of multicultural personality on cultural adjustment is not culture-specific. Cultural adjustment is based on cognitive, behavioural, and affective dimensions and it can be assumed that personality effects occur on all these dimensions ((Ward et al., 2004). Similarly, high multicultural personality should be beneficial for the success of intercultural negotiations, as these require participants to use cognitive and behavioural means to ensure a good negotiation process.

Hypothesis 6: Students with high multicultural personality achieve better negotiation outcomes in intercultural settings than studentswith low multicultural personality.

In addition to these hypotheses about the relationships of personality variables with negotiation outcomes, the relationships of these variables with specific negotiation behaviours should be examined as well. In order to enable a more specific picture of how personality influences behavioural negotiation outcomes, it is necessary to establish links between specific personality traits and specific behaviours in the negotiation setting.

Methods

Overview

The training developed for this doctoral research was an intercultural training programme consisting of two parts. The first part of the training was delivered online and contained critical incidents for either understanding (single-mode training) or understanding and behaving (concurrent training) in other cultures. Additional data were gathered about multicultural personality, self-efficacy, and goal orientation. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two training conditions. The development of this training part is described in detail in chapter IV.

The second part of the training was an experiential workshop with a face-to face intercultural negotiation role-play. This second part of the training including the negotiation task (role play) with a host culture confederate was identical for all trainees. Negotiations were videotaped and analysed on the basis of speaking turns, similarly to Weingart, Thompson, Bazerman and Carroll (1990).

Participants

Participants were 42 (37 women, 5 men) second-year business and language students preparing for a one year work and/or study placement abroad, mainly in France and Germanic countries. 35 students were white-British, three were Asian-British, one Italian-British, one Caribbean-British, one Norwegian-Vietnamese, and one student was Irish. Before the workshop, 20 students had completed the single-mode training, 22 students had completed the concurrent training.

On average, students were 19.46 years old and had achieved a GPA of 60.58 in their second year of study. No differences in descriptive variables between participants in the two training types could be found.

Initial online training

Both types of online training comprised three sessions of approximately 90 minutes duration. They were equal in duration and content: the trainings focussed on cultural differences between Britain, France and Germany and used cultural value dimensions from the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004). to offer students a theory-based framework to understand cultural differences.

The single mode training was consistent with the traditional culture assimilator (Fiedler et al., 1971). and had an "understanding" learning goal: Participants were instructed to recognise and understand cultural differences using theoretical dimensions of cultural values. With this learning goal, participants should learn to form isomorphic attributions about behaviour and attitudes that were consistent with the way members of the host country would typically attribute these.

The concurrent training was modified to incorporate a behavioural learning goal over and above the understanding learning goal. Half the content of this training focussed on understanding and recognising cultural differences, similarly to the traditional training. The other half of this training focussed on behaving in situations of cultural conflict and transferring theoretical knowledge of cultural differences into one's behaviour.

During the online training phase, participants received various additional questionnaires: The multicultural personality questionnaire (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000) measures of social self-efficacy and self-monitoring (Harrison et al., 1996), and goal orientation (Van de Walle, 1997). These measures are described in detail in chapter IV of this thesis, an item list is available in appendix 2.

Training workshop

Following the online training, all participants received the same workshop of approximately 90 minutes duration. In small groups of 2-5 participants, students met to review what they had learnt in the online training and debate their hopes, expectations and fears about the year abroad. The centrepiece of the workshop was a face-to-face negotiation role-play with a native confederate. In this role-play, students could apply

their knowledge from the online training and develop confidence in their skills to communicate in foreign languages and handle difficult situations and with people from other cultures.

After the role-play, students shared their experiences and received feedback from the host country confederate about appropriate or inappropriate negotiation strategies. They also received feedback on their personality profile. The workshop finished with an evaluation of the role play and the whole training programme.

Negotiation role play

The role-play was a face-to-face negotiation with a French or German confederate, depending on the participant's target destination. Confederates were unaware of the study hypotheses. The role-play was done in German, French, or, if the participant was not confident or able to negotiate in a foreign language, in English.

In the role play, participants enacted the role of a placement student in the marketing department of a pharmaceutical company, who was working relatively independently on a marketing project for the UK market. The placement student in the scenario felt that s/he needed to improve on language skills, but the only affordable course collided with the usual office hours of the company. In a short meeting with the marketing director of the company, the placement student wanted to negotiate permission to take the language course and come to some sort of agreement.

Students received a briefing about the situation that supported them with arguments for taking the course and highlighted points where they could make concessions (e.g., they did not need to attend all course sessions in order to get a certificate). Students were allowed to study this briefing for up to 20 minutes and make notes that they could use during the negotiation.

The host national confederate enacted the role of the marketing director. Confederate negotiators granted permission for the language course based on the display of culturally appropriate negotiation behaviour by the student. Confederates were unaware of which online training their counterparts had received. A lose script detailing key points was used to guide confederates in their negotiation, but confederates were

allowed to improvise within their role as they saw fit in order to achieve a realistic situation for each participant.

Similar to the procedure of Gentner and colleagues (2003) and in order to induce extra stress levels for participants, the negotiations were limited to 10 minutes duration. All negotiations were videotaped with written permission of the participants. A detailed scheme of the negotiation role play is given in Appendix 7.

Negotiation coding scheme

The development of the coding scheme followed suggestions by Weingart, Olekalns and Smith (2004) Consistent with prior negotiation research in domestic settings, a bottom-up process of scheme development was chosen that focused on the use of specific tactics and their relationship with the negotiation outcome. The coding scheme was developed and tested on 10 randomly selected role-plays before it was refined for the final coding process.

Coding was based on speaking turns. The length of each speaking turn was coded to derive total "air time" for both negotiation partners. Each speaking turn was assigned a code for the negotiation behaviour expressed in it, with the possibility of multiple codes. Communication researchers emphasise that each speaking turn can be regarded as a response to the previous turn as well as a trigger for the following turn. To capture both functions, multiple codes per speaking turn could be appropriate (Olekalns & Smith, 2000). Thus, in some cases (e.g., very long speaking turns) multiple codes were given in order to capture the content of each turn as precisely as possible.

The following codes were used for both negotiation partners: Making a single-issue offer, making a multi-issue offer, asking for information, providing information, negative reaction, positive reaction, showing concern, offering help with words, process steering, and threats.

The categories of asking and providing information were further differentiated in asking or providing simply a "checkback" or substantial information. Checkbacks were defined as simple yes/no answers or paraverbal utterances that expressed agreement or understanding with what the partner had just said. Asking for checkback was defined as

small questions ("Right?", "isn't it?"), or the phrasing statements as questions to seek affirmation from the negotiation partner.

Categories pertaining to substantial information were: asking a question that necessitates new information; asking for arguments or personal opinion; giving unsolicited new (neutral) information; giving new, solicited information; substantiating one's argument, and providing personal opinion.

Besides content-based codes of negotiation behaviour, each speaking turn was judged whether it was a reactive or initiative turn in respect to the process of the negotiation. A reactive turn could, for example, be an answer to a question, agreement or disagreement with the partner, or simple signs of understanding or misunderstanding. Examples of initiative turns were the initiation of a new unsolicited information, a new proposal or negotiation aspect, or a summary about what had been said, followed by a step forwards to ensuring consent and moving on with the negotiation.

In addition to codes capturing verbal negotiation behaviour, the coding scheme also contained two non-verbal elements: Feedback behaviour and body position of the student.

As Argyle (1996) has pointed out, the majority of human communication is non-verbal. Much of this non-verbal communication serves feedback purposes and increases the efficiency and productivity of the person receiving feedback. Feedback signals are used to keep the communication process error-free and smooth, without misunderstandings or interruptions. Thus, feedback signals are vital for successful negotiations. The amount of feedback behaviour can be taken as a sign of communication competence and is an important indicator how well the communication between the both negotiation partners is going. In intercultural negotiations, feedback is even more important due to the potential for misunderstandings.

The feedback dimension was only coded for the student participant, as the research aim was to assess the negotiation skills of the participant, not of the native negotiation partner. Feedback signs were differentiated into verbal (e.g., "yes", "I see"), paraverbal (e.g., vocalisations like "uhu", "mhm", or grunts), and non-verbal (e.g., nodding, gestures, imitating the behaviour of the speaker) behaviour.

Body posture was coded to get a rough estimate of the emotions and stress level of participants in the negotiation setting. Analyses of the relationship between posture and

emotion have shown that posture relates to attitudes, as well as anxiety, fear, and intimidation (Mehrabian, 1969; Mehrabian & Friar, 1969). As these emotions are relevant for the negotiation process, participants' body posture was coded for each speaking turn, taking into account the following aspects (Argyle, 1996): Lean (forward, backward, sideways), arms (open, closed, crossed), fingers (relaxed or busy), head (lowered, raised, tilted), and legs (open, stretched, crossed). From these aspects, a summative impression was formed whether the participants' posture during each speaking turn was rather tense or rather relaxed.

At the end of the negotiation sequence, the achieved negotiation outcome was classified into categories from 1 (complete denial to take the language course) to 7 (unconditional approval to take the full language course).

Further, a summative assessment of the behaviour style of trainees and native partners over the negotiation was made using SYMLOG (Bales & Cohen, 1979; Becker-Beck, Wintermantel, & Borg, 2005). This assessment served to estimate variability of negotiation behaviour of the native partners across participants and to ensure participants experienced comparable situations.

Quality criteria

Reliability of the coding scheme. All 42 role plays were coded by the author. Additionally, four role plays (1 in German, 1 in French, 2 in English) were double-coded by an assistant fluent in all three languages. Unitising reliability was determined with Guetzkow's U (Guetzkow, 1950). The average U was computed as 0.21, indicating that unitising agreement between coders was 79%. Reliability for the negotiation outcome was calculated as intraclass coefficient (1,1) of $r = .81$ (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979).

Validity of the negotiation setting. Both internal and external validity of the role play were assessed. Internal validity concerned the behaviour of the native role-play confederate. It assessed whether natives achieved a certain consistency in their behaviour for participants to ensure equal chances for each trainee to reach a good negotiation outcome, while being responsive and flexible enough to create credible and authentic negotiation situation.

Internal validity was assessed with observational data of negotiation behaviour gathered by SYMLOG ratings. These data were analysed with intraclass correlations (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979). Specifically, ICC(A,1)'s were calculated for the different groups of negotiation partners: Trainees, the German confederate, and the two French confederates. ICC(A,1) measures the absolute agreement of scores for observations with multiple measures (McGraw & Wong, 1996). A 2-way mixed random model without interaction effects was used. Reliability analyses and ANOVA's showed that agreement in negotiation behaviour amongst trainees (ICC= .49) was significantly lower than variation in the behaviour of the German (ICC= .62, ΔF = 1.70, p < .02) and also lower than for one of the two French negotiation partners (ICC= .65, ΔF = 1.90, p < .01). The behavioural variability of the other French negotiation partner was not significantly lower than amongst students (ICC= .50, ΔF = 1.05, $n.s.$). Overall, these results suggest that native negotiation partners behaved sufficiently consistent across all negotiation role-plays to offer trainees comparable conditions for their negotiation task; yet they also adapted their behaviour to a certain extent to the requirements of each individual role-play partner.

External validity concerned the credibility and relevance of the negotiation role-play for real-life situations. For this purpose, the anonymous training reaction questionnaire included ratings of the content of the negotiation and its relevance for real life situations. Average scores of 4.61 for content and 4.72 for relevance (on 5-point scales) indicate that students perceived the negotiation as useful and relevant for real life situations.

In summary, the negotiation coding scheme showed acceptable reliability, and the negotiation situation showed high internal and external validity.

Results

Analyses of negotiation behaviours were based on relative frequencies. Relative frequencies were calculated by dividing the number of speaking turns within each negotiation by negotiation duration (i.e., number of turns/minute) to control for duration effects and avoid interdependence between frequency counts.

Overall training differences

Hypothesis 1 concerned the differential effect of training conditions on intercultural negotiation performance. It was expected that participants in the concurrent training should be able to transfer more of their knowledge into the behavioural situation of the role play and therefore achieve better negotiation outcomes.

This was examined with comparisons of means for negotiation outcome between the two training groups, single-mode training and concurrent training. Results showed that negotiation outcomes were comparable between training groups ($m_{single-mode} = 5.65$, $m_{concurrent} = 5.20$; $t(45)= 1.50$; n.s.), not confirming hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 stated that trainees of a traditional, understanding-focussed training should show more reactive negotiation behaviours, while participants in a behaviourally-oriented training should show more initiative in their negotiations. Results of negotiation behaviours showed that participants in the single-mode training provided more new information ($m_{single-mode} = .10$, $m_{concurrent} = .05$; $t(45)= 3.61$; $p < .001$), while students in the concurrent training asked their negotiation partners for information slightly more frequently ($m_{single-mode} = .05$, $m_{concurrent} = .14$; $t(45)= -1.89$; $p < .07$). However, no differences were found for negotiation behaviours like verbal checkbacks, number of offers, or reactions to offers. Therefore hypothesis 2 received only partial support.

Successful negotiation strategies

Additional analyses were performed to identify culture-specific success-related negotiation strategies in German ($n= 18$) and French ($n=23$) negotiation scenarios.

Successful strategies for negotiating with Germans

In negotiations with the German confederate, the following strategies used by the student were related to negotiation outcome: Making single-issue offers ($r = .49$; $p < .05$) and showing positive reactions ($r = .53$; $p < .05$) were related to a good negotiation outcome. Further, a relaxed body position of the student was also related to negotiation success ($r =$

.51; $p < .05$), possibly an indicator of a good climate or rapport between negotiation partners.

Interestingly, looking at behaviours of the native negotiation partners, the same pattern evolved. Single issue offers ($r = .51; p < .05$) and positive reaction ($r = .75; p < .001$) were positively related to negotiation outcomes, while multi-issue offers were negatively related ($r = -.48; p < .05$). Looking at training differences, students in the concurrent training showed less positive reactions ($t(16) = 2.27; p < .05$), but gave more paraverbal feedback ($t(16) = -2.07; p < .05$) than students in the single-mode training. However, no differences emerged between training groups for the overall negotiation outcome.

Successful strategies for negotiating in the French setting

In negotiations with the French native partner, only two strategies exhibited by students related to negotiation success: Providing general information ($r = .45; p < .05$), and being more reactive than initiative during the negotiation ($r = .44; p < .44$). On the side of the native, only one behaviour related to negotiation outcome and related to it negatively - providing new and unsolicited information ($r = -.53; p < .01$).

Some differences emerged in the strategies used by students in single-mode or concurrent training. Students in the concurrent training asked for more information ($t(21) = -2.55; p < .05$), provided less new information ($t(21) = 3.55; p < .01$), and showed slightly less negative reaction ($t(21) = 1.94; p < .10$) than students in single-mode training.

Overall, however, the different online trainings could not account for differential negotiation outcomes ($t(21)=1.71;$ n.s.)

Personality and negotiation

Hypotheses 3-5 referred to influences of personality on negotiation outcome. Hypothesis 3 stated that general and social self-efficacy should be positively related to negotiation outcome; however, no such relationship was found.

Similarly, no significant result emerged for the relationship between achievement goal orientation and negotiation outcome, as hypothesis 4 had stated. Due to this lack of

findings, hypothesis 5, suggesting mediation, could not be tested for (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Hypothesis 6 predicted a positive influence of multicultural personality on negotiation outcomes. This was tested for by compiling a second-order scale of multicultural personality including the first-order scales of cultural empathy, social initiative, flexibility, and openmindedness. This second-order scale showed suffient reliabitliy (Cronbach's α = .70). Negotiation outcome was regressed on multicultural personality, with and without controlling for training type. Multicultural personality could not predict negotiation outcome, although the influence showed a positive trend and might have been significant with a larger sample size ($F(1,38)$ = 1.21, β = .17, *n.s.*). Controlling for training type, the influence of multicultural personality on negotiation outcome became slightly bigger but still was non-significant (β = .20, *n.s.*). Thus, hypothesis 6 could not be supported.

Besides these hypotheses, the influence of personality variables on specific negotiation behaviours was examined. Correlations between personality characteristics and trainee negotiation behaviours are given in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: *Correlations of personality variables with trainee negotiation behaviours*

Personality variable	M	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Emotional stability	3.19	.44	.37ª										
Cultural empathy	3.94	.61	.84	.34*	.22	.03	-.30	.18	-.11	-.13	-.12	-.10	-.01
Social initiative	3.58	.60	.79	.32*	.24	.12	-.12	.22	-.09	-.10	.27	-.08	-.05
Flexibility	3.09	.50	.75	.06	.07	.23	-.27	.43*	-.02	.14	.16	-.13	-.15
Open-mindedness	3.68	.62	.82	.33*	.38*	-.06	-.40*	.07	-.04	-.20	.06	.02	-.08
General self-efficacy	4.50	.49	.84	-.03	.06	.11	.03	.06	-.17	-.26	-.05	-.15	.21
Social self-efficacy	4.32	.58	.67	-.12	.07	-.03	.27	-.03	.01	-.01	.19	-.03	.13
Learning orientation	4.36	.78	.88	.29	.38*	.07	-.13	.31	-.24	-.33*	.16	-.05	.09
Perf.prove orientation	3.72	.99	.84	.44*	.34*	-.02	-.14	.17	-.19	-.25	.05	-.20	-.08
Perf. avoid. orientation	3.07	.85	.85	.18	.22	.11	-.09	-.22	.10	-.34*	-.15	-.15	-.12

Note: 1 = single-issue offers, 2 =multi-issue offers, 3 = asking for information, 4 =asking for back-check, 5 =providing ⁞
7 =substantiating argument, 8 =new information, 9 = opinion, 10 =providing back-check, 11 =positive reaction, 12 =n⁞
concern, 14 =process steering, 15 = word help, 16 = negotiation outcome.

ª excluded from analyses due to insufficient reliability.

* $p < .05$.

Table 6.1 shows that some personality characteristics are indeed related to negotiation behaviour, even if they do not link back to the ultimate negotiation outcome. Three facets of multicultural personality - cultural empathy, social initiative, and open-mindedness - related positively to single-issue offers. Also, goal orientation was connected to offer-making: Performance prove orientation correlated positively with single- and multi-issue offers, while learning goal orientation related positively only to single-issue offers. Further, performance prove orientation was also positively related to positive reactions, while both learning and performance avoidance orientation related negatively to substantiating arguments.

Personality and culture-specific negotiation behaviour

Analysing relationships of personality variables with negotiation behaviours in the German vs. French setting turned out some significant relationships:

In the German setting, flexibility related positively to asking for information ($r = .53$; $p < .05$), while social initiative was related to the amount of initiative speaking turns ($r = .51$; $p < .05$). Further, learning orientation was positively related to multi-issue offers ($r = .57$; $p < .05$) and to providing information ($r = .52$; $p < .05$). Performance prove orientation also related to multi-issue offers ($r = .49$; $p < .05$). General self-efficacy was inversely related to positive reactions ($r = .51$; $p < .05$), while social self-efficacy related to providing new information ($r = .55$; $p < .05$). Further, self-monitoring was inversely related to substantiating arguments ($r = - .51$; $p < .05$).

In the French setting, two personality variables related positively to the negotiation outcome; open-mindedness ($r = .45$; $p < .05$) and general self-efficacy ($r = .49$; $p < .05$). Negotiation behaviours were related to personality characteristics such that flexibility related negatively to providing checkbacks ($r = .49$; $p < .05$) and to process steering ($r = - .43$; $p < .05$). Performance prove orientation showed a connection with positive reaction ($r = .47$; $p < .05$) and performance avoidance orientation showed a negative connection with substantiating arguments ($r = - .51$; $p < .05$).

Overall, these results highlight that personality variables like multicultural personality, self-efficacy, self-monitoring and goal orientations are relevant for

intercultural negotiation and influence various negotiation behaviours. However, a consistent pattern of their influence for negotiation behaviour across countries could not be established.

Discussion

This chapter sought to investigate the effectiveness of two intercultural trainings on the development of intercultural negotiation skills. Overall, the results highlight small but interesting differences in the way participants of both trainings negotiated in intercultural situations. Compared to trainees of the single-mode training, participants of the concurrent training showed more initiative in their negotiation behaviour: They asked for more information, and gave less of it. This finding is in line with the hypothesis that the concurrent training should lead to higher initiative in intercultural encounters. However, this difference was not mirrored in the overall outcome of the negotiation.

Looking at negotiation behaviours that were successful specifically in negotiation with a German or French interaction partner, interesting differences emerge. Making single-issue offers, but not multi-issue offers, and showing positive reactions to suggestions by the native partner were behaviours related to a good negotiation outcome. This suggests that, in negotiation with Germans, the way of making offers is critical for the negotiation outcome, with single issue offers as the preferred way to go. The effectiveness of many single-issue offers opposed to multi-issue offers might be due to the rather task-focussed negotiation behaviour emphasised in German negotiations in general (Ghauri & Usunier, 2003). Further, it seems feasible when negotiating with Germans to address one issue at a time and not debate about various issues contemporarily. This is in line with studies emphasising a monochronic time orientation in Germany (Nonis, Teng, & Ford, 2005).

Further, negotiation success related to single-issue offers and positive reactions not only if shown by the student, but also if shown by the native interaction partner. This matching pattern of successful negotiation strategies between negotiation partners in Germany implies that reciprocal behaviours are an important factor here. The GLOBE study has shown that Germany lies in the highest quartile of practices for individualism,

both on the group and institutional level (House et al., 2004). Research on intercultural negotiation has emphasised that reciprocal behaviour in negotiation is important in negotiations with individualistic cultures that focus on exchange rather than communal relationships (Gelfand & Dyer, 2000). Thus, for the student negotiating in Germany it might be a good strategy to match the partner's behaviour and directly reciprocate offers and reactions.

The present findings could also be seen as implying equal status between negotiation partners for the duration of the negotiation process. Even though the setting clearly implied a status difference (marketing director vs. placement student), the overall negotiation was centred on the task at hand rather than on the relationship between negotiation partners.

In summary, these results suggest that successful negotiations with the German native partner were characterised by a "tit-for-tat" process of negotiation, emphasising reciprocity and equality between the negotiation partners, united in their quest to find a solution to the problem at hand.

Compared to the results in the German scenario, findings for the negotiation with the French partner show no reciprocity pattern in behaviours of the student and the native. Student behaviours related to negotiation success were the provision of information to the native and a reactive rather than initiative style of negotiating. Negotiations were also more successful the less information the native provided to the student.

This findings hint at a complementary approach towards negotiation, rather than a reciprocal approach. They imply that role differences of both partners are maintained over the course of the negotiation process and need to be respected to achieve a good outcome. Especially the amount of information sharing in successful negotiations in the French settings was not symmetrical but skewed to the advantage of the French negotiation partner. Further, the number of reactive speaking turns of the students also related positively to the negotiation outcome, implying that students benefited from adopting a rather reactive role in the process.

This can be interpreted as a reflection of the relevance of power differentials in France. It seems that the power difference inherent in the negotiation scenario, marketing director vs. placement student, was maintained during the negotiation setting, and the

more clearly this differential was obtained regarding the distribution of information, the better the negotiation outcome for the student (the inferior party). Indeed, this finding is in concordance with French views about the role of management: Even though, in principle, many French people adopt a universalist view, they also think that important decisions ought to be made by senior management and that it is a manager's responsibility to resolve conflict to everybody's satisfaction (Castel, Deneire, Kurc, Lacassagne, & Leeds, in press).

In summary, these results highlight that negotiations with French partners are not all task-centred, but that certain aspects of the authority relationship between negotiation partners are important factors for the process and, ultimately, the outcome of such negotiations.

Besides the identification of the impact of training on intercultural negotiation and the cultural differences in successful negotiation strategies, this study also sought to investigate the influence of various personality characteristics on negotiation outcome and behaviour. Unfortunately, hypotheses about the influence of self-efficacy, goal orientation, and multicultural personality on negotiation outcomes could not be confirmed. However, examining the relationships of these and other personality variables with specific negotiation behaviour, interesting findings emerged, both for influences of personality on negotiation behaviour generally and specific for negotiation behaviour with each culture.

Across the whole sample (not controlling for negotiation culture), the multicultural personality facets of cultural empathy, social initiative, and open-mindedness showed a positive influence on the amount of single-issue offers. Also the three aspects of goal orientation related to various negotiation behaviours, although it was hard to identify a pattern in these relationships. Relationships of negotiation behaviours with learning orientation and performance-prove orientation were similar in sign and magnitude, while performance-avoidance orientation often contrasted this pattern, even though these results did not reach significance.

More interesting is the result that cultural open-mindedness and general self-efficacy were both connected with negotiation success in the French scenario, but not in the German version. Further, relationships of personality variables with negotiation behaviours differed between cultural settings. This finding could be interpreted in two

ways. On the one hand, it might be that different personality aspects become facilitative or hindering, depending on the culture one negotiates with. In the current case, students high in open-mindedness and self-efficacy could profit more from their personality when negotiating with French than with Germans. On the other hand, the present result could be explained by the average cultural distance that French and Germanic cultures have from the British culture. As various cross-cultural studies have shown, Germanic cultures are more similar to British culture than the French culture is (Gerstner & Day, 1994; Hofstede, 1984); in fact, French culture is quite different from any other European culture (House et al., 2004). Thus, participants could draw fewer parallels between their home culture and the French negotiation scenario than for the German scenario. As the influence of personality traits on behaviour increases when little knowledge or expertise could be drawn on to determine the correct behaviour, this could explain the present findings as well.

Overall, the present findings imply that both the single-mode training and the concurrent training showed that participants of the concurrent training had more initiative in their behaviour than participants of the single-mode training. This is in line with predictions that a training focussing on the development and application of cultural competence enables participants to be more behaviourally active in stressful intercultural situations, because they can draw on their competencies more easily than participants of a training focussing only on the understanding of cultural differences. It is unfortunate that this difference between training groups did not have an impact on negotiation outcomes.

This might be due to the fact that both trainings were highly similar in their training content, structure and duration. Moreover, the absolute time spent on each training was only about 5 hours. Even if this time was spread over three weeks, it is still relatively short. It might be possible that more extensive cognitive training before the negotiation task might have yielded more pronounced results.

Further, research into case-based instruction has shown that the transfer of learning obtained in case studies does not come easy. Studies suggest that it takes extensive exercise until enough knowledge of structural similarities between cases is achieved to reach an expert-like competence. Figures of up to 50.000 case trials (Chase & Simons, 1973) have been suggested until transfer to other situations can be guaranteed.

This substantiates the argument that the present trainings were not extensive enough to actually yield differential effects in participants.

Interestingly, findings about the influence of personality on negotiation behaviour did not completely concur with previous findings about domestic negotiations. While self-efficacy had shown a good predictor of transfer in domestic negotiation trainings, its influence on the negotiation outcome in intercultural settings emerged only for the French scenario.

This might indicate that intercultural negotiation is not only more complex than domestic negotiation (Adair & Brett, 2005) - successful intercultural negotiation necessitates also different skills than domestic negotiation. Self-efficacy as a construct is defined as domain-specific (Bandura, 1997), but can have domain-generalised components (Speier & Frese, 1997). Domain-specific self-efficacy is based on experiences of personal competence in an area, thus it can develop with an individual's familiarity with a certain domain. Despite its importance in the development of domestic social and negotiation skills, social self-efficacy seems not be relevant for development of intercultural negotiation skills because participants perceive intercultural negotiation as a different domain than social interaction in general. Only if the situations are seen as structurally similar or related, positive effects of self-efficacy for domestic settings would generalise to intercultural situations. Seeing intercultural situations as not structurally similar to domestic social situations necessitates the development of a self-efficacy specifically in intercultural interaction, or even intercultural negotiation in particular. In this sense, the transfer of domestic findings on the relevance of self-efficacy for intercultural negotiation could be facilitated.

Strengths and Limitations

A significant strength of this chapter compared to other research into negotiation is the high external and internal validity of the negotiation situation. Students felt that the situation was very realistic and they could easily imagine themselves being in a similar situation once they are on placement abroad. Further, native negotiation partners managed to behave in a way that provided similar starting conditions for every student.

Much domestic research in negotiation randomly assigns students into dyads who negotiate about a target topic (Brett & Okumura, 1998; Gentner et al., 2003; Olekalns & Smith, 2003). Even in studies that used trained negotiation partners instead of random dyads (Gist & Stevens, 1998), no post-hoc assessment of behavioural consistency was made. The combined use of a loose script for native negotiators and the post-hoc calculation of intraclass correlations for behavioural consistency is not only novel, but also easier and more natural than a detailed negotiation script for the confederate. By giving confederates some leeway in their behaviour, they can give an authentic portrait of their cultural negotiation styles.

Overall, this approach allows a clearer assessment of students' individual negotiation competence because the negotiation outcome achieved by students and the behaviour they show is likely less influenced by dynamics of the dyadic interaction than in studies with randomly assigned dyads.

A further strength of this chapter is the differentiation of the coding system into verbal negotiation strategies and non-verbal behaviour exhibited by the student. This approach takes a more holistic view of the negotiation process, acknowledging that necessary communication can also be transmitted through non-verbal signs, such as body posture or the degree to which each negotiation partner adopts an initiative or reactive negotiation style.

In intercultural negotiation, much more behaviour is directed towards the prevention of misunderstandings, as the frequency of checkbacks and requests for checkbacks has shown. Therefore, it is important to include these characteristics in coding schemes for intercultural negotiation. This could prove a viable alternative to traditional verbal-only coding schemes as used for domestic negotiation.

Even though the findings of this chapter for intercultural negotiation are interesting, they should be interpreted with care. A limitation of chapter stems from the adopted research design. For participants, the workshop and role-play was part of their intercultural training ITIP. Therefore it is not possible to derive conclusions about the absolute extent to which both trainings facilitated intercultural negotiations compared to no training, as no untrained control group was included at this stage. Thus, the results could also be interpreted as showing that both trainings were equally unhelpful for intercultural negotiations.

However, other evidence suggests that this conclusion is probably not applicable (even if it cannot be disproved): Chapter V has shown that both trainings result in significant changes in participants' cognitive structures about other cultures. Both trainings were set to increase the amount of declarative cultural knowledge, both subjectively and objectively. The concurrent training even instigated a qualitative change of procedural cultural knowledge over and above declarative increments. This indicates that trainees of both trainings underwent a learning experience that untrained people did not have, thus it is likely that they would have outperformed an untrained comparison group if such a group had been included at this point.

Further, evaluations of students themselves regarding their learning experience in the online training indicate that students felt the content, structure, and format of both online trainings were good (average ratings of 4.43, 4.24 and 4.47 on a satisfaction scale from 1"very dissatisfied" to 5 "very satisfied"). Students also felt that the negotiation setting provided a good opportunity to exercise their theoretical knowledge (average rating of 4.30). Taken together, this is evidence to suggest that both online trainings did have a positive effect.

Besides the strengths mentioned above, this study also has weaknesses. One weakness arises from the fact that native negotiation partners were not completely naïve. They had received a detailed brief outlining their typical cultural negotiation pattern that they were advised to follow. Thus, the cultural differences students had to cope with in the negotiation scenario might have been stronger and more stereotypical than in real life negotiation settings.

Further, the multitude of behaviours considered in the analysis increases the possibility that some relationships of personality and negotiation behaviours could have become significant by chance. These relationships should therefore be interpreted with care. However, this possibility is unlikely to be responsible for the results that had been hypothesised on theoretical basis, e.g., the differences between the two training types.

Future research

The field of intercultural negotiation is still in its infancy. This study has highlighted how intercultural training might benefit participants when they find themselves in stressful negotiation situations abroad. However, results also pose many new questions.

The present findings suggest fundamental differences in overall strategy in negotiations with Germans or French partners: While a reciprocal, task-focussed negotiation approach worked best in the German scenario, a complementary, relationship-focussed approach proved most useful for the negotiation with a French partner. However, before these findings can be generalised, it would be necessary to replicate them in a study with a reversed cultural focus. For example, this could be achieved by sampling French and German students to negotiate with a British confederate and amongst their own culture.

Future research should address other influences on intercultural negotiation skills that were not in the scope of the present study. For example, it can be assumed that intercultural negotiation skills emerge from three major sources: Broader intercultural skills (as can be acquired by intercultural training), domestic negotiation experience (as it can be acquired in negotiation trainings), and personality. Possibly these factors interact such that those people with ample domestic experience can more easily transfer the knowledge from intercultural trainings into intercultural negotiation settings, and vice versa. The current study sample, business students, had no or only very limited experience in domestic negotiations. However, with a sample of expatriate managers, who are the typical target group of intercultural trainings anyway, one could expect to find interesting interaction effects of training and negotiation experience. Thus, a similar study with a managerial sample is recommended.

Further research should also investigate the two possible interpretations for the finding that personality has higher influences on the negotiation outcome in the French scenario. Studies that include more than three cultures that vary systematically in their cultural distance from participants' home culture are needed to judge whether cultural distance as such or the interplay of participants' personality and the target culture are responsible for the variation in personality influences on intercultural negotiation.

Finally, future research should seek to expand the present findings by adding a time dimension to them. This means examining not only the frequency with which each negotiation strategy was used by each negotiation partner, but employing methods like Markov-chain models (Smith, Olekalns, & Weingart, 2005) to capture the temporal development of intercultural negotiations. Such a procedure can shed more light into the dynamics of reciprocal or complementary negotiation behaviour, and identify at what stages misunderstandings in the negotiation occurred, if and how they were resolved, and what process-based contingency might account for different negotiation outcomes.

To get back to the analogy of Adair and Brett (2005), such a temporal analysis would shed even more light on the music and steps of the dance called intercultural negotiation and it might show at which points the negotiating couples take a turn, hover, sway, swivel or tumble.

Conclusion and outlook

This chapter has focussed on evaluating the effectiveness of two cognitive online trainings in terms of behavioural competence in intercultural negotiation settings. The two online trainings were directed to enhance either declarative knowledge (single mode training) about other cultures, or enhance declarative and procedural cultural knowledge (concurrent training). Results of this chapter show that the single-mode and concurrent training evoked only small differences in negotiation patterns and were equally conducive to negotiation outcomes. However, interesting culture-specific negotiation patterns and manifold relationships of negotiation strategies and personality traits were found, suggesting that intercultural training is not the only factor for participants' negotiation behaviour.

In the evaluation framework for intercultural training from chapter III, this chapter has therefore dealt with the third level of outcomes: Behaviour. However, it does not provide insights into long-term changes.

The next chapter is looking at the long-term outcomes of the whole ITIP training - online phase and workshop combined. It also differentiates between the two versions of the online training and, based on previous research, argues for differences in their

effectiveness when combined with the workshop. Taken together, chapter V-VII therefore provide an evaluation of the ITIP training on all levels.

CHAPTER VII: THE INFLUENCES OF INTERCULTURAL TRAINING AND PERSONALITY ON ADJUSTMENT AND PERFORMANCE ABROAD

Synopsis

Chapter V examined the learning processes of the two cognitive intercultural trainings, and chapter VI looked at the effectiveness of the single-mode and concurrent training for participants' behavioural performance in intercultural negotiation settings. This final chapter of the empirical part of this thesis is concerned with the long-term effects of the two intercultural trainings combined with the negotiation role play.

For this purpose, cultural adjustment and performance of training participants and an untrained control group of students were gathered at two points during their placement abroad. Analyses centre on differences in adjustment and performance scores of participants in the single-mode and concurrent training, and no-training control group. They further examine the role of multicultural personality for long-term effectiveness abroad, and the temporal development of adjustment and performance over time.

Intercultural training

Intercultural training is an important means to raise people's cultural competence and prepare them for their stay abroad. The long-term goal of intercultural training is twofold: On the one hand, it shall help participants to adjust better to the other culture, making it a more satisfying, enjoyable, socially active, and less stressful experience. On the other hand, it shall ultimately contribute to participants' performance abroad and ensure that individual and organisational targets are met (Adler, 2002). Importantly, these two outcomes are interrelated – insufficient adjustment often goes together with poor performance (Thomas, 1998).

While intercultural training is often used to prepare professional sojourners (e.g., expatriates and diplomats) for their stay abroad, it has often been criticised as ineffective and incomplete (Selmer, 2000). In the area of higher education , intercultural training is less frequent and the average offering to prepare students for their sojourn is less rigorous than for expatriates (Goldstein & Smith, 1999), as discussed in chapter III.

However, similarly to professional expatriates, students can experience severe problems on their stay abroad, both in personal domains (e.g., depression, isolation, angst) and the professional domain (bad performance on work placements or study, stagnation). To prevent these problems and equip students with the necessary knowledge and skills, rigorous intercultural training is necessary.

So far, little is known about the effectiveness of specific training methods on the long-term adjustment and performance of trainees overseas, or the interplay of training and personality factors. Moreover, clarity is still lacking about the nature of cultural adjustment and performance as such.

The present chapter sheds light on these questions by investigating the effectiveness of intercultural training for students on the long-term variables of adjustment (comprising environmental, social and work adjustment) and performance. The developmental aspects of adjustment and performance are taken into account as the study employs a longitudinal design with repeated measures and includes personality as an additional influence factor.

Goals of intercultural training

Goals of intercultural training can be conceptualised on various levels, such as cognitive learning, perceptual changes, behavioural outcomes, and long-term systemic improvements (Schober & Ziegler, 2002).

Individual sojourners go abroad for different purposes; hence the goals and learning contents of their preparatory training also vary. In addition, organisations and institutions often have their own goals for intercultural training that may be complementary but not identical with individual training goals.

As discussed in detail in chapter III, intercultural training broadly targets to increase KSA necessary for the stay abroad. Good intercultural training conducts a needs analysis to determine the required KSA for the designated participants before the training method and content is designed. After the training, an evaluation process looks at the attainment of all goals of intercultural training as identified in the needs analysis. this chapter is part of the evaluation of a specific intercultural training, focusing on the long-term effectiveness of intercultural training.

Long-term evaluation of intercultural training examines the success of participants once they are abroad. It usually measures their cultural adjustment and performance abroad - important indicators to determine whether the overall sojourn is a success or failure (Caligiuri, Lazarova, & Tarique, 2005). Ideally, levels of adjustment and performance are compared either to an untrained control group or predetermined cut-off criteria to determine whether the effectiveness of intercultural training was satisfactory (Kealey & Protheroe, 1996).

Cultural adjustment

Cultural adjustment is widely defined as the degree of psychological comfort a sojourner has with various aspects of a host culture (Gong, 2003a; Harrison et al., 1996; Van Vianen et al., 2004). Adjustment might be the most common evaluation criterion for intercultural training (Morris & Robie, 2001) as it is relevant for sojourns of all kinds and purposes. Adjustment has been conceptualised as a three-dimensional construct (Black et al., 1991),

which various studies have confirmed (Shaffer, Harrison, & Gilley, 1999). The dimensions of cultural adjustment comprise work adjustment, social adjustment, and environmental adjustment. *Work adjustment* refers to the sojourner's comfort with the entrusted tasks and responsibilities at work. *Social adjustment* refers to the level of comfort when interacting with host country nationals at work and in other settings, including language problems. *Environmental adjustment* addresses the comfort experienced regarding various aspects of the foreign cultural environment, such as food, health care, and general living conditions (Black & Stephens, 1989).

Cultural adjustment is not a stable characteristic but an adaptation process that helps sojourners make the new cultural environment more predictable and controllable (Black et al., 1991), thereby increasing feelings of familiarity with the new environment. Leiba-O'Sullivan (1999) proposed a comprehensive model of the development of cultural adjustment that conceptualises it as emerging from both stable and dynamic characteristics of the sojourner. She further argued that stable personality characteristics, like the big five, are necessary preconditions for successful adjustment. The competencies through which they impact on cross-cultural adjustment are dynamic and can be developed when required. The development of these dynamic competencies should thus be the goal of intercultural training.

Performance abroad

Another criterion is sojourners' performance abroad. Expatriate performance has been measured both with self-ratings (Stierle et al., 2002) and peer-ratings (Sinangil & Ones, 2003). Expatriate performance is considered as the most important criterion to evaluate an expatriate assignment (Mol et al., 2005), but it also is influenced by many factors. This might be the reason why, despite its importance, performance is measured only rarely in evaluation studies of intercultural training (Mendenhall et al., 2004).

The current study aims to increase knowledge by examining the effectiveness of two intercultural trainings for students taking a year-long work or study placement abroad. It looks at the long-term adjustment and performance of participants in these two trainings and compares them with an untrained control-group of students on the same type of assignment. Further, the chapter also addresses the role of personality.

Effectiveness of intercultural training

The effectiveness of intercultural training in general is still debated. Various studies, reviews and meta-analyses have found different effect sizes for intercultural training, even if they used the same outcome criteria (see chapter II for details). Kealey and Proteroe (1996) argued that this might stem from methodological weaknesses of training evaluation, especially in early studies. However, the disagreement in findings might also arise from an overly general approach to validating various methods of intercultural training on the same criteria. Until recently, studies investigating the effectiveness of intercultural training have failed to differentiate between training methods when looking at overall effectiveness. This is a severe shortcoming, as there is evidence to suggest that different training methods yield different learning effects (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000).

For example, the seminal article of Black and Mendenhall (1990) looked at the outcomes of cross-cultural skills, adjustment, and performance, but did not examine differential effects of the various training methods between the 29 studies it reviewed. Similarly, Deshpande and Viswesvaran (1992) examined 21 studies on the same criteria and even compared effect sizes across different samples (Deshpande et al., 1994). However, they refrained from a detailed analysis of different training methods, just like Black and Mendenhall. Morris and Robie (2001) tried to differentiate between training methods, but could not get a large enough sample to do so.

Finally, the most recent narrative review by Mendenhall and colleagues (Mendenhall et al., 2004) pointed out that the effectiveness of intercultural training depended largely on the type of outcome variable measured and the method of training used.

Therefore, it would be important for intercultural training evaluation to discriminate between different training methods. Some studies have made approaches in this direction, but their results do not yet provide a comprehensive picture.

Deepening the insights of the Mendenhall et al. (2004) review, Ehnert (2004), examined 29 evaluation studies and found that training methods with a didactic approach, e.g., the culture assimilator, showed positive effects on knowledge and, to a lesser degree also on behaviour and overall adjustment abroad.

However, none of the didactic trainings that used a performance criterion could show positive training effects in this area. Behavioural methods like role plays and simulations also proved effective on knowledge and adjustment as well as performance, but, surprisingly, had also no effect on behavioural outcomes. Those studies featuring a combination of didactic and behavioural approaches showed the best effects on all four evaluation criteria. This implies that a combinatory approach towards intercultural training might be the most adequate approach if the goals of intercultural training include aspects of knowledge, behaviour, adjustment and performance.

Indeed, some studies that have used multiple training methods came to the same result. For example, Earley (1987) found that the outcomes of a didactic, documentary training and of an experiential, interactional training method were equivalent for both adjustment and performance abroad.

Another comparison was made by Gannon and Poon (1997), looking at the effects of a video-based training, an intercultural simulation game, and an integrative training employing both cognitive and behavioural components. Results showed that the integrative training and the video-based training raised cultural awareness, while the simulation game showed no effects. Unfortunately, this study did not measure other outcome variables like learning, behaviour, adjustment or performance abroad.

In an experimental design, Harrison (1992) compared the methods of culture assimilator, behavioural modelling, and the combination of both tools regarding their effectiveness on cognitive learning and behavioural skill when interacting with people from other cultures. He found that only the combined training showed significant increments in cognitive learning and behavioural skill compared to a no-training control group. The combination method also elicited higher cognitive learning than either single method.

In summary, these studies suggest that trainings incorporating both cognitive and behavioural components are probably more effective on both short- and long-term outcomes than trainings that use either method on their own. This conclusion was applied in the training designed in this thesis, which included a cognitive and an experiential part. More precicely, two trainings each consisting of a cognitive part similar to the culture assimilator, and an experiential role play of negotiating with host country nationals, are evaluated regarding their effects on the adjustment and performance of trainees abroad.

From the review on training effectiveness above and the results from chapter V and VI, it can be assumed that these trainings will give participants an advantage over untrained sojourners.

> *Hypothesis 1a: Participants in combined intercultural trainings show higher cultural adjustment and performance than students who did not participate in intercultural training.*

Intercultural learning and long-term adjustment and performance

While the above hypothesis regarding the effectiveness of combined training methods is deduced from previous research, there is still a lack of understanding for the learning mechanisms at work in intercultural training. Up to now, the focus of research on intercultural training has centred on its effectiveness, but has neglected to investigate the reasons why some methods are effective and some are not, and why a training method yields some effects, but not others. What are the features of combined trainings that are responsible for their effectiveness? Is the combination of various training methods per se sufficient to ensure training effectiveness, or do principles of training design and learning development have to be observed?

Despite their theoretical value and practical implications, these questions are still not addressed in intercultural training research. Overall, in-depths examinations of the learning processes occurring in intercultural training are amiss.

Chapter V of this thesis has investigated the learning processes occurring in online-based, cognitive intercultural training. Drawing on theory and findings from cognitive psychology, the differentiation was established between declarative and procedural aspects of intercultural learning. Declarative intercultural learning comprises an in-depth knowledge about features of specific cultures ("knowing what") and the understanding of cultural differences in relation to relevant dimensions of cultural values, norms and behaviours. Procedural intercultural learning addresses the development of skills to handle cultural differences, behave in a culturally appropriate way, and participate actively in interaction with host-country nationals ("knowing how"). Monitoring the development of declarative and procedural learning over the course of the

online training showed that training influences both forms of learning, even though they show different forms of development.

From a practical point of view, these results are important because they contradict the widespread assumption that cognitive training methods necessarily and only yield declarative learning outcomes.

Chapter VI has evaluated both online trainings in a real life scenario. It showed that the concurrent training helped students exhibit more initiative in intercultural negotiations than students in the single-mode training. This is in line with differences in the overall learning focus of both trainings: The single-mode training puts trainees in a highly passive, responsive learning mode. The concurrent training puts trainees in a more active and creative learning mode (Shuell, 1986) by asking them not only to analyse intercultural situations, but also to come up with a personal behavioural strategy for coping with underlying cultural differences.

One implication of these findings is that, when combining these training approaches with an experiential training method, participants of the concurrent training should be more able to capitalise on their procedural learning than participants of the single-mode learning who only engaged in declarative learning.

But what exactly would such an advantage look like? In Anderson's model of expertise development (Anderson, 1990), the acquisition of competencies is described as a multistage process. The first stage comprises the learning of factual cognitive knowledge that is necessary but not sufficient for skill development. Intercultural training incorporating only declarative learning goals limits competence development to this stage. The second stage in Anderson's model consists of the association and integration of various pieces of cognitive knowledge to acquire a fuller understanding and become more skilled. In this stage, declarative knowledge is transformed into procedural skills. Intercultural training providing both declarative and procedural learning goals can be regarded as enabling trainees to master this second stage of expertise development as well. The third stage is the autonomous stage, in which positive associations are strengthened and procedural skills are refined. Harrison (1992) posits that experiential training, such as role plays, provide trainees with the necessary opportunity to complete the autonomous stage and finally reach the mastery stage.

According to this model, a combined training of cognitive and experiential methods should yield better learning outcomes than either method on its own. But the combination should work better for the concurrent training: Combining the single-mode training with experiential role plays requires trainees to "jump" from the cognitive stage straight to the autonomous stage of expertise development. No support is given to develop procedural knowledge prior to the situation in which it has to be applied. The combination of the concurrent training with experiential training, however, guarantees a smoother transition to the third stage because procedural knowledge is already developed before it has to be enacted.

Hence, the combination of a concurrent cognitive training with experiential role plays should yield better long-term training outcomes than the combination of a single-mode cognitive training with experiential role plays. These differences should show in the evaluation of both combinations on trainees' adjustment and performance abroad.

Hypothesis 1b: Cultural adjustment and performance of trainees who received the combination concurrent training + role play is higher than of trainees who received the combination single-mode training + role play.

Personality, cultural adjustment and performance

Besides intercultural training, cultural adjustment and performance are influenced by other factors, most importantly personality. Two personality models have received the most attention in this context: The Five-Factor Model (McCrae & Costa, 1987) and the model of multicultural personality (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Theory and evidence suggest that both models are suitable to capture personality influences on adjustment and performance.

Leiba-O'Sullivan (1999) addresses the influence path from personality characteristics to adjustment and makes specific assumptions about how the traits contained in the FFM (extraversion, emotional stability, conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness) relate to dynamic competencies, which in turn impact on cultural

adjustment. She proposes that emotional stability leads to cultural adjustment mainly through the enhanced stress management skills and self-efficacy that people with high emotional stability tend to display. Extraversion and agreeableness impact on cultural adjustment in such as they enhance people's conflict resolution and relationship-building skills. Finally, openness and conscientiousness enhance adjustment because they provide a basis for the development of perceptual and questioning skills that enhances the understanding of other cultures.

Some evidence for the influences of FFM traits already exists, but the pattern of influences varies between studies.

Caligiuri (2000b) could show that expatriates high on openness were more able to enhance their cultural adjustment through the contact with host nationals. Further, expatriates who were highly sociable could adjust more easily than those lacking this trait. Stierle, van Dick and Wagner (2002) found that emotional stability and extraversion were positively related to cultural adjustment. In a study with Singaporean expatriates, it was again emotional stability and extraversion that were related to psychological and social cultural adjustment (Ward et al., 2004).

Other interesting findings have been obtained by using the model of multicultural personality (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). The multicultural personality questionnaire (MPQ) was designed to counter the very broad, and possibly overly general approach to personality by the FFM, focusing on the traits of cultural empathy, emotional stability, social initiative, flexibility, and openmindedness. Evaluation studies have shown that the MPQ could predict aspirations for international assignments over and above the predictive power of the FFM (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000; Van der Zee et al., 2003). The instrument to assess multicultural personality could also show good reliability and high convergence of self-and other-ratings (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2001).

Van Oudenhoven and van der Zee (2002) studied the adjustment of foreign students to their new living conditions in the Netherlands. They found that all of the multicultural personality traits could predict cultural adjustment of these students in terms of their mental health. However, they also found that the positive influence of cultural empathy and open-mindedness unfolded more slowly than the influence of social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility. In general, the influence of multicultural personality for cultural adjustment seemed to grow with the time students were spending

in the new country. The influence of multicultural personality was also maintained when motivational characteristics like self-efficacy were controlled for. A similar result emerged with a study of the preparation of professional sojourners, with open-mindedness proving the most useful predictor for international aspirations (Van der Zee & Brinkmann, 2004).

In a cross-sectional study with expatriates in Taiwan (Van Oudenhoven, Mol, & Van der Zee, 2003), emotional stability and flexibility predicted adjustment in the personal, social and work domain. Cultural empathy and open-mindedness could only predict work adjustment, while social initiative related to personal and work adjustment. In a study of the cultural adjustment of sojourners spouses and chilcren, Ali (2003) could show that open-mindedness and emotional stability were the best predictors.

In sum, this evidence suggests that multicultural personality traits are useful predictors of cultural adjustment. However, the picture is not clear as to which aspect of multicultural personality is the most relevant for cultural adjustment of students and of professional expatriates. Rather, it seems that the combination or configuration of multiple traits is important for adjustment to other cultures. This role of multicultural personality for the development of adjustment will also be examined in this chapter.

Hypothesis 2a: Multicultural personality is positively related to cultural adjustment.

The second important factor to evaluate training success, but also success of the sojourn overall, is job performance. The above review of studies shows that personality is clearly an important factor for cultural adjustment. Similarly, many studies have argued for the link between personality and sojourner performance, but results have brought mixed evidence.

Working abroad, sojourners face ambiguous situations in which they do not know what behaviour is expected from them. In line with Michel's (1968) taxonomy of weak and strong situations, in incidences of high ambiguity, people's behaviour is more determined by their personality characteristics than by situational demands. Thus, sojourners' behaviour at work should be mainly influenced by personality characteristics. A first tentative investigation of this issue was done by Arthur and Bennett (1995), who looked at what factors expatriates themselves saw as most important for the success of their assignments. Two of the five factors mentioned most frequently by expatriates are

flexibility and openness, which clearly relate to personality characteristics. Ones and Viswesvaran (1997) criticise this rather non-theoretical work and propose a theoretical framework of expatriate performance that includes detailed assumptions about influences of various personality variables. However, they did not empirically test this model.

On this basis, Caligiuri (2000a) investigated the role of the FFM personality characteristics for job performance abroad of US expatriates. Parallel to findings in domestic settings (Barrick & Mount, 1991), only conscientiousness was related to job performance abroad.

Slightly different results were found in a study on German expatriates (Stierle et al., 2002): In this sample, extraversion, openness, and emotional stability were related to self-ratings of job performance abroad.

Shaffer and colleagues (2006) report extensive analyses of the influence of personality on expatriate performance in multiple countries. They also account for the spill-over relationship of bad adjustment to bad performance (Shaffer & Harrison, 1998) and make concise arguments for the relationship of each big five characteristic with environmental adjustment, social adjustment, work adjustment, intention to quit, and performance. They showed that, in contrast to domestic findings and findings by Caligiuri (2000a), conscientiousness was the most unimportant factor of all for the whole set of dependent variables. Agreeableness and extraversion, however, had consistently the strongest relationships with the dependent measures, both for cross-sectional and longitudinal datasets. Openness was the only overall predictor of performance that also had an effect on work adjustment. These findings do largely support Shaffer et al's theoretical reasoning, but are not in unison with findings of other empirical studies nor with the theoretical reasoning of Ones and Vishwesvaran (1997).

To sum up, considerable progress has been made to create evidence for links between personality and sojourner performance. However, the most prevalent theoretical arguments why personality and expatriate performance should be related (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997; Shaffer et al., 2006) are contradictory with each other and the evidence available above does not fully support either line of reasoning. This suggests that, similar its role for adjustment, personality shows effects on performance not only through single traits, but also through the combination of these traits into certain personality configurations or types.

The construct of multicultural personality has been less frequently examined as a predictor of performance abroad. The evidence that is available shows that multicultural personality is also able to predict academic performance of students abroad (Van Oudenhoven & Van der Zee, 2002). Due to the comparable structure of the multicultural personality model and the FFM it can be assumed that multicultural personality should also be a predictor of the non-academic performance of students abroad, e.g. when they are on a work placement.

Hypothesis 2b: Multicultural personality is positively related to performance abroad.

Aside from arguments for a direct link of personality and performance, a consistent influence of personality on both adjustment and performance can be expected due to the relationship between these two outcomes:

Many cross-sectional studies have found that adjustment and performance are positively related. Aycan (1997) proposes that good performance is based on good cultural adjustment. Similarly, Ones and Viswesvaran (1997) state that successful adjustment should be treated as a precondition for good performance. Empirical studies confirm these suggestions. Shaffer and Harrison (1998) conceptualise adjustment as an antecedent of job performance abroad. In a cross-sectional study, they found relationships between .13 and .34 between adjustment and work satisfaction. Cultural adjustment was also shown as having a positive direct relationship with expatriate performance and as mediating the relationship between external factors and performance (Kraimer et al., 2001). In their meta-analysis of 66 studies, Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer & Luk (2005) found that cultural and work adjustment were closely related to both job satisfaction and job performance of expatriates and were better predictors of these variables than attitudinal measures.

Thus, it can be assumed that an easy adjustment process allows an expatriate to perform well and get quickly up to speed with their tasks on the assignment abroad. When having severe difficulties adjusting to another culture, this should ultimately also be mirrored in an expatriate's performance. Positing that the same multicultural personality characteristics are related to both outcomes (see hypotheses 2a and 2b above), this implies that the relationship between multicultural personality and adjustment is a

direct one, while the relationship between multicultural personality and performance is mediated by cultural adjustment.

Hypothesis 2c: Cultural adjustment partially mediates the positive relationship between multicultural personality and performance abroad.

Temporal stability of adjustment and performance

A major critique on evaluating the success of intercultural training or expatriate assignments on cultural adjustment has been that adjustment should be regarded as a process variable, rather than a stable criterion of success (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997).

Cultural adjustment has originally been proposed as the process of overcoming culture shock (DuBois, 1951). Oberg (1954) conceptualised culture shock and adjustment as a four-stage process, beginning with a phase of excitement and interest in the novel situation (honeymoon phase), which he supposes to last for only a few weeks. At some point, the novelty wears off and sojourners realise that their stay in a foreign culture requires them to take up not only with the nice aspects of their new environment, but also cope with aspects that go against their own norms and customs and possible even against their core values. This stage is called disillusionment, or culture shock. Out of this disillusionment arises the stage of adjustment, where sojourners gradually adapt to the new culture and learn how to behave in accordance with new cultural norms as well as reconcile differences in values and opinions between home and foreign culture. Oberg proposed that, given the right time and circumstances, full cultural adjustment can be accomplished (mastery stage).

Even though this conceptualisation, widely known as the U-curve theory of adjustment, makes instant sense to most sojourners, empirical validation of this theory has proven difficult. As Black and Mendenhall (Black & Mendenhall, 1991) point out, too little empirical evidence for the process of adjustment exists so that this theory could be neither accepted nor rejected.

Up to now, only three articles satisfied criteria to be included in a re-analysis on the issue (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). This re-analysis revealed an S-shaped, rather

than a U-shaped development of cultural adjustment. The initial honeymoon phase seemed to end at about 12 months into the sojourn and was followed by a longer phase of disorientation or frustration that reached its lowest point at about 3 years into the assignment. After this stage, stabilisation and adjustment occurs again and reaches a comparable level to the honeymoon phase at about 4 years into the assignment. Very few data are available after this time, thus predictions whether the curved development continues or levels off are speculation at best. However, looking at the relatively short term development within the first year, Bhaskar-Shrinivas and colleagues clearly show an increase of adjustment over time.

Thus, in the present study it is assumed that this effect can also be found when monitoring the adjustment of students who go abroad within the first year after their leave.

Hypothesis 3a: Environmental, social, and work adjustment of students on placements abroad show an increase over time in the first year of the sojourn.

Further, analyses of the development of adjustment today do not take into account how various factors (e.g., training, personality, characteristics of the host culture) influence the development of adjustment. Ones and Viswesvaran (1997) criticise that adjustment, due to its process nature, is not a suitable success measure for intercultural assignments.

However, it might be exactly this process nature that makes adjustment a very interesting criterion to evaluate the success of intercultural training. It would be interesting to investigate how intercultural training can impact on the process of cultural adjustment. As reviewed above, cross-sectional evaluation studies on intercultural training that compared the adjustment of trained expatriates with untrained expatriates (Earley, 1987; Randolph et al., 1977; Worchel & Mitchell, 1972) show that trainees' adjustment develops either faster or reaches higher levels than the adjustment of untrained expatriates. Thus, intercultural training works not only to increase the absolute level of adjustment, but also exerts a positive influence of the development of sojourners adjustment over time. Shaffer and colleagues (Shaffer et al., 2006) point out that adjustment is often seen as spilling over into performance. Thus, intercultural training should show similar effects on cultural adjustment and on performance.

Hypothesis 3b: The cultural adjustment and performance of students who participated in intercultural training shows a better development over time than the adjustment and performance of students who did not receive training.

Method

Participants and procedure

Participants were 114 students from Aston University who were required to complete work/study placements in Germany, Austria, and France as part of their degree. Participants were recruited from the population of placement students in 2004/5 (n=47) and in 2005/6 (n=67).

All students were informed that participation in this study was completely voluntary. No course credits or other rewards were offered. Participation was confidential but not anonymous, as students' SUN number was taken to link data from different points of measurement.

The procedure was identical for both cohorts. Students were contacted at two points of time during their placement year, in October and February. These times correspond to approximately 4 months (T1) and 8 months (T2) of placement experience. All students from Aston Business School and the School of Language and Social Sciences who were currently on international placements received a personalised email asking them to participate in this study. Students received different invitations to this study, depending on whether they had participated in the intercultural training or not. Students who had participated in the training were informed that this questionnaire explored how they were doing on their placement abroad, and that it was designed as a follow up measure on the training they had received before departure. Students who had not participated in ITIP were informed that the goal of the study was to monitor generally how they were doing abroad. A reminder was sent to all non-respondents 10 days after the first email. Responses of both times of measurement were linked via students' SUN

number. Participation rate could not be monitored in 2004/5 due to technical circumstances. Data from 2005/6 shows a response rate of 55 percent.

Responses were given by 26 students who had completed the single-mode training and 28 students who completed the concurrent training. The other 60 participants without intercultural training served as comparison group.

After data collection had finished, all students who had indicated their interest received personalised feedback on their personality scores from T1 and T2. Further, all participants were informed about the opportunity to correspond with the author for any further questions or queries they might have about being abroad or about this research.

On average, participants were 20.54 years old and had achieved a grade point average of 59.8 points in their second year of study. The majority of respondents were women (n=83 or 73%). No significant differences in demographics were observed for the three subgroups of participants in training A, training B, or no training. The respective tests regarding age ($\chi^2(12) = 4.80$, *n.s.*), gender ($\chi^2(2) = 1.57$, *n.s.*), or grade point average before going on placement ($\chi^2(47) = 20.97$, *n.s.*) were nonsignificant.

Intercultural training

The intercultural training was delivered approximately 5 months before departure. Both the single-mode and concurrent training contained a cognitive and an experiential part. The cognitive part was a 3-week training of critical incidents delivered online. Each week a training session of app. 90 min duration had to be completed. The format and duration of this part was comparable between the single-mode and concurrent training. However, instruction and learning goal varied. For details of the intercultural trainings, see chapter IV.

After the online training, participants of both the single-mode and concurrent training completed a 90-minute workshop that focussed on an intercultural role play. After the role play, students received individualised feedback and reflected in small groups about their training experiences and expectations towards their year abroad. Detailed descriptions of the negotiation role play can be found in chapter VI.

Measures

Training participation

Training participation was checked by SUN number and measured categorically. It was coded 0 for no participation, 1 for participation in the single-mode training, and 2 for participation in the concurrent training.

Multicultural personality

Multicultural personality was measured with a 46-item version of the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire MPQ (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). The MPQ comprises five scales assessing personality traits important in multicultural settings: cultural empathy, emotional stability, social initiative, flexibility, and open-mindedness. Participants rated their agreement to personality statements on a scale from 0 = "totally not applicable" to 4 = "completely applicable".

Adjustment

Adjustment was measured with the 14-item scale from Black and Stevens (1989). This measure incorporates the 3-facet concept of adjustment (Black et al., 1991) and was confirmed to fit the construct well (Shaffer et al., 1999). Participants were asked to express the degree to which they found they were adjusted to each item. Scale ranged from 1 = "not adjusted at all" to 6 = "very well adjusted".

Environmental adjustment comprised 7 items and referred to the degree of comfort with general living conditions, such as housing conditions, food, shopping, cost of living, entertainment, and health care facilities.

Social adjustment contained 4 items referring to socialising with host nationals in general, Socialising with host nationals, on a day-to-day basis, outside of work, and speaking with host nationals

Work adjustment comprised the three items of specific job responsibilities, performance standards and expectations, and supervisory responsibilities. In order to correspond better with the students' situation abroad, the last item was rephrased into "responsibilities my supervisor fulfils towards me".

In addition, overall adjustment was assessed with a single item.

Performance

Performance was assessed with two self-rating measures designed for this study: relative and overall performance. This approach was chosen to ensure comparability of performance ratings. The high diversity of students' activities on their placement (e.g. work, study, teaching assistantship) rendered it impossible to obtain comparable and consistent performance ratings from other sources than students themselves.

Relative performance: Performance was assessed not in absolute terms but based on performance expectations. In order to minimise influences of exceptionally high personal standards and perfectionism, different anchors were chosen form measurement (Hewitt & Flett, 1991). Three items asked students to judge their performance in relation to expectations from different parties .

Overall Performance: Overall performance was assessed with one item. Items of all measures are listed in Appendix 2.

All measures were sufficiently reliable at both points of time. Scores of internal consistency are included in Table 7.1.

Results

Methodical considerations

Scale characteristics

All measures were examined for normality. Some measures (social adjustment, overall adjustment, and relative performance at T1; social adjustment, work adjustment, and overall adjustment at T2) had significant negative skews and high kurtosis. Non-normality of variables can distort results of multivariate statistics, thus the use of transformed variables for further analysis is recommended (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2002). A problem with transformed values, however, lies in the limitations they add to the interpretation of results. Therefore all analyses were conducted with transformed and untransformed scales to assess the degree to which non-normality distorts the results.

Quadratic transformations for all non-normal variables fulfilled criteria of normality. Only very small differences were found between analyses using the original scales and the transformed scales. Comparing the results, non-normality of data had any influence on results at all, and in some cases even lead to an underestimation of effects compared to transformed scales. Because of the better interpretability of original scale values and the marginality of differences, all results reported below are obtained with the original scales.

An overview of descriptives and correlations between all dependent measures at T1 and T2 is given in table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1: *Descriptives and Correlations of all measures at T1 and T2*

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1
Env. Adjust T1	4.59	.74	(.77)	.62***	.44***	.50***	.65***	.50***	.23	.19	.30*	.C
Soc. Adjust T1	4.71	1.06		(.93)	.36***	.36***	.60***	.37***	.21	.13	.44***	.C
Work Adjust T1	4.72	.95			(.87)	.56***	.52***	.52***	.29*	.10	0.1	.C
Rel Perf.T1	4.25	.65				(.76)	.46***	.80***	.05	.31*	.15	.C
Overall Adjust T1	4.90	.96						.51***	.08	.25	.36**	.C
Overall Perf. T2	4.33	.83							.03	.25*	.15	.C
Cult. empathy T1	4.04	.49							(.83)	-.01	.29*	.1
Emot. stability T1	3.13	.53								(.70)	.34**	.2
Social initiative T1	3.68	.65									(.86)	.4:
Flexibility T1	3.40	.46										(.6
Open-minded T1	3.83	.50										
Env. Adjust T2	4.61	.79										
Soc. AdjustT2	4.77	1.03										
Work Adjust T2	4.88	.84										
Rel Perf. T2	4.36	.69										
Overall AdjustT2	5.04	1.01										
Overall Perf. T2	4.11	.77										
Cult. empathy T2	4.00	.44										
Emot. stability T2	3.06	.75										
Social initiative T2	3.33	.47										
Flexibility T2	3.79	.54										
Open-minded T2	3.51	.66										

Table 7.1: *Descriptives and correlations (cont'd)*

	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Env. Adjust T1	.51***	.40***	.48***	.28*	.39**	.25*	.15	.19	.36**	.22†	.34**
Soc. Adjust T1	.43***	.55***	.42***	.31*	.42***	.28*	.13	.29*	.42***	.25*	.35**
Work Adjust T1	.34**	.31*	.60***	.46***	.35**	.34**	.41***	.17	.17	.13	.22†
Rel Perf.T1	.54***	.45***	.57***	.46***	.54***	.46***	.20	.32*	.32*	.25*	.19
Overall Adjust T1	.35**	.37**	.45***	.25*	.45***	.28*	.16	.29*	.47***	.30*	.34**
Overall Perf. T2	.44***	.47***	.44***	.30*	.54***	.44***	.08	-.08	.21	-.12	.49***
Cult. empathy T1	.25	.19	.32*	.26	.03	.15	.71***	-.08	.21	-.12	.49***
Emot. stability T1	.37*	.40**	.14	.18	.40**	.31*	.01	.79***	.51***	.30*	.31*
Social initiative T1	.36*	.44**	.19	.33*	.30*	.34*	.19	.39**	.89***	.35*	.61***
Flexibility T1	.25	.22	-0.2	-.01	.14	.11	.12	.46**	.49***	.80***	.49***
Open-minded T1	.41**	.40**	.40**	.43**	.31*	.32*	.66***	.19	.64***	.16	.64***
Env. Adjust T2	(.81)	.61***	.58***	.35***	.77***	.30**	.13	.32**	.21	.20	.38***
Soc. AdjustT2		(.93)	.52***	.42***	.67***	.43***	.20	.28*	.28*	.04	.38***
Work Adjust T2			(.90)	.56***	.54***	.50***	.26*	.21	.17	-.06	.26*
Rel Perf. T2				(.75)	.39***	.69***	.22	.22*	.23*	-.11	.29**
Overall AdjustT2						.38***	.06	.34**	.27	.21*	.39***
Overall Perf. T2							.13	.32**	.22*	.05	.18
Cult. empathy T2							(.86)	.12	.26*	.03	.53***
Emot. stability T2								(.87)	.49***	.57***	.35***
Social initiative T2									(.89)	.46***	.45***
Flexibility T2										(.69)	.31**
Open-minded T2											(.82)

Note. Internal consistencies in brackets. Autocorrelations between T1 and T2 in bold. ● 1 item only. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

In order to assess the role of personality for adjustment and performance, its temporal stability should be ensured. Evidence from previous studies suggests that multicultural personality has both concurrent and predictive power on aspects of cultural adjustment and personal well-being (Van Oudenhoven & Van der Zee, 2002). In order to generalise findings on the predictive power of multicultural personality, the construct should show sufficient temporal stability.

Thus it was examined whether facets of multicultural personality were systematically changing from T1 to T2. A first look at retest reliabilities of multicultural personality measured at T1 and at T2 reveals medium to high autocorrelations for all personality scales; only flexibility showed a lower autocorrelation than the other scales. Considering the rather long time lag between the two points of measurement, all re-test reliabilities were deemed sufficient.

Further, in a repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (GLM), personality data for all respondents at T1 and T2 (*N*=42) were examined. No multivariate effect for time emerged (Hotellings T^2= .18, $F(5,37)$= 1.30, *n.s*). Univariate tests for time were not significant, either. Taken together, these results indicate that multicultural personality in this study could be taken as a stable construct whose facets are not easily changed or developed by exposure to multicultural environments.

Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis 1 a-b concerned training group differences in adjustment and performance.

Due to the interrelations of dependent measures with each other, group differences in dependent measures were tested with a multivariate analysis of variance of the effects of training group membership on adjustment and performance (GLM method). Multivariate analysis of variance assesses the effect of one or multiple categorical factors onto ordinal-scale dependent measures. In the present study, the influence of training group was assessed on measures at T1 and at T2 separately.

The overall multivariate test of differences at T1 between students who participated in the single-mode training (*n* = 23), concurrent training (*n* = 24), or no

training ($n = 49$), was not significant (Pillai's $T^2 = .16$, $F(12,178) = 1.32$, n.s). The greatest characteristic root statistic ($gcr = .15$, $F(6,89) = 2.29$, $p < .05$) was significant, but due to its sensitivity to unequal group sizes it was discarded in this case. However, a significant between-subject effect emerged for social adjustment ($F(2,93) = 5.04$, $p < .01$) In order to interpret this effect, planned pairwise comparisons of the three training groups - single-mode training, concurrent training, and no-training control group - were made (m_{single} = 4.58; $m_{concurrent}$ = 4.23; $m_{control}$ = 5.01). The difference between the concurrent training and the control group was significant ($\delta = .78$, $p < .01$), while the difference between the single-mode training and the control group was only marginally significant ($\delta = .43$, $p < .10$). Contrary to hypothesis 1a-b, students who had not participated in intercultural training perceived their social adjustment higher compared to students who had participated in intercultural training, especially those in the concurrent training. Similarly, students with no training judged their overall adjustment significantly higher than participants of in the concurrent training (; $m_{concurrent}$ = 4.52; $m_{control}$ = 5.04; $\delta = .50$, $p < .05$).

Similar to the above analysis at T1, training group differences at T2 of participants in the single-mode training ($n = 19$), concurrent training B ($n = 18$), and no training ($n = 43$) were investigated with a multivariate analysis of variance. The multivariate test statistics were slightly larger than at T1, but not significant (Pillai's $T^2 = .21$, $F(12,146) = 1.45$, n.s.). Again, the greatest characteristic root statistic ($gcr = .20$, $F(6,73) = 2.48$, $p < .05$) was significant but considered inappropriate. This time, none of the between-subject effects reached significance.

In sum, results for T2 revealed no difference in the how participants of the three groups judged their cultural adjustment and performance abroad. Thus, hypotheses 1a and 1b could not be confirmed.

Multicultural Personality, Adjustment and Performance abroad

Hypothesis 2a-c stated that students with high multicultural personality would adjust more easily and perform better in a new cultural environment. It was hypothesised that multicultural personality as a whole, rather than singular characteristics, would prove beneficial for adjustment and performance. In order to test this, both concurrent and predictive power of multicultural personality were examined.

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First, the concurrent relationships of multicultural personality and dependent measures were examined at T1 and at T2. Due to the limited sample size and high number of predictor variables in this analysis, a multivariate analysis was not feasible. Instead, a series of regression analyses on the dependent measures was conducted. Correlations of the personality scales with each other showed medium to high interrelations, thus multicollinearity was examined. However, no indication of excessive multicollinearity could be found (all tolerance values > .25).

For variables in which the overall R^2 explained by personality was significant, unique regression coefficients were examined to see which personality scales were the main contributors to the multivariate effect. As Garson (2006) pointed out, regression coefficients in multiple regression analysis have to be interpreted with caution. The computed size of a unique regression coefficient does not express the absolute relationship of the predictor with the dependent variable; inferential tests based these coefficients are meaningless. Conclusions about the absolute relationship between variables should be made from the correlation table 7.1 above. Regression coefficients in multiple regression indicate the unique importance of each predictor variable relative to the model specified in the regression equation. Those variables with a high coefficient contribute more to the overall explained variance than those with a low (or even negative) coefficient. Table 7.2 below lists the amount of variance explained by multicultural personality measured contemporarily with the dependent variables at T1.

Table 7.2: *Influence of personality on adjustment at performance at T1*

	Predictor: Multicultural Personality T1		
Variable	R^2	df	F
Env. Adjust T1	.13	5,54	1.65
Soc. Adjust T1	.23	5,54	3.15*
Work Adjust T1	.13	5,54	1.60
Overall Adjust T1	.16	5,54	2.07[†]
Rel. Performance T1	.20	5,54	2.76*
Overall Performance T1	.13	5,54	1.57

* $p < .05$; [†] $p < .10$

Looking at unique regression coefficients for measures with a significant overall R^2, the following patterns emerged: Emotional stability was relevant for relative

performance (β = .28) and overall performance (β = .20). Open-mindedness showed to be important for work adjustment (β = .28), relative performance (β = .49), and absolute performance (β = .36). Social initiative made high contribution to explaining environmental adjustment (β = .20), social adjustment (β = .45), and overall adjustment (β = .38). Flexibility, compared to the other personality variables, made the smallest contributions to explain variance in any of the dependent measures at T1 (all coefficients between β = -.15 and β = -.06).

Next, multicultural personality gathered at T2 on was regressed on adjustment and performance at T2, in analogy to analyses above. Table 7.3 gives an overview of explained variance by personality as measured in T2.

Table 7.3: *Influence of personality on adjustment at performance at T2*

	Predictor: Multicultural Personality T2		
Variable	R^2	df	F
Env. Adjust T2	.19	5,75	3.15**
Soc. Adjust T2	.23	5,75	4.45***
Work Adjust T2	.18	5,75	3.21**
Overall Adjust T2	.23	5,75	4.47***
Rel. Performance T2	.22	5,75	4.28**
Overall Performance T2	.15	5,75	2.56*

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

The highest contributions of facets of multicultural personality, again, were emotional stability and open-mindedness. Emotional stability influenced environmental adjustment(β = .25), social adjustment (β = .27) work adjustment (β = .30), overall adjustment (β = .25), relative performance (β = .30) and overall performance (β = .38). Open-mindedness influenced environment adjustment (β = .36), social adjustment (β = .34), and overall adjustment (β = .42). As in T1, flexibility showed the lowest contributions to all dependent variables ($-.43 < \beta < -.06$).

Finally, the predictive power of multicultural personality measured at T1 for adjustment and performance at T2 was assessed with the same procedure as for the concurrent analysis. Table 7.4 below shows that multicultural personality is also a good long-term predictor of adjustment and performance.

Table 7.4: *Influence of personality at T1 on adjustment at performance at T2*

Variable	Predictor: Multicultural Personality T1		
	R^2	*df*	*F*
Env. Adjust T2	.25	5,37	2.42*
Soc. Adjust T2	.28	5,37	2.85*
Work Adjust T2	.30	5,37	3.19*
Overall Adjust T2	.27	5,37	2.70*
Rel. Performance T2	.24	5,37	2.22[†]
Overall Performance T2	.17	5,37	1.52

* $p < .05$; [†] $p < .10$

Again, emotional stability and open-mindedness were confirmed as the most important predictors. Emotional stability predicted environmental adjustment ($\beta = .27$), social adjustment ($\beta = .27$), overall adjustment ($\beta = .33$), and overall performance ($\beta = .23$). Open-mindedness predicted all facets of adjustment: Environmental adjustment ($\beta = .29$), social adjustment ($\beta = .27$), work adjustment ($\beta = .52$), and overall adjustment ($\beta = .57$). Further, open-mindedness had a high influence on relative performance ($\beta = .53$) and overall performance ($\beta = .28$). Again, flexibility made the smallest contributions to explain variance in any of the dependent measures at T2 (all coefficients between $\beta = -.42$ and $\beta = .06$).

Overall, these results indicate that multicultural personality characteristics are valuable to explain individual differences in adjustment and performance, disregarding of the length of time students had spent abroad. Further, personality also has high predictive power for future adjustment and performance. The most important predictors were emotional stability and open-mindedness, which showed significant contributions for almost all adjustment and performance variables. Interestingly, flexibility consistently came off worst as predictor of adjustment and performance. Most of its regression coefficients were negative, indicating that, all other conditions equal, flexibility might not have a positive effect on adjustment and performance (Hair et al., 2002).

Hypothesis 2c proposed a mediation of the relationship between multicultural personality and performance by cultural adjustment. In order to test for this, scales for the three areas were aggregated into second-level scales, which were then subjected to a regression test for mediation as proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986).

Reliability analyses for the second order scales showed good reliability for adjustment and performance at T1 and T2 (all alpha > .80) and acceptable reliability for personality at T1 and T2 (alphas of .70 at T1 and .73 at T2).

Correlations between contemporary second order scales were significant at both points of measurement:

Table 7.5: *Correlations of 2nd order measures*

	Personality (T1 / T2)	Adjustment (T1 / T2)
Performance T1 / T2	.24* / .29**	.60*** / .54***
Personality T1 / T2		.40** / 39***

* p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

Next, stepwise regressions were conducted to test if the relationship between personality and performance upholds if adjustment is entered in the equation. Results of this mediation at T1 and T2 are displayed below:

Table 7.6: *Mediation of the personality-performance link by cultural adjustment*

Step	Variable	Performance T1 / T2			
		β	R^2	ΔR^2	$\Delta F(df)$
1	Personality T1 / T2	.24* / .29**	.06 / .08	.06 / .08	3.43 (1,40) / 7.13** (1,79)
2	Personality T1 / T2	0 / .09	.36 / .30	.31 / .21	27.21*** (1,39) / 23.50*** (1,78)
	Adjustment T1 / T2	.60*** / .50***			

* p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

These analyses show that adjustment fully mediates the relationship between multicultural personality and performance abroad at both points of measurement. This is in line with hypothesis 2c, however, the size of this mediation is surprising.

Temporal development of adjustment and performance

Hypotheses 3a-b related to the temporal development of the dependent measures. In hypothesis 3a an increase in adjustment measures over time was proposed. Hypothesis 3b stated that this increase should be higher for participants of intercultural training,

compared to untrained sojourners. Due to the close relationship of adjustment and performance, performance was included in the analyses.

Hypotheses 3a-b were examined with a repeated measures MANOVA on all dependent measures at T1 and T2. Time of measurement served as within-subject factor, and, similarly to the analyses above, training served as between-subjects factor. Not all participants had responded at both points of time, thus complete data were available only from 62 students. 16 of these had participated in the single-mode training, 14 had taken the concurrent training, and 32 students had done no training.

Because of this small sample size, effect sizes rather than significance levels are reported. Cohen (1988) categorised effect sizes of $\eta^2 = .01$ as small, $\eta^2 = .06$ as moderate and $\eta^2 = .14$ as large effects.

In line with hypothesis 3a, the multivariate test for temporal development in adjustment and performance was large (Pillai's $T^2 = .38$, $F(6,54) = 5.77$, $\eta^2 = .38$). However, looking at univariate developments, the major impact came from the change in overall performance ($m_{T1} = 4.39$; $m_{T2} = 4.05$; $F(1,63) = 12.01$, $\eta^2 = .17$), which was actually a decrease.

Small increases were observed in work adjustment ($m_{T1} = 4.78$; $m_{T2} = 4.86$; $F(1,63) = .60$, $\eta^2 = .01$) and relative performance ($m_{T1} = 4.26$; $m_{T2} = 4.35$; $F(1,63) = 1.20$, $\eta^2 = .02$). These developments are pictured in figure 7.1 below.
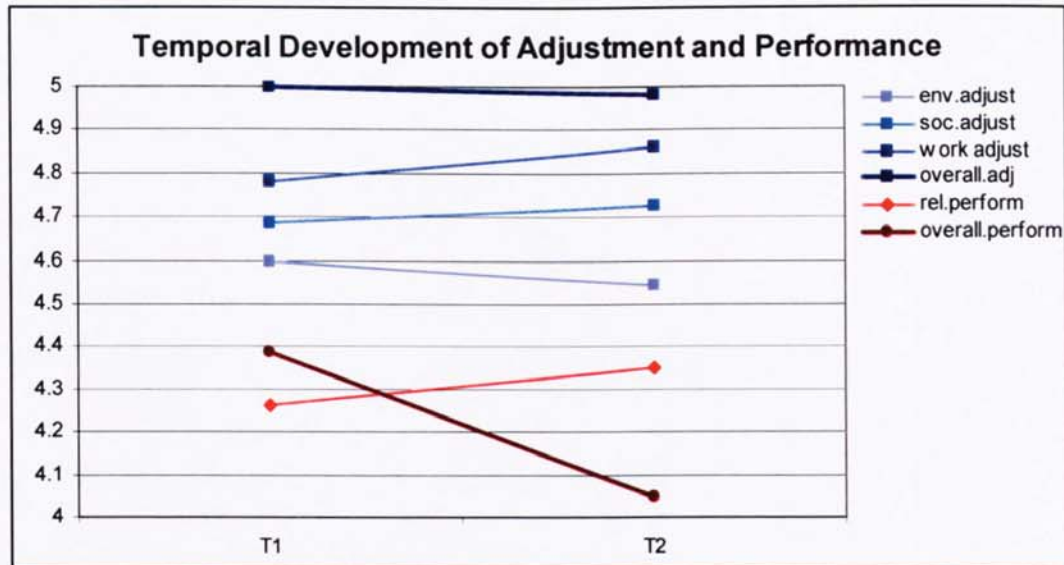

Figure 7.1: Temporal development of adjustment and performance across all groups

Thus, hypothesis 3a was confirmed in so far as the measures showed significant development over time, but not all measures showed an increase. Interestingly, the developmental trends of relative and overall performance are contradictory.

Hypothesis 3b stated that training participants should show a more advantageous development in their adjustment than students who received no training. This was tested with a repeated measures analysis of variance with time as the within-subject factor and training group as between-subject factor. Mean comparisons were performed for scales that showed significant multivariate changes.

Both main effects for time (Pillai's $T^2 = .41$, $F(6,54) = 6.21$, $\eta^2 = .40$) and training group (Pillai's $T^2 = .20$, $F(12,110) = 1.00$, $\eta^2 = .10$) were very large. Also the interaction term between training and time was substantial (Pillai's $T^2 = .24$, $F(12,110) = 1.22$, $\eta^2 = .12$). This indicates training group differences in the development of the outcome variables. Univariate tests of dependent measures were employed to shed more light on the nature and reasons for the large multivariate effects.

For training group differences as a main factor, only minor effects emerged on social adjustment (m_{single} = 4.58; $m_{concurrent}$ = 4.66; $m_{notrain}$ = 4.80; $F(2,59)$ = .32, η^2= .01), work adjustment (m_{single} = 5.14; $m_{concurrent}$ = 4.80; $m_{notrain}$ = 4.67; $F(2,59)$ = 1.85, η^2 = .06), and relative performance (m_{single} = 4.32; $m_{concurrent}$ = 4.44; $m_{notrain}$ = 4.26; $F(2,59)$ = .63, η^2= .02). However, in line with results for hypotheses 1a-b, no consistent pattern for training effects emerged.

Finally, the interaction of time and training was analysed. As table 7.7 below shows, the interaction effect between time and training emerged mainly in social adjustment, but some trends were also visible in work adjustment and overall performance:

Table 7.7: *Estimated means and contrasts for training groups at T1 and T2*

Variable	Subgroup	Mean T1	Mean T2	$F(2,59)$	η^2
Environmental Adjustment	Training A	4.58	4.49	.22	.01
	Training B	4.65	4.49		
	No Training	4.59	4.59		
Social Adjustment	Training A	4.41	4.73	2.93	.09
	Training B	4.46	4.86		
	No Training	4.93	4.67		
Work Adjustment	Training A	5.17	5.10	.49	.02
	Training B	4.79	4.81		
	No Training	4.58	4.76		
Overall Adjustment	Training A	5.06	5.13	.17	.01
	Training B	4.93	5.00		
	No Training	5.00	4.91		
Relative Performance	Training A	4.31	4.33	.18	.01
	Training B	4.36	4.52		
	No Training	4.20	4.29		
Overall Performance	Training A	4.50	3.94	.95	.03
	Training B	4.43	4.21		
	No Training	4.31	4.03		

The development of social adjustment, relative performance, and overall performance in the three training groups is also depicted in Figure 7.2 to 7.4 below:
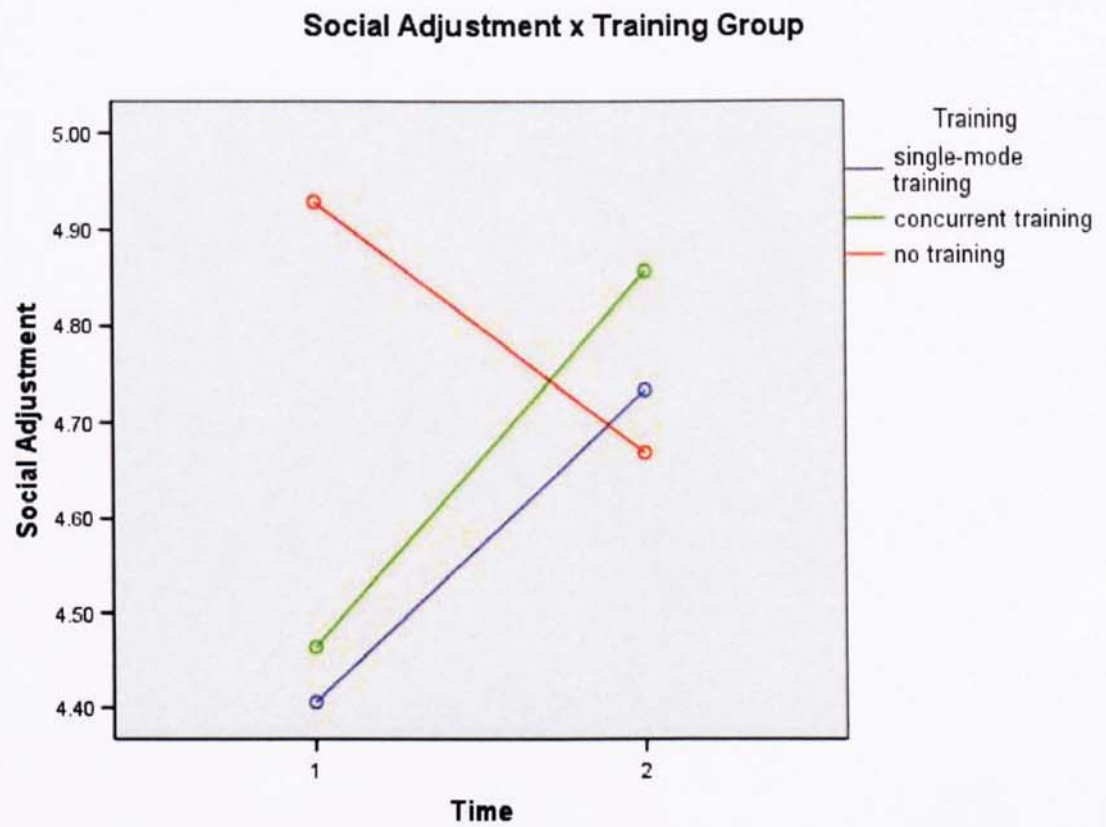
Social Adjustment x Training Group

Figure 7.2: Development of social adjustment by training group

Work Adjustment x Training Group
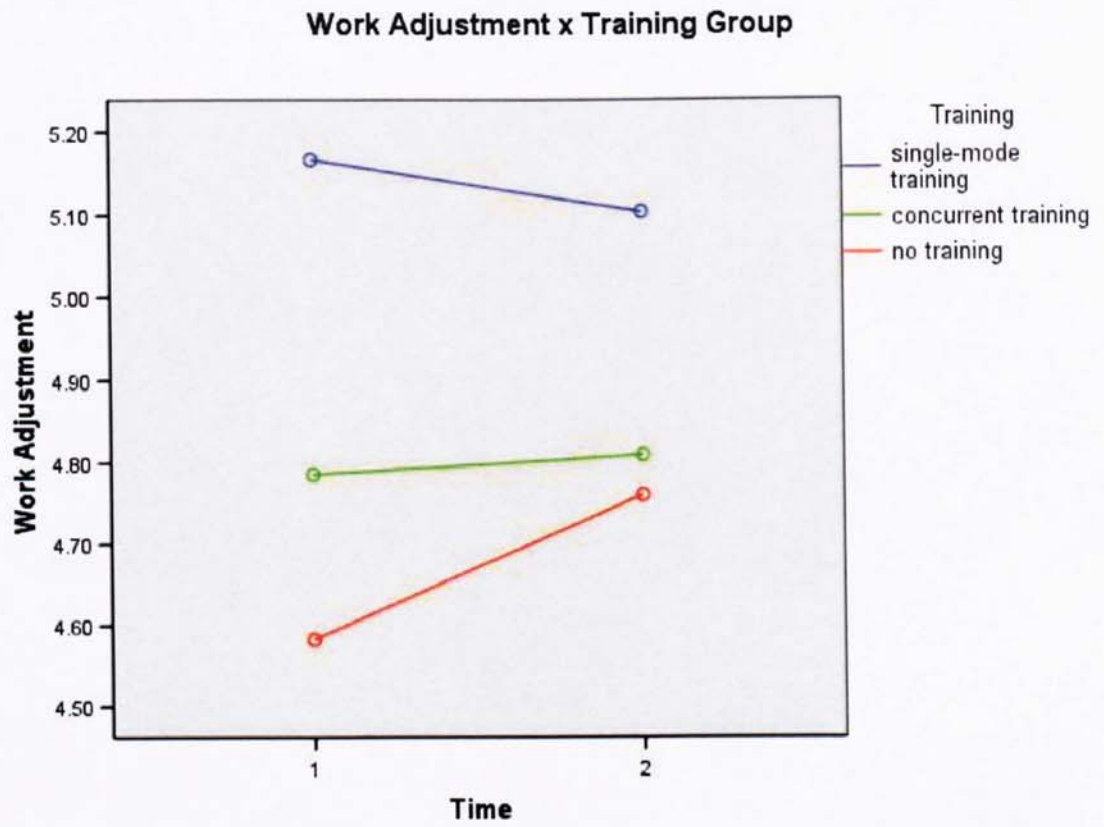
Figure 7.3: Development of work adjustment by training group

Figure 7.4: Development of overall performance by training group

As figures 7.2 to 7.4 show, participants in the concurrent training showed the overall best development of all three training groups over time.

Discussion

This chapter had three major aims: Measuring cultural adjustment and performance of British placement students in France and Germany at two points during their sojourn, it investigated the effectiveness of two intercultural trainings on these outcomes, the influence of personality, and the development of adjustment and performance over time. Results confirmed hypotheses in some but not in all areas.

Intercultural training effectiveness

The combinations of single-mode training and role play or concurrent training and role play could not yield systematic advantages in cultural adjustment and performance over an untrained control group. Moreover, the untrained comparison group rated themselves higher in social adjustment 4 months after their departure than either of the training groups. This finding is opposite to what had been predicted. It is possible that this result was due to the heightened awareness of training participants in both groups about potential adjustment problems: As part of the training, they had received information about the potential negative effects of cultural adjustment, e.g. homesickness, social isolation, the feeling of not being understood properly. Such information might have increased participants' sensitivity towards their own adjustment, which would have a negative impact on their initial adjustment scores.

The longitudinal development of adjustment and performance in the three groups showed trends more in line with predictions. When measuring adjustment and performance again eight months after departure, differences between training groups and the comparison group had disappeared. This implies that students in the training groups had a more positive development of adjustment and performance than untrained students in the time from four months to eight months after their departure.

Looking at the developmental trends in adjustment and performance rather than at absolute levels, an advantage emerged for the training group that received the combination of concurrent training and role play. This group showed the most positive development in social adjustment and the least negative development in overall performance compared to the other groups. Students who received no training felt that their social adjustment decreased with the time they spent abroad, while trained students felt an increase. Students who received the combination of concurrent online-training and role play seemed to be able to capitalise most on this, judging by the slightly steeper increase in social adjustment than those who received the combination of single-mode training and role play.

These findings are surprising. While it was expected that benefits of intercultural training should be noticeable immediately after students went abroad, results suggest that the benefits of intercultural training might be rather long term, on the short term

intercultural training could even exacerbate participants' difficulties to cope with cultural differences. This is in line with early results of Randolph, Landis and Tzeng (1977), who showed that assimilator training heightened initial anxiety with regard to intercultural encounters, but that this anxiety decreases over time.

However, effects in this area are very small and should be interpreted carefully. A possible explanation for the very small effects of training in this study is the time lag between training and point of departure. Due to logistic reasons, the training was held about 5 months prior to students' departure for their placement. In the meantime, many external variables, such as additional information on other cultures and the general preparation all students received in their normal study modules could have tainted potential training effects.

Overall, the effect sizes of this study are in line with observations of training effectiveness made in earlier studies. Morris and Robie (2001) as well as Mendenhall et al. (2004) pointed out that a detailed analysis of specific training methods could help shed light in the ambivalent findings of intercultural training effectiveness. Thus, the results in this chapter can be taken as first evidence that the combination of the concurrent online training with experiential role plays is possibly more effective than either no training or the combination of single-mode cognitive training with role play but that this effectiveness only shows after extensive periods of time in the other culture.

Multicultural personality

A second focus of this chapter was to assess the influence of multicultural personality on adjustment and performance of placement students abroad. As hypothesised, analyses of the concurrent and predictive influence of multicultural personality on these variables showed considerable effects.

Overall, high multicultural personality had positive effects on adjustment and performance both 4 months and 8 months after departure. Especially the four facets of environmental adjustment, social adjustment, work adjustment, and overall adjustment were explained to a large extent by multicultural personality.

Further, at both points of measurement, adjustment fully mediated the influence of multicultural personality on performance abroad. This is evidence for the hypothesis

that personality influences on outcome-related variables, such as performance, are driven by more internal, psychological factors like adjustment.

Unique contributions towards this influence were made mainly by the facets of emotional stability and open-mindedness, which proved to be the best predictors for adjustment and performance variables in all analyses conducted. Flexibility, on the other hand, is suspected to have no or even negative influence on adjustment and performance.

These results are in concordance with findings by Shaffer et al. (2006) for professional expatriates. Employing the FFM, these authors found that emotional stability and openness were the only predictors of work adjustment, and openness was the best predictor for task performance abroad. Emotional stability helps sojourners to tolerate stress and cope with unpleasant surprises, thus it is a vital characteristic for all sojourners, no matter if they are students or professionals. Similarly, people with high openness are more curious and eager to learn about other cultures and, through their additional knowledge, find it easier to make sense of other cultures. As Leiba-O'Sullivan (1999) points out, open-mindedness enhances sojourners perceptual skills, thus enabling them to make culturally appropriate attributions about the behaviour of host country nationals and to correct wrong attributions more quickly. Again, this skill is important not only for students, but for all types of sojourners.

Development of adjustment and performance

Finally, the third goal of this chapter was the assessment of the development of adjustment and performance over time. In concordance with hypotheses, most facets of adjustment showed a slight increase over time, but overall (perceived) performance made a sharp decrease. This result is unexpected as the positive correlations of adjustment and performance would suggest a similar development of the two concepts over time. However, it could also be explained by the nature of student work placements: In these placements, students are usually given time to adapt to the foreign environment before they are assigned to challenging tasks with any significant responsibility. When asking students about their performance during the time before they work on such challenges, they can easily self-report very high performance due to insufficient experiences. This effect could have been strengthened by the chosen assessment of performance relative to

expectations set towards these students. Naturally, such expectations vary with the nature of the task.

Strengths and Limitations

The student sample in this thesis has unusual advantages that increase the validity of the above findings for the purpose of expatriate selection. In contrast to many studies sampling professional expatriates, sojourning was not an option for participants in this piece of research: Virtually all of them were required to go abroad by their study degree. Usually, expatriates who are selected for expatriate assignments show an intrinsic interest in working abroad in order to be considered for expatriation. This suggests a certain self-selection bias, so it can be argued that conclusions from studies sampling only professional expatriates are not a representative for all employees. This has considerable implications for the use of such findings in selecting future expatriates for their assignments: Indeed, it might lead to a systematic underestimation of the relevance of personality traits for expatriate success due to the restricted range of personality types in professional expatriate samples. In the current study, such self-selection was less of an issue as students were not given the choice of going abroad, they had to do it in order to fulfil their degree criteria. The variance of adjustment and personality explained by multicultural personality in this study may therefore be a more realistic estimate for personality influences than results of many expatriate studies.

Thus, the nature of the sample in this chapter makes results more valuable for the selection of students, or even young professionals, to go on assignments abroad.

Limitations of this chapter are mostly methodological. Preliminary analyses showed a negative skew on some of the dependent variables, yet for the sake of interpretability the analyses reported were conducted with non-transformed scales. This might have given an overly conservative estimate of effects (Hair et al., 2002). Even though the present sample size is comparable to other studies into intercultural training, some small effects might have remained undiscovered due to the limited power of analyses.

Another critique concerns the measure of performance employed in this study. Due to the diversity of activities that students engaged in during their placement, relying

on supervisor or peer ratings of performance would not have been feasible. Similarly, academic grades, even though comparable across students, would not have been a suitable evaluation criterion for intercultural training, as the training goal was to prepare students for their placement experience, not to enhance their academic achievements. Therefore, self-ratings of performance were used. Self-ratings of performance abroad are subject to the same biases and influences as self-ratings of performance in general. Personal performance standards might distort answers. Strategies to minimise such influences were the dual assessment of relative and overall performance and the multiple anchors for relative performance, but it could not be guaranteed that the present ratings are bias-free.

A final limitation of this chapter is the time lag between the delivery of the training and students' departure abroad. A long gap between training and opportunity to perform has been shown to result in significant skill decay (Arthur, Bennett, Stanush, & McNelly, 1998). This gap could have mitigated and blurred potential training effects. Also,this study did not assess whether students engaged in additional preparation for their placement or what kind of preparation they used. Thus, possible effects of other volitional training are not accounted for. However, Taveggia and Santos (2001) found that self-initiated training, whether pre- or post-departure, had very little effects on adjustment outcomes, therefore it can be assumed that volitional trainings are unlikely to have had a impact on the present findings.

Future research

This chapter has given some interesting findings not only into the effectiveness of combined intercultural trainings, but also into the development of adjustment and performance over time and the role of multicultural personality for a successful sojourn. Future research should use the present findings to investigate potentially mitigating factors for training effectiveness like time lag between training delivery and departure abroad, or duration of the training. As this study has shown, small but important effects in the development of social adjustment can be traced back to the learning goals in combined intercultural trainings. It would be interesting to investigate further what

impact the learning goals of intercultural training and training design have for the long-term outcomes and success abroad.

Further, research into the relationship of personality traits and sojourner success should consider longitudinal approaches that include baseline personality measures of not only those employees who were successfully selected for an expatriate assignment, but also those who were not selected. Such a sample would be more useful to clarify the importance of personality in general, and the influence of specific personality traits, for expatriate selection.

The present chapter looked at sojourner performance at more than one point of time and brought evidence that self-rated performance is not static. Thus, it would be both interesting and important to examine the development of expatriate performance, as well as causal relationships between cultural adjustment and performance, in studies with more points of measurements and other samples, e.g. professional expatriates. For professional expatriates, the workplace and social interactions at work are more central than for students. Support from host-country nationals is a critical factor to ensure expatriates' success (Toh & DeNisi, 2005). Therefore an unsatisfying performance at the beginning of an expatriate assignment could, through the lack of support from host-country nationals, have negative consequences for long-term performance, and also for long-term work-related cultural adjustment and social relationships with colleagues.

Conclusion and outlook

This was the last chapter of the empirical part of this thesis. Looking at the long-term outcomes of the intercultural training ITIP, it completes the two previous chapters to establish a full cycle of training evaluation as advised in chapter III.

Results of this chapter show only small long-term effects of the two trainings offered within ITIP, with a slight indication that, on the long run, the concurrent training is more effective than the single-mode training and no training, at least as far as social adjustment is concerned. Results also include interesting findings about the role of personality for adjustment and performance, and the developmental nature of cultural

adjustment and performance abroad. In these two areas, the chapter clearly brings new insights and poses questions for future research.

In the next and final chapter, findings from the three empirical chapters will be integrated and discussed. The discussion then relates back to the model for intercultural training developed in chapter III and reflects on strengths, weaknesses, and possibilities for improvements of the ITIP training as it was designed for this thesis.

CHAPTER VIII: DISCUSSION

Synopsis

For some time now, researchers have designed and evaluated various intercultural training initiatives with mixed results. The interest to ensure a thorough preparation of expatriates is high, fuelled by the frequent claims of costly expatriate failure rates (Harzing, 2002). On the other hand, little attention has been given to the preparation of student sojourners, whose failure to adjust to other cultures can hardly be expressed in immediate monetary costs. However, on a long-term basis, the preparation of student sojourners is important for future workforce generations to acquire cultural competence that ensures their employability in a globalised economy.

The current research has developed a model of intercultural training and applied it to the situation of British university students who go abroad to France and Germany for a one year work/study placement. The effectiveness of this training was assessed in terms of the cognitive learning over the course of the training, its immediate behavioural outcomes, and its long-term behavioural outcomes regarding adjustment and performance abroad.

This chapter summarises and integrates the results obtained in the previous empirical chapters and discusses their relevance for research on intercultural training and expatriates in general. Further, it evaluates the overall training against the criteria developed in the model of intercultural training presented in chapter III and examines practical implications and possible improvements for future trainings.

Review and discussion research findings

While international sojourns for professionals and students are becoming more and more frequent, intercultural training is still an evolving field, both in research and practice. Various studies have looked into intercultural training for expatriates, but the practical offers of intercultural training for students and research into these trainings has remained scarce. Results from evaluations of intercultural training over the last decades fail to give clear insights into the effectiveness of intercultural training in general, effectiveness of specific methods, or effectiveness on specific criteria.

In order to prepare students - and professional expatriates - for their sojourn as well as possible, more knowledge needs to be gathered about the mechanisms of intercultural learning and the outcomes of specific training methods.

The present study was directed to provide insights into these areas. Specifically, it looked at three areas of intercultural training: The development of intercultural knowledge, the acquisition of skills for intercultural interaction, and the long-term effects of intercultural training on adjustment and performance abroad.

Besides the impact of training, various personality factors were examined regarding their relation and prediction on the outcomes above. In the following, the key findings of this study in the areas above are discussed regarding their importance for research and practice in intercultural training.

Development of intercultural knowledge

This thesis argued that, in order to improve the effectiveness of intercultural training, understanding the learning processes that occur during such training is essential. Therefore the first goal of the study was to identify the learning processes in intercultural training. In doing so, objective learning (i.e., the cognitive changes related to knowledge acquisition) as well as subjective learning (the perception of increased knowledge and skill) were examined.

Based on the neuropsychological findings that reveal declarative and procedural knowledge as two distinct forms of knowledge (Gabrieli, 1998), it was hypothesised that cognitive intercultural learning can be differentiated into declarative and procedural knowledge development.

This hypothesis was examined by comparing the knowledge increase gained through a training that was aimed at declarative knowledge development only (single-mode training) with the knowledge increase from a training targeted at both declarative and procedural learning (concurrent training). Analysing objective declarative and procedural learning over the course of three training sessions showed an almost linear development of declarative learning in both trainings, which is in line with the development of declarative learning in other areas, e.g., weather forecasting (Fera et al., 2005) or language learning (Ullman, 2004). Procedural learning showed a u-curved development over the three training sessions, which was in line with the hypothesis that procedural learning is a sequential process of stimulus discrimination and generalisation (Taatgen & Anderson, 2002). This result resonates with the complexity of procedural learning in other areas, such manufacturing processes (Taatgen & Wallach, 2002).

Further, declarative learning in this study provided a basis on which procedural learning can develop. This is a similar result to prior studies about the facilitative role of declarative learning for procedural learning, e.g. in the area of learning maths (Rittle-Johnson & Alibali, 1999) or sequential movements (Feldman et al., 1995).

The thesis also found that the absolute amount of declarative learning was higher in the single-mode training than in the concurrent training, indicating that declarative learning is based on learning opportunity (which was higher in the single-mode than in the concurrent training). However, the learning curve of participants in the concurrent training was steeper than that of single-mode training participants, suggesting that the dual focus on declarative and procedural learning creates synergies that facilitate declarative learning in the long run.

Taken together, these results on the differentiation of declarative and procedural learning and their development are useful to explain ambivalent outcomes of earlier studies evaluating intercultural training methods: It can be assumed that different

training methods lead to different learning outcomes (Ehnert, 2004); even more so, if the instruction and learning goals within those trainings vary. Examining what type of learning actually occurs in specific intercultural training methods is helpful to determine the best training method for a certain learning goal. The present study used a training design of small cases (critical incidents), delivered online. It suggests that e-learning based on critical incidents is helpful to enhance declarative cultural learning rather fast. But the development of procedural learning turned out a more complex process and takes training of longer duration before quantitative increases in procedural knowledge can be observed.

On a first glance it might appear that e-learning of critical incidents targeting both declarative and procedural learning is less effective than comparable training with a more in-depth focus on developing declarative learning only. However, the results have also shown that the combination of procedural and declarative learning helps trainees learn smarter and faster, once initial difficulties are overcome. Thus, for long-term trainings, a dual focus on both forms of learning can be most feasible.

Subjective learning

The second category of learning investigated in this thesis was subjective learning. Subjective learning are personal judgements about learning (Koriat, 1997) that draw on the perception of actual learning as well as implicit theories about learning. Therefore they do not necessarily coincide with objective learning. In this thesis, subjective learning was assessed for declarative and procedural learning separately in each training session. The development of subjective learning differed from objective learning such that both declarative and procedural subjective learning showed a linear development. Further, declarative but not procedural subjective learning showed a dependence on learning opportunity throughout the training. These results support the interpretation that subjective learning is influenced by implicit learning theories.

Specifically, extrinsic cues (e.g., learning opportunity) are important predictors for subjective learning. This parallels findings for subjective learning in other areas (Koriat et al., 2002). Further, no evidence was found for an effect of increasing underconfidence in one's learning, as it had been observed in other areas of learning (Simon & Bjork, 2001).

This suggests that participants had the adequate meta-cognitive skill to monitor their learning progress, which is a relevant skill for successful intercultural education and distance learning (Archer, 2001).

Taken together, these results show that both online trainings were effective in eliciting subjective learning in the declarative and procedural domain. Due to the higher ratings of participants in the single-mode training for their declarative learning, this training could be regarded as superior to the concurrent training if the main training goal is the increase of subjective feeling of knowing.

As discussed earlier, though, the single-mode training might be inferior to the concurrent training if the main training goal extends beyond declarative learning. This is an important finding with implications for further training practice. For intercultural trainings that aim to achieve goals like intercultural knowledge and confidence in one's intercultural skills, the single-mode training might be more appropriate as it elicited higher subjective learning. In cases where training goals pertain to the behavioural facets of intercultural competence, the concurrent training might be more suitable. To bring clarity to this interpretation, the effectiveness of the two training types on other training goals than those in the present study should be examined in further research.

Training effects on intercultural negotiation

The second goal of the study was to assess the immediate behavioural effectiveness of the single-mode and concurrent training for trainees' behaviour and performance in intercultural encounters. For this purpose, students underwent a face-to-face negotiation task, in which they took the role of a placement student and had to negotiate their boss' permission to go on a language course during working hours. The boss was played by French and German confederates.

It was hypothesised that participants of the concurrent training should show an overall better negotiation performance and a more culturally appropriate negotiation strategy than participants of the single-mode training. This hypothesis was based on the argumentation that the transfer gap between the declarative learning in the single-mode training should be larger than from the combined declarative and procedural learning of participants in the concurrent training. Further, because their training focussed on a more

active approach to learning that emphasised coming up with personal solutions to problems and responding creatively to cultural differences on top of recognising and understanding these difficulties, trainees of the concurrent training should also show a more active style to approach the negotiation situation. Trainees of the single-mode training, however, who were subjected to a more passive mode of recognising and explaining cultural differences, should show a more reactive approach to the intercultural negotiation. On top of that, the cultural dependence of the effectiveness of various negotiation strategies was examined.

Results showed no significant difference in the negotiation performance between participants in the single-mode and concurrent training. However, participants of the concurrent training showed a more active negotiation style, in that they requested more information from their negotiation partner, while participants in the single-mode training showed a more passive negotiation style and asked for less information, but provided more of it.

Looking at the effectiveness of negotiation strategies across cultures, important differences emerged between negotiations with French and German partners. Students were most successful in their negotiations with German partners when they made single-issue offers, showed many positive reactions, and had a relaxed body position. These behaviours were reciprocated in the behaviour of the German negotiation partner. This is in line with the model of Adair and Brett (2005), which proposes a phase of reciprocated information exchange in negotiations within and across cultures. Reciprocated information exchange is indicative of a beginning cooperation in the negotiation. The higher the emphasis on cooperation, these authors argue, the more both parties engage in finding a pareto-optimal negotiation outcome. Thus, the reciprocity found for single-issue offers and information exchange in the German scenario is not surprising.

In the French situation, however, such reciprocal behaviours could not be found. Rather, the most effective negotiations took a complementary negotiation approach: Students who provided much new information but were reactive in their overall negotiation behaviour achieved the best negotiation results; the native's behaviour was most effective the less unsolicited information he provided to the student. As Adair and Brett argue, providing unsolicited information is a strategy of showing vulnerability in order to establish a trustful relationship with the negotiation partner. Possibly such a

strategy was not feasible for the French native because he had a much higher status than the student in the role play setting. High status consciousness paired with superiority would not allow the French native to show vulnerability in order to establish an egalitarian relationship with the student, because it does not fit with his professional identity (Roberts, 2005).

Taken together, these results show that students' negotiation behaviour differed depending on whether they had completed the single-mode or the concurrent training, but that this difference was marginal. Both trainings proved similarly effective for the overall negotiation outcome, possibly because the trainings were not directly targeting negotiation behaviour but overall intercultural competence.

The transfer from training contents to the negotiation scenario was further impeded because students had to negotiate in their second language, limiting their choices of verbal negotiation tactics. Taking into account these difficulties, the differences in providing and asking for information between the two training groups are even more important, as they show that such training can influence participants' behaviour in novel situations. This is an interesting finding for the behavioural effectiveness of cognitive trainings, which, up to now, had been hard to establish (Earley, 1987; Harrison, 1992). The present study shows that both training types had an influence on students' behavioural strategies, and that these influences are related to the differences in training goals and content between the single-mode and the concurrent training. However, as no differences in negotiation outcomes emerged between training groups, more research needs to be done before a conclusion can be derived whether one training is more effective than the other in this regard.

Training effects on adjustment and performance

The third goal of this study was to assess the effectiveness of intercultural training on their long-term impact on students' adjustment and performance on their placements abroad. This was done because the long-term impact of intercultural training on these domains is often regarded as the most important criterion of training success (Morris & Robie, 2001; Waxin & Panaccio, 2005). Training participants of the single-mode and

concurrent training and an untrained control group were asked to give self-ratings of their adjustment and performance at two points of time during their placement.

It was hypothesised that students who had taken the concurrent training and negotiation role play should show better adjustment and performance than students who had participated in the single-mode training and role play, while both training groups should outperform the untrained control group. This hypothesis was based on the assumption that the concurrent training facilitates the transfer from training situations to real life situations do its focus on the development of procedural intercultural knowledge. This advantage should be even enhanced by the consecutive role play (Harrison, 1992). In contrast, the single-mode training's sole focus on declarative learning should enable students to recognise intercultural difficulties faster and explain them adequately, which should give participants an advantage over untrained students. Further, in line with earlier findings (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005), it was hypothesised that students' adjustment should increase the more time they spend in another culture.

The resulting differences between the three groups were rather small but showed an interesting trend. While participants in the two training groups compared to untrained students had a lower social adjustment shortly after they arrived abroad, the development of their social adjustment was positive, while for untrained participants it was negative. For overall performance, only the participants of the concurrent training showed consistently higher scores than the untrained control group.

Taken together, these results indicate that the combination of a concurrent training and an experiential role play yields the best long-term effects. This is in line with prior studies on training transfer, which have shown that certain training features, such as positive feedback or performance oriented instruction had a positive influence on transfer intentions and accomplished transfer (Cheng & Ho, 2001). It is also in line with the results about the learning development and immediate behavioural effectiveness of the concurrent and single mode training: In these areas, the concurrent training did also not show a direct quantitative advantage over the single-mode training, yet the development of learning and the more active approach to negotiation indicated that, on the long-term, this training might be able to enhance cultural competence better and on a broader level than the single-mode training could do. Such an interpretation is in unison with Hesketh's (1997) considerations that some training methods might yield higher short term outcomes

in specific areas on the cost of long-term transfer to a broader set of skills and situations. Due to the concurrent training's focus of integrating declarative and procedural knowledge and exercising transfer within the training, it is not surprising to find that this training carries better and broader long-term benefits than the single-mode training, or no training at all.

Personality effects

This study focused not only on the effectiveness of various training methods, but also on the impact of personality characteristics on intercultural learning, behaviour in intercultural situations, and adjustment and performance abroad. The personality aspects included in this thesis were self-efficacy, goal orientation, and multicultural personality.

Specifically, self-efficacy, learning goal orientation, and performance-prove goal orientation were hypothesised to be positively related to the learning processes in intercultural training. These variables as well as multicultural personality characteristics were also examined regarding their impact on students' behaviour in the intercultural negotiation setting. Finally, in line with cross-sectional results of earlier studies (Van Oudenhoven et al., 2003), high multicultural personality was also hypothesised to be related to high adjustment and performance abroad. The findings about direct correlations of personality characteristics with the above outcome variables are summarised in Appendix 8.

Importantly, no personality characteristics could be found that had an impact on objective intercultural learning. Subjective learning, however, was related to learning and performance goal orientations, and to general self-efficacy. However, this relationship was strongest at the training onset, implying that the relevance of personality aspects for subjective intercultural learning decreases with the time spent on the training. This result corroborates the importance of the time dimension in intercultural trainings, showing that in longitudinal trainings, the impact of personality variables becomes less important. This is interesting from a practical point of view, as it suggests that the trainability of cultural competence (that part of intercultural competence that is not a result of fixed personality traits) is higher in distributed trainings than in trainings providing all information within a short period of time. Also, multicultural personality was not related to intercultural

learning, showing that such characteristics, while acceptable selection criteria for overall expatriate success (Van der Zee et al., 2003), are not appropriate for the selection of intercultural training participants with regards to their learning.

Personality characteristics were also mildly related to participants' behaviour in intercultural negotiation settings. Participants high in learning goal orientation, performance-prove orientation, cultural empathy, open-mindedness and social initiative made more single-issue offers to the native negotiation partner. Performance-prove orientation and openness also related positively to participants' multi-issue offers. While a focus on single issues is connotated with a less integrative negotiation style in domestic settings (Henderson, Trope, & Carnevale, 2006), in the present intercultural setting it proved a viable strategy, especially when negotiating with the German partner. This implies that single-issue offers are used in intercultural negotiations not as a tool to achieve more confrontational outcomes, but as a way of managing the complexity of intercultural negotiation. Single-issue offers, often framed as suggestions and solutions rather than bargaining positions, are also a strategy to achieve agreement on a trial-and-error basis. Thus it is not surprising to find such a strategy related to certain personality characteristics, most prominently open-mindedness, learning orientation, and social initiative. However, future research should needs to look deeper into the way single vs. multi-issue offers are used in intercultural negotiations to corroborate this interpretation.

Interestingly, self-efficacy was unrelated to negotiation outcomes and negotiation behaviours in the present study, which contrasts findings on domestic negotiation training (Stevens, Bavetta, & Gist, 1993; Stevens & Gist, 1997). Similarly, no significant positive influence of multicultural personality on negotiation outcomes could be found. This implies not only that intercultural negotiation is more complex than domestic negotiation, but also that the general social self-efficacy might not be seen as relevant by participants for intercultural negotiation settings.

Finally, multicultural personality traits were put in relation with the long-term cultural adjustment and performance of students during their placement abroad. Findings showed that all aspects of multicultural personality were positively related to one or multiple forms of adjustment. This confirmed the idea that not single personality facets, but the configuration of an overall high multicultural personality is related to cultural adjustment. Looking at single facets, though, open-mindedness was the only aspect of

multicultural personality that related positively to all forms of adjustment: environmental, social, work, and overall adjustment. This is in line with the finding of van der Zee and Brinkmann (2004) about the utility of open-mindedness to predict international aspirations, and with Caligiuri's (2000b) result that openness enhanced adjustment through the increased contact with host country nationals.

Further, emotional stability, social initiative, and open-mindedness showed significant positive relationships with self-rated performance, both in terms of overall performance as well as performance relative to expectations of various comparison groups. These results, especially the influence of open-mindedness on all forms of adjustment and performance, corroborate the reasoning and findings of Shaffer et al. (2006). As their results were obtained with professional expatriate samples from Korea, Japan, and various other countries, the present resultsstem from British student sojourners in Europe. Thus, it can be concluded that the importance of open-mindedness to cultural adjustment and performance generalises across samples and cultures.

A result interesting from a theoretical and practical perspective was the proposed mediation of the impact of multicultural personality on performance by cultural adjustment. Cultural adjustment fully explained the relationship between personality and performance at both points of measurement. This implies that, contrary to the arguments of various studies about relationships of personality and expatriate performance (e.g., Ones & Visveswaran, 1997), this relationship is not direct. Rather, personality has certain impacts on sojourners' cognitions, feelings and behaviours in other cultures as captured under the umbrella of cultural adjustment. These cognitions, feelings and behaviours in turn enhance or diminish sojourners' performance at their work tasks. This relationship questions the validity of claims to abolish cultural adjustment as a criterion to evaluate expatriate success (Mol et al., 2005). Also, this implies that the selection of expatriates should take into account not only the personality characteristics proven relevant for expatriate performance, but also other factors that are important for good cultural adjustment, e.g. language skills or spouse adjustment (Stierle et al., 2002).

Practical evaluation of the ITIP training

In this thesis, the model of intercultural training proposed in chapter III was applied to a training for undergraduate students from a British university who were preparing for a year-long work/study placement abroad. In the following, the relevance and utility of the model and its four stages will be discussed in order to enhance the model, where appropriate, and show strengths and limitations of the present application.

Needs analysis

The first step in the model of intercultural training was a needs analysis on the level of the organisation and participants. Analyzing the organizational situation at the university revealed a highly diverse student and staff population. Data from the Language School were not available, but Business School data reveal that over forty percent of undergraduate students have a non-white British background. Further, fifteen percent of undergraduates and 37% of academic staff come from other countries (J. E. Green, ABS quality unit, personal communication, April 23, 2007). As Chen and Eastman (1997) have argued, increasing demographic diversity in organizations is related to a positive climate for diversity, i.e., an emphasis on values of equality and respect, as well as a strategy of differentiation and integration of all stakeholders in the organization. This is evident in the internationalization strategy of the business school and the multiple initiatives to widen university participation for ethnic minority background students. It was also evident in the support this training initiative received from key stakeholders across the university.

On a more specific level, organisational support for the overall scheme of international placements was already high. Students could find well-organised practical help for securing a placement, completing necessary formalities, and the logistics of an international move. They also received continuous support during their placement year from placement office staff and lecturers. However, the preparation offered to students for their international placement was less rigorous, showing an organisational need for

intercultural training. Thus, ensuring top level support for the initiative of training international placement students enhanced the readiness of important gatekeepers to grant access to students and necessary resources.

On the other hand, due to the diversity of student placements, host country support for the training could not be ensured. This might not have had immediate relevance for students' decision to participate in the training, but could possibly have hampered beneficial long-term effects of the training as there was no external stimulation for training transfer once students were on placement abroad.

The individual needs analysis revealed a multitude of goals and expectations of students toward their placement abroad. While many students expected it to shape their profile on the job market and equip them with the understanding of international business, they also perceived it as a developmental challenge for personal growth. However, the needs analysis for the ITIP training would have benefited from including experiences of past student sojourners. These students would have been able to contribute first hand experiences about what knowledge, skills and attitudes are actually necessary to complete international placements successfully.

Voluntary intercultural training prior to departure was decided on as the most adequate means to ensure students would reach their placement goals.

A person analysis was conducted in this training to explore the influences of multicultural personality (van der Zee & van Oudenhoven, 2000), goal orientation and self efficacy (Harrison, Chadwick & Scales, 1996) for the outcomes of intercultural training (the impact of these personality variables is discussed in detail in the previous section).

An individual needs analysis was conducted that focussed on the overall expectations of students for their placement. These expectations, together with the assessment of the current support given to student, informed the training objectives.

Specifically, training objectives were the increase of declarative and procedural knowledge about other cultures and the enhancement of students' ability to cope with cultural differences. The training should also improve students' self-confidence to cope in novel cultural environments. Students should understand the differences in cultural norms and practices between Britain and France and Germanic countries, be able to explain specific cross-cultural incidents to more general dimensions of cultural value orientations, and understand the difficulties and pitfalls of adjusting to other cultures.

Overall, employing a needs analysis on individual and organisational level proved very useful for the next steps of intercultural training, mostly for design and delivery. Future intercultural training in organisations and university should continue to utilise organisation and person analysis to design a training which is fitted to participants regarding training level, duration, method and complexity, and which fulfils goals of organisations and participants alike. This necessitates a streamlined process of person analysis prior to training design, which increases effort and potential costs for training development, but ensures that all stakeholders' needs are recognised and can be cared for.

Training design

The ITIP training was designed after reviewing the theoretical background and effectiveness of various training methods. The choice of training methods was based on previous results regarding their effectiveness and their suitability for the individual and organisational needs and training objectives determined in the needs assessment stage.

For research purposes, two parallel versions of the cognitive training part were developed. The single-mode training targeted only declarative learning development, while the concurrent training contained material for both declarative and procedural learning.

In line with recent suggestions to base cognitive trainings on meaningful culture theories, both trainings drew on theory-driven dimensions of cultural norms and practices on which France and Germanic countries different from Britain (House et al., 2004; Smith et al., 1996). Moreover, both trainings contained training content for adjusting to other cultures (Brislin et al., 1986).

The experiential part of the training was based on suggestions by Weiss (2003) on teaching methods for cultural aspects of negotiation. Again, the content of this part was informed by dimensions of variation in cultural values and practices (House et al., 2004).

Training delivery

Training delivery was scheduled for the spring term. While this led to a gap of approximately four months between training and departure abroad, this timing was the

most feasible from the participants' point of view. Students' preparation for their annual assessment period in the summer term did not allow them to engage in additional activities at any later point of time.

Blended e-learning

The first part of the training required basic computer literacy as well as internet access from the students. Students were generally skilled with the use of email and internet, but not all students preferred to do the training on university lab computers. Therefore the online training was designed to allow students to complete their sessions from any place in the world. Students had to be physically present only for the final training workshop.

The overall training method can be described as blended e-learning. Critical incidents in the cognitive part, as well as the negotiation role play in the second part are forms of problem-based learning, which in turn stimulates situated cognition (Hung, 2002). Similar training approaches have been previously advocated for intercultural training in organisations and the training of cultural awareness for university staff (Cameron & Limberger, 2004; Stewart, 2002).

Despite the many advantages of such a blended e-learning approach for intercultural training, it should be acknowledged that online learning poses higher requirements on trainees' self-regulation skills than the traditional academic teaching model (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1998).

Further, keeping the training voluntary required a sustained intrinsic training motivation. While self-regulation and sustained motivation are beneficial for overall learning, students who lack these skillsoften face negative outcomes. In the current training, a significant number of people dropped out of the training before completing all sessions. Potentially, these students might have been the ones who were in most need of such training. Such an explanation could be tested with comparisons of relevant personality characteristics between participants who completed the training and those who did not. While self-regulation and intrinsic motivation were not directly assessed, data were available on general self-efficacy. General self-efficacy is the confidence of people in their capabilities (Bandura, 1997) and influences which tasks people choose to

perform, what level of effort they expend, and the persistence with which they pursue a task (Woodruff & Cashman, 1993).

The comparison of average self-efficacy between participants who completed only one session (m_1 = 4.17), those who completed two sessions (m_2 = 4.35), and participants who did the whole training (m_3 = 4.53) showed a slight linear increase in self-efficacy over completed sessions ($F(2,66)$ = 2.74, p < .10). This suggests that motivational factors have indeed played a role for the completion or dropout of the training.

This is important for future applications of e-learning in intercultural training. Future trainings should aim to keep the required levels of self-regulation and intrinsic motivation as low as possible, e.g. through frequent and personal contact with participants, a strict time schedule, feedback to participants and small incentives to complete the training programme in time.

Another mechanism to decrease drop-out would be to make the training mandatory and integrate it with usual academic course requirements. However, the utility and learning outcome of a mandatory training are usually lower than of self-initiated training (Colquitt et al., 2000b; Covington, 2000), therefore the costs and benefits of such an decision should be judged critically.

Training transfer

Transfer enhancement strategies included in this training related mostly to short-term transfer. Repetition of underlying themes (culture dimensions) in critical incidents across training sessions allowed trainees to transfer their learning across situations and across training sessions. Rehearsal sections for all training sessions facilitated the recall of what had been previously learned, so that connections and analogies between old and new training could be built more easily.

The negotiation role play in the second part of the training included a short transfer exercise. This exercise asked trainees to outline what cultural differences they would like to take into account in the negotiation, and how they would go about their negotiation in order to reach their defined goal.

In future trainings, transfer enhancement strategies focussing on the long-term transfer from training into direct behaviour abroad should be added to the current

strategies. Such strategies should target the vertical transfer from training to real settings, i.e. the generalisation from specific skills to overall intercultural competences (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). A promising long-term transfer strategy could be mental practice in regular intervals after the training. Mental practice has shown superior to other transfer strategies (e.g., goal setting) in the context of social skills training (Morin & Latham, 2000) and could provide similar benefits for intercultural training transfer. Other transfer enhancers viable for intercultural training for students could be the creation of virtual student learning communities, such as virtual discussion rooms, blogs, and buddy schemes (Rossett, Douglies, & Frazee, 2003).

Furthermore, transfer enhancers could also be located on organisational level. Organisational culture and climate for transfer are important facilitators or barriers for training transfer. Specifically, social support systems that encourage continuous learning and the application of new knowledge are beneficial for training transfer (Tracey, Tannenbaum, & Kavanagh, 1995). The institutions and organisations that students join during their placement abroad play a beneficial role for training transfer if they encourage students to apply what they have learnt in their trainings. This support for transfer would help students' adjustment even further than general host-country support. Closer cooperation with host-country universities and companies to encourage training transfer would therefore be a valuable initiative for the future.

Training evaluation

Within the stage of training design, evaluation criteria had also been developed. These criteria were aligned with training objectives and comprised three out of the four levels proposed by Kirkpatrick (1990): reaction, learning, and behaviour. The forth level of results on institutional level was not evaluated, as the researcher could not guarantee objectivity.

Training reaction

The evaluation of training reactions was important to assess participants' overall feel of the training's usefulness and gather suggestions for further training improvement.

Training reactions can be differentiated into affective and utility ratings (Alliger, Tannenbaum, Bennett, Traver, & Shotland, 1997). While affective ratings are important as a measure of customer satisfaction, utility ratings show higher relationships with subsequent evaluation criteria, e.g. learning and behaviour. Therefore the present evaluation mainly assessed the training's usefulness. Training reaction was assessed at the end of the second training part, after the workshop. Training evaluation sheets (see Appendix 3) were completed anonymously to ensure confidentiality and to prevent experimenter effects. However, this procedure also thwarted any exploration into the question of systematic differences in training reaction between participants of the single-mode and the concurrent training. Overall, participants found the training they received useful and enjoyable. Some participants made suggestions for improvement, which ranked mostly about the accessibility and design of the online training format (Usefulness and satisfaction ratings of various aspects of the training are given in Appendix 9).

Learning

A major aim of this research was to compare the effectiveness of intercultural training targeted only on declarative learning with training aiming at both declarative and procedural learning. This was achieved by evaluating cognitive learning in the single-mode and concurrent training. In order to obtain a detailed picture of learning effects, both objective and subjective learning were assessed.

Results on the hypotheses regarding the development of learning are addressed in detail above. Taken together, these results give important insights into learning processes in cognitive intercultural trainings, but they are not substantial enough to judge one training method as superior over the other across all learning outcomes. Thus, recommendations for the future use of one or the other training depend on training objectives and goals: If the training goal is to enable participants to understand and explain cultural differences, the single-mode training might be more effective. If the overall training goal is to enable participants to respond creatively to intercultural problems, the concurrent training might be the more viable method.

Behaviour

Evaluation on the level of behaviour was conducted at three points of time: Immediately after the cognitive training, the behavioural effects of this training part were evaluated through trainees' negotiation behaviour. The behavioural effects of both training parts together were assessed as long-term consequences on adjustment and performance abroad four and eight months after departure.

Immediate behavioural evaluation showed few, but interesting differences between participants of the single-mode and concurrent training. Both trainings were comparable in the overall negotiation results that participants achieved but differed in the patterns of passivity or activity they evoked in participants' negotiation behaviour.

However, as the negotiation situation was standardised across participants, and only one intercultural episode per participant was conducted, firm conclusions about behavioural patterns that generalise to other intercultural situations would be premature. Clearly, more research into intercultural negotiation training that looks at the effectiveness of various training methods is called for.

Evaluation of long-term adjustment and performance abroad included a comparison group of non-trained students who were similar in age and experience to training participants. Overall, few differences emerged in the perceived adjustment and performance between participants in the single-mode training, the concurrent training, and the untrained control group. Participants of the concurrent training, though, showed the most promising developments in their adjustment and performance over time. This indicates that on a very long-term perspective (>1 year abroad), the concurrent training participants reach higher levels of adjustment and performance than participants of the single-mode training or people without intercultural training.

Summary

Overall, the evaluation of the intercultural training designed in this study shows that ITIP was seen as highly useful and achieved a multitude of objective and subjective learning outcomes. In this sense, both cognitive trainings forms were effective and fulfilled their practical goals.

Looking at long-term behavioural effects, however, the training impact of either type was relatively small. Most likely, the present intercultural training was challenged by the same issues of training transfer, lack of opportunity to perform, and skill loss, as training in other areas. Therefore, the most important improvement of ITIP for future practice would be the inclusion of transfer enhancement strategies in the phase between training and departure, as well as after departure, and the focus on vertical transfer of intercultural skills into generalised intercultural competence (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).

Contributions to knowledge

This research has contributions to knowledge mainly in two areas: Intercultural training and the role of personality for intercultural learning, cultural adjustment and performance abroad. These two areas will be discussed separately.

Intercultural training research

Intercultural learning

The present research has opened an interesting avenue by examining the process of intercultural learning. This contributes to the field of intercultural training, as previous studies only addressed the outcomes of intercultural training, but did not investigate how these outcomes were achieved.

The differentiation between declarative and procedural learning showed that these two processes have different qualities, but are not independent of each other. The beneficial influence of prior declarative knowledge on procedural learning is an insight that can guide future research into training as well as intercultural training practice. Specifically, it would be interesting to investigate how procedural learning might develop without explicit instruction for declarative learning. This would bring even further results about the relationships between the two forms of intercultural learning.

Further, this thesis highlights the importance to differentiate between objective and subjective intercultural learning. While both forms of learning are important and relevant in their own right, the results of chapter VI have shown that subjective learning might rely more on implicit theories of learning than on actual learning. This has implications for the interpretation of previous research as well as future research: Results of training effects that were obtained with objective learning indicators are not necessarily comparable with results obtained with subjective learning indicators. This differentiation could help explain seemingly contradictory effects of intercultural training in earlier studies (Deshpande & Viswesvaran, 1992; Morris & Robie, 2001) and should guide the future research and practice in training evaluation.

Moreover, future research should investigate further if certain training methods might be more effective on an objective level, while others are more effective on a subjective level. Together with insights about preferred training methods (D'Amato & Deal, 2006), this could lead to the recommendation for future intercultural training methods for specific learning outcomes and samples.

Intercultural training effectiveness

The theory and prior research reviewed in this thesis had revealed an unclear picture for the overall effectiveness of intercultural training in general, and for the effectiveness of specific training methods on specific criteria. This research was targeted to shed more light on this issue to facilitate a conclusion of whether the "glass of intercultural training effectiveness is half full or half empty" (Mendenhall et al., 2004, p. 138).

However, the results of the current training on immediate and long-term outcome variables defy a solid conclusion. Overall, the impact on behavioural criteria was very low. This is in line with training in other areas. In their meta-analysis on organisational training; Arthur, Eden and Bell (2003) reported an average decrease of 0.77 in effect size (*d*) between the criteria of learning and behaviour. Thus, it is not surprising to find a similar drop in effectiveness in the current training.

The small impact of the present trainings on behaviour can be explained through a lack of transfer opportunities, the short training duration, relatively small cultural distance between students' home or host country, or a combination thereof. Especially the

inclusion of long-term transfer strategies and comparison of training transfer in dependence of cultural distance should be topics for future research.

Research on sojourners' personality

The results of this thesis have also shed light on the relevance of personality characteristics for the learning process of intercultural training and long-term adjustment and performance abroad.

Some effects of personality for cognitive intercultural learning overall were present at the training onset, but vanished with the time spent on training. Future research should examine whether personality factors are more important in intercultural trainings of short duration than in trainings with multiple sessions or a long-term training plan and thereby gain more insights into potential interaction effects of training and personality for long-term outcomes. Also, the role of other influences, e.g., intrinsic training motivation and self-regulation skills for intercultural learning should be examined, as they might prove more relevant than stable personality characteristics.

Further, the present research expands the insights currently available about the role of multicultural personality to the behavioural level, showing that these personality facets determine how people behave in intercultural negotiations. Multicultural personality facets as well as learning goal and performance-prove goal orientation were related to students' negotiation strategies, such that students high in these traits prefer the approach of trial and error in their negotiations, making many single offers and suggestions to find a creative solution for an acceptable negotiation outcome for both parties. This is an important fortification for the importance of multicultural personality for intercultural interaction in general. Future research should therefore look to ascertain these effects and examine the influence of multicultural personality not only in negotiation settings, but also other forms of intercultural interaction, e.g. team-based working or socialising with host-country nationals.

Multicultural personality also proved to be a strong predictor of cultural adjustment and performance. In fact, adjustment mediated the relationship between personality and performance. These findings are relevant for future research into expatriate selection and development, as they show that a high multicultural personality

enhances the chance of expatriate success at work but does so through its positive impact on adjustment. Future research should try to substantiate this finding with other measures of personality, e.g. the Big Five.

Finally, this finding counters the arguments that cultural adjustment should not be used to evaluate expatriate success. On the contrary, future research should examine the relationship between cultural adjustment and performance abroad in more detail. Especially for the research and practice on intercultural training it will remain relevant to evaluate such training on more than behavioural outcomes, such as job performance. In the future, more specific definitions and measures would be helpful to gain more differential insights into the antecedents, correlates and outcomes of cultural adjustment in specific areas.

General Limitations

Limitations specific to the interpretation of the findings for intercultural learning, behaviour and long-term outcomes have been addressed in the relevant chapters. In this place, various factors that limit the overall generalisability of the results of this thesis should be mentioned.

First of all, the research was conducted with student sojourners, not with professional expatriates. Therefore the application of results regarding training effectiveness and personality influences to professional expatriates is difficult: It can be assumed that the development of intercultural learning, declarative and procedural, will show very similar patterns in all adult samples because it relies on basic human cognitive processes. The effectiveness of such a blended e-learning approach on negotiation skills and long-term measures, however, is limited to students or other samples with comparable experiences and tasks.

Also, the sample size of training participants that could be obtained for this research, although comparable to sample sized in similar training studies, is relatively small. This might have led to an underestimation of training effects, especially if results were obtained with multivariate analyses (Lenth, 2001). A larger sample could have

enhanced the detection of small effects, such as differences in effectiveness between single-mode and concurrent training.

Other limitations pertain to research design. While some control measures were included (age, gender, GPA), no baseline assessment was made for cultural experience of training participants and control group members. While the sample in this study was relatively homogeneous in the cultural knowledge and experience they gathered through their university education, extracurricular and prior cultural experience might have varied. It would have therefore been useful to include a test of intercultural knowledge prior to the training. Ideally, such a test should have been conducted not only for training participants, but also for participants in the control group.

In first year undergraduates at the same university, cultural experience has shown to be an important predictor of cultural competence (Herzfeldt, 2007). It is likely that such an influence should also be present in second year undergraduates and could impact on the level or speed of students' intercultural learning, their behaviour in intercultural situations and their ease to adjust and perform in foreign cultural environments. Thus, future studies should assess students' cultural experience prior to intercultural training initiatives as a control variable.

Similarly, this study did not include a baseline measure of cultural competence for both training participants and the control group. As the training was voluntary, the distribution of cultural competence between training groups and the control group might be not random due to a self-selection bias. Further, students' reasons for electing to participate (or not participate) in the training are manifold: For example, it could have been the case that only students who are highly motivated to prepare themselves for their year abroad, or students who are particularly anxious, have participated. From the author's personal encounters, a mixture of both selection biases is most likely. Some participants were very highly motivated and participated out of curiosity and a high desire to learn, while others signed up for the training because they were anxious about going abroad. However, these were extreme cases. On a related note, the relationship between self-efficacy and dropping out over the course of training that is reported above makes the assumption unlikely that the majority of students who participated were particularly anxious or lacked belief in their general ability. Another self-selection bias seems more likely: It could well have been the case that only those students with low

cultural competence decided to participate in the training, while students with a higher cultural competence might have deemed this unnecessary. Such a bias could explain the surprising results in chapter VII, where the untrained control group reported adjustment and performance values that were comparable, or even superior, to those of training participants. Therefore the judgement about the effectiveness of the two training types, compared with the control group, should be based on temporal changes in the evaluation measures rather than on absolute scores.

Finally, the study would have benefited from the inclusion of a second control group of students who received only the workshop part of the training, but not the online part. This way, the immediate behavioural effects of the single-mode and concurrent training could have been evaluated not only on a relative level against each other, but also on an absolute level against an untrained control group. Further, it would have allowed assessing the effectiveness of either blended training approach versus the single use of experiential training on long-term adjustment and performance.

Conclusion

Students are more eager than ever to spend part of their higher education abroad in order to gain the necessary knowledge, skills and abilities to complete in a global labour market. This tendency is likely to stay and even increase in the near future (Lincoln Commission, 2005). In order to prepare students for their sojourn, rigorous programmes are necessary that exceed the usual level of "orientation". Intercultural training, similar to offerings for professional expatriates, can help students find their way in other cultures and develop cultural self-awareness even before they go abroad. This increases their employability, and on a larger scale, increases the cultural competence of new workforce generations.

However, few studies have looked at intercultural training related to students' developmental needs, processes of intercultural learning, and the effectiveness of such training. In view of the immense number of student sojourns and the impact students cultural competence has on a global scale, there is a surprising and alarming lack of research on their preparation to go abroad. The research building this doctoral thesis addressed this gap. It comprised both practical and scientific aspects by developing,

delivering and evaluating an intercultural training programme targeted specifically at student sojourners.

It should be noted that this training is just a small step on the way to explain the development of intercultural learning and find the most effective means to prepare student sojourners for their stay abroad. However, it has highlighted the importance of intercultural preparation on university level and given insights into the processes that take place in intercultural learning. It has also shown that cognitive intercultural learning is not easily translated into behaviour in intercultural situations. Finally, it has shown that the long-term outcomes of intercultural training are also influenced by many other factors, such as personality, that might alleviate or disguise potential training effects.

Overall, the research in this thesis can be taken as a start to make intercultural preparation for placement students a topic that merits research in its own interest. Student sojourners are numerous. Their experiences abroad shape their attitudes towards their own and other cultures and give them the skills to be employable in a globalised economy. These are important consequences for students themselves, but also for institutions of higher education and society in general. Therefore the intercultural preparation for students should aim to equip them with all necessary knowledge and skills to ensure their sojourn will be the most positive learning experience for both their personal and professional development.

Sustained and rigorous intercultural training on university level including the assessment of its positive consequences could be used to gain recognition and support from institutional stakeholders as well as decision-makers in higher education policy. In the long run, this could ensure that more and more students can benefit from a comprehensive preparation as well as ongoing support, so that they decide on an international placement as an investment in their future.

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Appendix 1: ITIP information and sign-up sheet

Make the most of your placement with

Intercultural Training for International Placements (ITIP)

Are you a student going to an international placement next year?
Would you like to be prepared really well for the new cultural experience?

Take part in ITIP – The free training for your year abroad!

ITIP is an intercultural training developed for students on international placements or study abroad. ITIP offers you a free training for understanding and coping with cultural differences. ITIP mainly uses French and German speaking cultures as examples for cross-cultural differences, however, the skills you train to analyse intercultural situations and develop coping strategies can easily be applied to any other culture. The contents of ITIP are specifically developed for students and the kind of interpersonal situations you are likely to face while being abroad. ITIP is also connected with a scientific study looking at the improvement of student's preparation for sojourns abroad.

What's in there for you:
ITIP will enable you to
- gain cultural competence and understanding
- exercise your language skills with natives
- become aware of your own and other cultures
- develop realistic expectations about your year abroad
On the long term, you could profit from
- easier adjustment to the new culture and environment
- better performance at work
- more social relationships
- more joyful experience abroad
- a source of help and counselling during your placement

Training schedule:
ITIP is open to all students who will go on international placements next academic year.
ITIP is an individual computer-based training, that means, you work with the training material on a computer of your choice at the place and time that suits you best. The whole training takes 4 weeks:
In the first three weeks, you individually work with an online computer programme. In the final week, you will have the chance to train your skills in a 2 hour hands on workshop with intercultural role-plays, feedback, more information about the other cultures and discussions with other future placement students about what you have learnt, your opinions, hopes, and fears. This workshop is conducted with native French and German speakers.

What it is:

On a weekly basis a link with training material will be emailed to you – you can visit the link and complete the training whenever it suits you within this week. The material consists of situations that happen in everyday life between British and French/German people. Such situations are often not fully satisfying for both parties – they are disturbed by misunderstandings, unexpected reactions, and other factors, which make it difficult to deal with the other culture and feel good in it.

By working through the training situations, you come to know some potential culture traps, get an understanding of foreign mindsets and values, and gain cultural competence. Experience from previous trainings also shows a decrease in anxiety about the placement.

The training is absolutely for free. However, together with your participation we would like to ask you to participate in a scientific study about intercultural training.

During the placement or study abroad you will receive two online-questionnaires asking how you are settling in the new culture and how you are doing at your placement/study. For a scientifically even more profound analysis, data from third parties (i.e., supervisor ratings of performance if available) and performance data of your study grades are also gathered. This involves an average from your second year marks, and the marks for your academic work during the year abroad. These data are necessary for the scientific value of the study connected with ITIP, e.g., for separating the influence of academic performance from possible training effects. All the data will be analysed absolutely *anonymously and confidentially*. They are only used for this study. They will not be given to any other people or be used for any other purpose. I assure you that all your data will be treated according to the ethical standards for research released by the British Psychological Society and in concordance with the Data Protection Act (1988). If you change your mind about participating in the scientific study, you can simply email me at any point of time and your data will be deleted.

ITIP is designed according to the newest scientific insights about culture in Britain, French, and all the German speaking countries. It is a unique preparation opportunity for you!

More questions?

If you have any more questions about the training, please mail to regina.herzfeldt@gmail.com, or call Gina Herzfeldt on (0121) 204 3317.

Interested?

If you are interested in participating in ITIP, please complete the section below (in a legible writing) and return one form to Gina Herzfeldt or the ABS placement office. Please keep a duplicate of this sheet for yourself.

Yes, I want to take part in ITIP. With my signature I attest that I have read the above information and am aware that the participation involves a scientific study. I agree that the data detailed as above may be collected and used for the purpose of this research.

Name, Surname	Course	e-mail address

SUN number	Signature

Appendix 2: Items of all scales

1. Multicultural personality

Scale: Rating of items according to the question "I am a person who..." on a 5 point scale from 0 = "totally not applicable" to 4 = "completely applicable"

Cultural Empathy

Understands other peoples feelings

Takes other people's habits into consideration

Sympathizes with others

Enjoys other people's stories

Remembers what other people have told

Is a good listener

Notices when someone is in trouble

Has an insight into human nature

Senses when others get irritated

Pays attention to the emotions of others

Emotional Stability:

Is nervous (r)

Is not easily hurt

Keeps calm at ill-luck

Radiates calm

Is under pressure (r)

Worries (r)

Is apt to feel lonely (r)

Is insecure (r)

Social Initiative:

Makes contacts easily

Finds it difficult to make contacts (r)

Keeps to the background (r)

Leaves the initiative to others to make contacts (r)

Takes the lead

Easily approaches other people

Is timid (r)

Knows how to act in social settings

Tends to wait and see (r)

Flexibility:

Avoids adventure (r)

Changes easily from one activity to another

Avoids surprises (r)

Likes to work on his/her own (r)

Wants to know exactly what will happen (r)

Works mostly according to a strict scheme (r)

Works according to strict rules (r)

Enjoys unfamiliar experiences

Prefers to work alone rather than within a group (r)

Open-mindedness:

Is looking for new ways to attain his/her goal

Finds other religions interesting

Gets involved in other cultures

Has a feeling for what is appropriate in a specific culture

Seeks contact with people from a different background

Has a broad range of interests

Puts his or her own culture in a perspective

Is open to new ideas

Likes to imagine solutions for problems

2. General self-efficacy

Scale: Likert scale from 1 = "Strongly disagree" to 6 = "strongly agree"

Items:

When I make my plans, I am certain I can make them work.

One of my problems is that I cannot get down to work when I should. (r)

If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.

When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them. (r)

I give up on things before completing them. (r)

I avoid facing difficulties. (r)

If something looks too complicated, I will not even bother to try it. (r)

When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it.

When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it.

When trying to learn something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful. (r)

When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them well. (r)

I avoid trying to learn new things when they look difficult for me. (r)

Failure just makes me try harder.

I feel insecure about my ability to do things. (r)

I am a self-reliant person.

I give up easily. (r)

I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in life. (r)

3. Social self-efficacy

Scale: Likert scale from 1 = "Strongly disagree" to 6 = "strongly agree"

Items:

It is difficult for me to make new friends. (r)

If I see someone I would like to meet, I go to that person instead of waiting for him or her to come to me.

If I meet someone interesting who is hard to make friends with, I'll soon stop trying to

make friends with that person. (r)

When I'm trying to become friends with someone who seems uninterested at first, I don't give up easily.

I don't handle myself well in social gatherings. (r)

I have acquired my friends through my personal abilities at making friends.

4. Self-monitoring

Scale: Likert scale from 1 = "Strongly disagree" to 6 = "strongly agree"

Items:

I find it hard to imitate the behaviour of other people. (r)

At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like. (r)

I can only argue for ideas which I already believe. (r)

I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.

I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.

I would probably make a good actor.

In a group of people I am rarely the centre of attention. (r)

In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.

I am not particularly good at making other people like me. (r)

I'm not always the person I appear to be.

I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favour. (r)

I have considered being an entertainer.

I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting. (r)

I have trouble changing my behaviour to suit different people and different situations. (r)

At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going. (r)

I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite as well as I should. (r)

I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with straight face (if for a right end).

I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

5. Goal orientation

Scale : Likert scale from 0 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"

Learning orientation:

I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge.

I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I'll learn new skills

I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from.

For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks.

I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent.

Performance prove orientation:

I enjoy it when others are aware of how well I am doing at my tasks.

I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work.

I'm concerned with showing that I can perform better than my colleagues.

I prefer to work on projects where I can prove my ability to others.

Performance avoidance orientation:

I would avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others.

I prefer to avoid situations where I might perform poorly.

Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill.

I'm concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would reveal that I had low ability.

6. Cultural adjustment

Scale: Participants asked to rate their own adjustment in the item area on a 6-point scale from 1 = "not adjusted at all" to 6 = "very well adjusted".

Environmental adjustment:

Living conditions in general

Housing conditions

Food

Shopping

Cost of living

Entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities

Health care facilities

Social adjustment:

Socialising with host nationals

Interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis

Interacting with host nationals outside of work

Speaking with host nationals

Work adjustment:

Specific job responsibilities

Performance standards and expectations

Responsibilities of my supervisor towards me

Overall adjustment (own item):

Scale from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "very well"

All in all, I would rate my overall adjustment here as ...

7. Performance

Relative performance (own items):

Scale from 1= "not at all meeting them" to 6 = "by far exceeding them"

In relation to my very personal expectation and standards, I would judge my performance as ...

In relation to the expectations and standards of people here in the host country, I would judge my performance as ...

In relations to the expectations and standards people in Great Britain generally have, I would judge my performance here as ...

Overall performance (own item):

Scale from 1 = "not at all good" to 5 = "very good"

All in all, I would rate my performance here as ...

Appendix 3: Training evaluation: Reaction Questionnaire

ITIP Programme Evaluation Questionnaire

Please complete this questionnaire as honest as possible. Your answers are used anonymously to review and improve this training programme.

General evaluation:

Nr	Criteria	Very dis-satisfied	Dis-satisfied	Neither Sat nor Dissat.	Satisfied	Very satisfied	Don't know
	Online Training	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1	**Clarity of training aims and objectives**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	**Level of achievement of modules aims and objectives**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	**Content of material**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	**Online format and design**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	**Structure of material**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	**Accessibility**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Workshop	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	**Content**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	**Appropriateness of format**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	**Rooms and facilities**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Perceived relevance of this training	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Specific evaluation:

Nr	Criteria	Very dis-satisfied	Dis-satisfied	Neither Sat nor Dissat.	Satisfied	Very satisfied	Don't know
1	**Learning of relevant concepts and theories**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	**Relevance of training situations for real life**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	**Avoidance of unnecessary technical terms**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	**Possibility of exercising theoretical knowledge**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	**Flexibility for participants' desires and needs**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	**Appropriateness of training for year abroad**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Other things that might have changed after doing ITIP, e.g., regarding expectations, anxiety, attitudes:

....
....

Further comments and suggestions:

....
....☺

Appendix 4: Item difficulties for critical incidents

Critical Incident	N	*M*	*SD*
Adjustment Average		1.13	1.44
Adjustment 1	11	1.85	1.46
Adjustment 2	13	0.79	1.07
Adjustment 3	15	0.78	1.01
Adjustment 4	17	0.47	1.22
Adjustment 5	20	1.23	1.70
Adjustment 6	18	1.22	2.00
Adjustment 7	17	1.45	1.48
Adjustment 8	22	1.45	1.25
Adjustment 9	15	0.91	1.78
Power Distance Average		1.23	1.65
Power Distance 1	19	0.76	1.74
Power Distance 2	15	1.09	1.35
Power Distance 3	18	0.67	2.43
Power Distance 4	20	1.60	1.91
Power Distance 5	19	1.37	1.36
Power Distance 6	24	1.54	1.20
Power Distance 7	17	1.14	1.92
Power Distance 8	19	0.53	1.59
Power Distance 9	19	2.35	1.35
Assertiveness Average		1.11	1.48
Assertiveness 1	14	1.36	1.22
Assertiveness 2	20	-0.82	2.09
Assertiveness 3	21	1.25	1.59
Assertiveness 4	14	1.29	1.14
Assertiveness 5	16	1.28	1.30
Assertiveness 6	13	2.28	1.54

Critical Incident	N	Mean	St Dev
Future Orientation Average		0.72	1.88
Future Orientation 1	12	2.08	1.58
Future Orientation 2	21	-0.38	1.82
Future Orientation 3	17	-0.18	1.74
Future Orientation 4	21	0.21	1.78
Future Orientation 5	16	2.33	1.62
Future Orientation 6	17	0.25	2.72
Humane Orientation Average		1.09	1.85
Humane Orientation 1	19	1.19	1.80
Humane Orientation 2	16	2.35	2.01
Humane Orientation 3	11	1.82	1.61
Humane Orientation 4	17	-0.21	1.73
Humane Orientation 5	16	1.60	1.58
Humane Orientation 6	19	-0.25	2.36
Gender Egalitarianism Average		0.90	1.63
Gender Egalitarianism 1	17	1.43	2.10
Gender Egalitarianism 2	21	0.76	1.31
Gender Egalitarianism 3	14	0.50	1.46
Institutional Individualism Average		0.59	1.54
Institutional Individualism 1	22	0.83	1.45
Institutional Individualism 2	15	0.60	1.60
Institutional Individualism 3	20	0.33	1.56
Ingroup Collectivism Average		0.60	2.06
Ingroup Collectivism 1	19	-0.32	2.16
Ingroup Collectivism 2	22	1.47	2.28
Ingroup Collectivism 3	14	0.64	1.69
Uncertainty Avoidance Average		0.90	1.73
Uncertainty Avoidance 1	20	0.70	1.56
Uncertainty Avoidance 2	19	2.11	1.38
Uncertainty Avoidance 3	25	-0.09	2.25

Critical Incident	N	Mean	St Dev
Academic Style Average		0.56	1.93
Academic Style 1	20	0.20	2.26
Academic Style 2	19	0.91	1.61

Note. Low values indicate *high* item difficulty.

Appendix 5: Completion rates in training phase 1

Completed Sessions	Training group		Total
	Single-mode	Concurrent	
1 session	6	5	11
2 sessions	4	6	10
All 3 sessions	23	25	48
Total	33	36	69

Appendix 6: Descriptive data for variables in the online training

Variables	M	SD	Skew	Kurt.	zSkew	zKurt
Training group	n/a					
Objective Declarative learning 1	1.75	.89	-.22	-.65	-.07	-.10
Objective Declarative learning 2	2.50	.94	.50	1.46	-.70	-1.04
Objective Declarative learning 3	2.83	.95	.66	1.92	.13	.19
Objective Procedural learning 1	2.54	.71	.79	1.69	.05	.05
Objective Procedural learning 2	-.15	.93	-.07	-.16	.62	.69
Objective Procedural learning 3	2.23	.99	.07	.16	-1.13	-1.25
Subjective Declarative learning 1	5.18	.77	-.41	-1.21	-.17	-.25
Subjective Declarative learning 2	4.77	.90	-.93	-2.71	1.29	1.92
Subjective Declarative learning 3	5.24	.74	-1.34	-3.89	2.63	3.91
Subjective Procedural learning 1	4.82	.83	-.67	-1.97	-.35	-.52
Subjective Procedural learning 2	5.44	.80	-.54	-1.54	.66	.97
Subjective Procedural learning 3	5.08	.88	-.03	-.09	-.40	-.58
General self-efficacy	4.53	.46	.00	-.01	-.25	-.38
Learning orientation	4.45	.78	-.65	-1.89	1.63	2.41
Perf. prove orientation	3.82	.97	.19	.55	-.61	-.90
Perf. avoidance orientation	3.11	.82	.86	2.52	.39	.57

N = 48.

Appendix 7: Negotiation role-play briefing for students and natives

1. French scenario

Information for participants:

In this scenario, you are on a work internship and have a meeting with your supervisor at work. You know that your supervisor only has 10 minutes time for you.

You are doing an internship in the marketing department of a French software company (250 employees). Your supervisor is the marketing director.
You've been in the company for 6 weeks now. Your responsibility in the company is to develop a first draft for the UK marketing concept for a new medical software. Basically, you are working on this concept completely on your own, as no one else in the team has much experience with the UK market or the English language. This project motivates you, but it is also a big challenge.

The reason why you have requested a meeting, however, is that you are not very confident in your language skills. You want to take an extra language course to polish your French. The only course that you have seen which is affordable to you, however, collides with your working hours (Mon – Fri 9am – 5 pm). The course lectures are Tuesdays 10-12 am and Fridays 4-6 pm, so that you would not reach the office before 12.30 on Tuesday, and have to leave at 3.30 pm on Friday. The course lasts for 15-weeks and would also include the DALF exam, highly desirable for you as an extra qualification. The drawback really is the timing of the course lectures: If you want to get the DALF, you need to attend at least 80% of all lectures and pass an exam.

In the meeting with your supervisor, you want to discuss this problem and how you can resolve it.

Your goal for the meeting: Get the ok to do the language course

Please take a few minutes to think about how you want to approach these topics in the meeting. Mind that you only have 10 minutes in the meeting.
Take some notes what strategy you want to use in the meeting and what cultural differences you want to pay attention to:

Strategy and arguments I will use:

Cultural differences that I keep in mind:

Additional Information for Native negotiation partner:

You are the person's supervisor and the marketing director of the company.

Your thoughts regarding the language course request:
The person doing the internship actually has some language problems, but you think she/he can manage. S/he seems to be able to follow all the things going on at work, so you do not really see a necessity for him/her to take an extra language course. However, you approve personal initiative, and you like it that the trainee is active and is interested in other things than work, too.

Regarding the language course request, you may agree for the person to do it if:
- S/he can convince you that it is relevant, necessary, and there are no alternatives
- S/he can convince you that it does not harm his/her work outcomes
- S/he offers some way of still getting the work done.

You want to be convinced about this before you allow the course attendance.
For example, the person can offer to stay longer on other days, or you agree on a preliminary basis and review the person's performance after two weeks to make sure that it does not suffer from the language course.

You have no intention to financially sponsor the language course or encourage to take a different, more expensive language course and pay the difference. You don't know what will evolve from granting permission to this language course – basically it means that the person is not at work during core office hours, and this shouldn't serve as an example for others to request similar things.

France: Your department is a lively place, but workload is high and people are individually responsible for their results. In a marketing department, individualism and freedom is important, but it is also important that your style of work does not negatively affect colleagues or customers. This is also valid for office hours – one cannot simply stay away from the office during normal office hours. There needs to be a good reason. Disrespecting working hours is also a sign of disrespect for colleagues. You want to be sure the person understands this before you grant permission for the language course.

Things you are sensitive about:
Power distance: You are the marketing director and you know it. You expect some respect.
Formality and politeness: If the person does not show politeness, this decreases his/her chances of getting permission for the language course.
Future orientation: You work in an environment of high change and flexibility. Even if you give permission to the course, it can only be conditional and might need to be withdrawn if the situation changes.

2. German scenario:

Information for participants:

Information was identical to French scenario, except that the desired exam was named TESTDAF, not DALF.

Additional information for Native negotiation partner:

You are the person's supervisor and the marketing director of the company.

Your thoughts regarding the language course request:
The person doing the internship actually has some language problems, but you think she/he can manage. S/he seems to be able to follow all the things going on at work, so you do not really see a necessity for him/her to take an extra language course. However, you approve personal initiative, and you like it that the trainee is active and is interested in other things than work, too.

Regarding the language course request, you may agree for the person to do it if:
- S/he can convince you that it is relevant, necessary, and there are no alternatives
- S/he can convince you that it does not harm his/her work outcomes
- S/he offers some way of still getting the work done.

You want to be absolutely sure about that before you allow the course attendance. For example, the person can offer to stay longer on other days, or you agree on a preliminary basis and review the person's performance after two weeks to make sure that it does not suffer from the language course. You have no intention to financially sponsor the language course or encourage to take a different, more expensive language course and pay the difference.

Germany: Your department needs to work under high time pressure and deliver high quality tasks. Your team needs to function smoothly, and people need to make personal sacrifices, e.g. work long hours. You decided to give the trainee some time to integrate him/herself in the team, but now s/he needs to think about potential collaboration partners and whom s/he can get help from. As most people in the department speak English, communication should not be a problem. You are performance oriented and want to see how able this person is and how much he/she can get done. If you feel like it, be frank that you're not very happy the person should attend a language course during office hours. It is a matter of principle that everyone is present during office hours, simply because it facilitates work – both collaboration with others and availability towards customers. For you, being not present during office hours really needs a good excuse, besides, it is against the original work contract.
You want to make absolutely sure that the person understands this.

Things you are sensitive about:

Assertiveness: You are benevolent, but direct and critical. You want to know clearly what the person wants. Wasting time on courtesies and hints annoys you and makes you less willing to grant favours.

Performance orientation/Uncertainty Avoidance: It is really important to you that the work gets done, and that it gets done well. You also want a secure guarantee for this – e.g., an official memo to be kept in the trainee's staff file and an email to the people s/he works together with.

Humane Orientation: It is not really relevant to you if you like the person, or feel you know him/her. You are more focussed on the task.

Appendix 8: Relationships of personality variables with training outcomes

Personality Variable	Cognitive learning Objective	Cognitive learning Subjective	Negotiation behaviour	Long term Adjustment	Long term Performance
Goal orientation					
Learning goal orientation	O	declarative learning at training onset (+)	Single-issue offers (+); substantiating arguments (-)	*	*
Perf-prove orientation	O	declarative learning at training onset (+)	Single & multi-issue offers (+); positive reactions (+)	*	*
Perf-avoid orientation	O	procedural learning in session 2 (+)	Substantiating arguments (-)	*	*
Multicultural personality					
Cultural empathy	O	O	Single-issue offers (+)	Work adjustment (+)	-
Emotional stability	O	O	O	Env, social & overall adjustment (+)	Relative & overall performance (+)
Social initiative	O	O	Single-issue offers (+)	Env, social & overall adjustment (+)	Relative & overall performance (+)
Flexibility	O	O	Providing information (+)	Overall adjustment (+)	O
Open-mindedness	O	O	Single & multi-issue offers (+); asking for check-back (-)	Env, social, work & overall adjustment (+)	Relative & overall performance (+)
Self-related concepts					
General self-efficacy	O	objective decl. learning at training onset (+)	O	*	*
Social self-efficacy	*	*	O	*	*
Self-monitoring	O	O	*	*	*

O = no effect.

* not tested due to measurement problems

Appendix 9: Participants' reactions to the ITIP training

Evaluation Criterion	M
Online training part	
Content of material	4.43
Online format and design	4.24
Structure of material	4.47
Accessibility	4.76
Workshop training part	
Content	4.59
Appropriateness of format	4.65
Rooms and facilities	4.54
Overall training	
Clarity of training aims and objectives	4.63
Level of achievement of aims and objectives	4.41
Perceived relevance	4.66
Learning of relevant concepts and theories	4.41
Relevance of training situations for real life	4.65
Avoidance of unnecessary technical terms	4.37
Possibility of exercising theoretical knowledge	4.31
Flexibility for participants' desires and needs	4.64
Appropriateness of training for year abroad	4.78

N = 37.

Note: Ratings were based on a scale from 1 = "very dissatisfied" to 5 = "very satisfied".